



FONT FUSIONS PUBLICATION

THE 10TH DENTIST

Innovations Transforming Modern Oral Care



EDITORS:

DR. SOORIAPRAKAS CHANDRASEKARAN

DR. AKSHAY RATHI

DR. NAVIN KUMAR DURAI SAMY

www.fontfusionspublication.com



amazon

Copyright Details

© The Authors, 2026

Printed and bound in India by **Font Fusions Publication**, Noida, India.

First Published: 21st January 2026

Font Fusions Publication

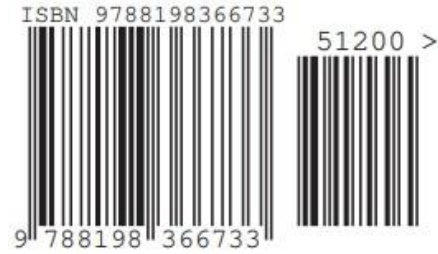
www.fontfusionspublication.com

Contact - +917004837260

The Open Access version of this book has been made available under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License (<https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc/4.0/>), which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and non-commercial reproduction in any medium, provided you give appropriate credit to the original author(s) and the source, provide a link to the Creative Commons license, and indicate if changes were made.

The Creative Commons Public Domain Dedication waiver (<http://creativecommons.org/publicdomain/zero/1.0/>) applies to the data made available in this book, unless otherwise stated.

ISBN Number: 978-81-983667-3-3



ABOUT THE PUBLISHER

Font Fusions Publication: Advancing Knowledge in Dental and Health Sciences. Font Fusions Publication is a dynamic platform committed to revolutionizing academic publishing in the fields of dental and health sciences. With a focus on open-access dissemination, the organization aims to provide researchers, clinicians, and academicians with avenues to share their work globally, fostering innovation and collaboration. Dr. Ritik Kashwani, a renowned expert in the field of dental and health sciences, leads Font Fusions Publication.

Oral Sphere Journal of Dental and Health Sciences of the flagship initiatives under Font Fusions Publication is the Oral Sphere Journal of Dental and Health Sciences. This peer-reviewed, open-access journal provides a comprehensive resource for contemporary research in dentistry and related health disciplines. The journal encompasses a broad range of topics, including digital dentistry, artificial intelligence in diagnostics, oral manifestations of systemic diseases, and advancements in therapeutic modalities. The journal's commitment to quality is evident in its rigorous editorial process and its inclusion in indexing platforms such as Crossref and Google Scholar (as of 2025), which enhances the visibility and impact of published research.

Books by Font Fusions Publication:

Advancements Across Oral Sphere: Innovations Shaping Modern Dentistry: Complementing the journal, Font Fusions Publication has also released a seminal book titled Advancements Across Oral Sphere: Innovations Shaping Modern Dentistry. Published on December 30, 2024, this book delves into cutting-edge developments in dental science and practice. Topics explored include digital dentistry, CAD/CAM technology, teledentistry, and the integration of artificial intelligence in clinical settings. The book aims to provide readers with insights into how these innovations are transforming patient care and clinical workflows. Authored by experts in the field, Advancements Across Oral Sphere serves as both a scholarly reference and a practical guide for professionals seeking to stay abreast of technological advancements in dentistry.

Innovations in Oral Sphere: Ahead of the Curve: It is a comprehensive exploration of the latest advancements in oral health, offering a forward-looking perspective on the future of dental care and oral sciences. This meticulously curated volume brings together contributions from esteemed professionals in the field, providing readers with a detailed and up-to-date account of

transformative progress in oral health. The book explores cutting-edge technologies, interdisciplinary research, and a deeper understanding of the complex relationships between oral health and overall well-being. It encompasses a broad range of topics, including regenerative treatments, digital dentistry, innovative diagnostic tools, and minimally invasive procedures. Each chapter presents insights into how these innovations are shaping the future of dental care, emphasizing the importance of integrating discoveries with ethical practices and patient-centered care. What sets this book apart is its forward-thinking approach. It not only examines the current state of oral health but also anticipates future developments, highlighting the growing importance of prevention, technology-driven solutions, and collaborative research in driving the future of oral health. This makes it an invaluable resource for students, practitioners, and researchers alike, serving as a guide to the ever-evolving world of oral health. Published by Font Fusions Publication Private Limited in May 2025, this book is priced at ₹270 and is available in India. It is printed and bound in Noida, India, and is available for purchase through Font Fusions Publication's website.

Cephalometrics for Orthognathic Surgery: Principles, Planning, and Precision: This essential text unravels the science and clinical relevance of cephalometry in orthognathic surgery. From foundational anatomical landmarks to advanced radiographic analyses, “Cephalometrics for Orthognathic Surgery” provides a structured and insightful approach to diagnosing dento-facial deformities and planning treatment.

Clinical Decision - Making & Case Management in Physiotherapy: This book provides a comprehensive guide to understanding the principles of clinical decision-making and the case management process in physiotherapy. It covers essential topics such as clinical reasoning models, including hypothetico-deductive, pattern recognition, and narrative reasoning, and emphasizes the importance of evidence-based practice. Key steps in clinical decision-making, from subjective and objective assessments to goal-setting, treatment planning, and outcome evaluation, are thoroughly explained. The book also explores case management, highlighting the role of physiotherapists in coordinating care, working with multidisciplinary teams, and ensuring patient-centered care across different stages, from acute to chronic conditions. Ethical and legal considerations, including informed consent, confidentiality, and professional boundaries, are discussed to help practitioners navigate complex clinical and ethical situations. Real-world case scenarios provide practical insights into applying these concepts in musculoskeletal, neurological, and geriatric care settings. Overall, the book serves as an invaluable resource for physiotherapists to enhance clinical decision-making and improve patient outcomes.

Evidence Based Dentistry: Dentistry is both an art and a science. This book explores the integration of scientific research and clinical expertise to provide the highest quality dental care. It defines evidence-based dentistry (EBD) as the judicious use of the best available clinical evidence combined with the dentist's experience and the patient's needs. The text covers the history and evolution of EBD, emphasizing its importance in the modern dental practice and the changing role of the patient in the decision-making process. From understanding the foundational principles to the step-by-step process of evidence based learning, this book guides dental professionals through the process of applying evidence in clinical practice. It highlights the shift from tradition-based to evidence-based care, offering practical insights into improving clinical decision-making, enhancing patient care, and staying current with the latest research. A must-read

for dental practitioners aiming to bridge the gap between scientific research and everyday clinical decisions.

Commitment to Open Access and Global Collaboration: Font Fusions Publication's dedication to open access publishing ensures that knowledge is freely available to a global audience, breaking down barriers to information dissemination. By providing platforms like the Oral Sphere Journal and publishing comprehensive works such as Advancements Across Oral Sphere, the organization plays a pivotal role in advancing the fields of dental and health sciences. For researchers, clinicians, and academicians looking to contribute to or benefit from the latest developments in these fields, Font Fusions Publication offers valuable resources and opportunities for collaboration.

FOREWORD

The field of dentistry, like all areas of healthcare, is undergoing a period of remarkable transformation. Over the last few decades, we have witnessed technological innovations that have not only advanced the science of oral healthcare but have also dramatically changed how treatments are delivered to patients. In this context, the importance of technological integration in oral health cannot be overstated. The intersection of artificial intelligence, robotics, and regenerative medicine is at the forefront of this transformation, promising to reshape the future of dentistry.

"The 10th Dentist" offers an invaluable exploration of these groundbreaking developments, offering both clinical insights and a forward-thinking perspective on how new technologies are enhancing the practice of dentistry. This book stands as a testament to the relentless pursuit of progress and a detailed account of the forces driving change in the dental world. With an emphasis on artificial intelligence, 3D printing, robotic surgery, and regenerative treatments, it captures the essence of modern dentistry's evolution.

What makes this book particularly engaging is its accessibility to both professionals and non-professionals. It presents complex subjects like AI-assisted diagnostics, robotic surgery, and regenerative therapies in a way that is clear, informative, and thought-provoking. The chapters explore how these innovations are not only improving patient outcomes but are also setting new standards of care that are more efficient, precise, and compassionate.

As dental professionals, we must recognize that the future of our field is shaped by the technologies we embrace today. "The 10th Dentist" provides a comprehensive guide to understanding these advancements and encourages us to think critically about how we can harness them to improve patient care, enhance surgical precision, and ultimately, shape a future where oral healthcare is more effective and accessible for all.

This book is a call to action for practitioners to stay abreast of the latest trends and innovations. It serves as a valuable resource for anyone involved in the dental profession, from researchers and academics to practitioners and healthcare administrators. The work presented here is not just an overview of current technologies; it is a blueprint for the future, a vision of what's to come, and a reminder that we are all part of a larger movement that seeks to improve the lives of those we serve.

I commend the authors for their dedication to advancing the field and for providing this invaluable resource. "The 10th Dentist" is a must-read for anyone passionate about the future of dental science.



Dr Zameer Pasha

BDS,MFDS RCPS (Glasgow),MDS (OMFS),PhD (OMFS), FCLP (Smile Train)

Consultant AIAALAMI DENTAL CLINIC,

PREFACE

In the ever-evolving landscape of dental and medical technologies, the integration of artificial intelligence (AI), robotics, and regenerative medicine has emerged as a transformative force. "The 10th Dentist" explores the cutting-edge advancements and breakthroughs that are reshaping oral healthcare and beyond. This book delves into the revolutionary role of AI in oral surgery, the precision offered by robotic-assisted procedures, and the innovative regenerative strategies that are enhancing healing and restoring function in dental treatments.

As the world embraces digital tools, this book highlights the significant contributions of 3D printing, AI-driven decision support systems, and stem cell applications in oral healthcare. Through an exploration of these technologies, we see how modern practices are not only improving treatment outcomes but are also making dental care more personalized and accessible to diverse populations, including those in underserved regions.

With a focus on both the scientific advancements and the ethical implications of these technologies, this book aims to bridge the gap between innovation and practical application, offering valuable insights for dental professionals, healthcare providers, and anyone invested in the future of oral and maxillofacial surgery.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

The completion of this book would not have been possible without the unwavering support and contributions of many individuals and organizations. It is with deep gratitude that I acknowledge the following:

First and foremost, I would like to express my heartfelt thanks to my co-authors, whose dedication, expertise, and commitment to evidence-based dentistry have made this work a reality. Their insights, thorough research, and collaborative spirit have been invaluable throughout the writing process.

I am deeply grateful to Font Fusions Publication for their professionalism and vision in bringing this book to life. Their commitment to advancing knowledge in dental and health sciences, particularly through open-access publishing, has allowed us to share this resource with a global audience. Special thanks go to Dr. Ritik Kashwani, whose leadership and support have been pivotal in the development of this book.

My sincere appreciation also extends to the academic institutions and dental professionals whose research and clinical experiences shaped the foundation of this book. Their work has provided both inspiration and guidance in crafting the comprehensive discussions on evidence-based practice presented here.

I would like to acknowledge the dental professionals and researchers who contributed to the ongoing conversations around evidence-based dentistry. Their insights have enriched the content of this book and helped clarify the complexities involved in integrating research with clinical care.

Lastly, I wish to thank my family and friends for their constant support, patience, and encouragement during the writing process. Their belief in me has been a source of motivation from

start to finish.

To all those who have contributed to this book, whether through direct input, support, or inspiration, I extend my deepest gratitude. This work is a testament to the collective efforts of many, and I hope it serves as a meaningful resource for dental professionals committed to improving patient care through evidence-based practices.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

01 Role of Imaging in Oral Cancer Detection and Management

Dr Richa Bahadur
Senior Resident
Department of Dentistry
Esic Medical College & Hospital, Namkum, Ranchi, Jharkhand, India



Dr. Shreya Gill, MDS in Department of Conservative Dentistry and
Endodontics, DMD, Virginia, USA



Dr Neha Verma
Assistant Professor,
Department of Dentistry,
Government medical College, Kannauj , Uttar Pradesh, India .



Dr. Sajda Khan Gajdhar
Lecturer, Division of Oral Pathology and Microbiology, Department
of Oral Basic and Clinical Science, Ibn Sina National College for
Medical Studies, Jeddah Kingdom of Saudi Arabia., Jeddah, KSA .



02 Advances in Clear Aligners: The Future of Orthodontic Treatment

Dr. Akshay Rathi, Hon. Professor, Government Dental College and Hospital, Mumbai, Maharashtra, India



Dr. Sowjanya Gunukula
Independent researcher
295 Ukiah St, Lewisville TX 75056



Dr Bhavana Agarwal, BDS, MDS (Orthodontics and Dentofacial Orthopaedic) at D'Care Dental Clinic, Moranhat, Assam.



Dr. Anirban Banerjee, Assistant Professor,
Department of Orthodontics and Dentofacial
Orthopaedics, Haldia Institute of Dental Sciences and
Research, Haldia, West Bengal, India



03 Periodontal Regeneration: Current Advances in Tissue Engineering

Dr. Ayush Shrivastava
B.D.S, M.D.S (OMFS)
Co-Founder at Cortico Core
Chief Scientist & Concept Validator at Metagnostic Clinician
Biomechanical strategist with over 1000+ Strategic Implants
Specializes in AI tools, data analysis, CBCT-driven planning, and intraoral welding techniques
National trainer in basal implantology with a research-driven approach



Dr. Vishwas Sharma
BDS (Jaipur Dental College)
Dental Surgeon & Strategic Implantologist
Managing Director
Vishwas Smile & Spine Centre



Dr. Amit Kumar Joseph
Reader, Department of Oral & Maxillofacial Pathology and Oral Microbiology,
Teerthanker Mahaveer Dental College & Research Centre, Moradabad, Uttar Pradesh, India



Dr. Deepti Maskara, BDS, MDS, Senior Lecturer, Department of Periodontology and Implantology, Guru Nanak Dev Dental College, Sunam, Punjab, India



04 Smart Materials in Dentistry: Responding to Environmental Stimuli for Improved longevity

Dr Athira M, Assistant professor, Department of Prosthodontics, Educare Institute of Dental Sciences, Chattiparamba, Malappuram, Kerala, India



Dr. Satwik Chatterjee, BDS, FFOAJ; Post-graduate student in Forensic Science, School of Basic & Applied Sciences, Adamas University, Kolkata, West Bengal, India



Prof. Mohammed Mustafa, Professor of Endodontics, Department of Conservative Dental Sciences, College of Dentistry, Prince Sattam Bin Abdulaziz University, Al-Kharj 11942, Saudi Arabia.



Dr. Cidda Sindhuja, Cosmetic Dental Surgeon, Private Practitioner, Sindhuja Dental Care and Root Canal Centre Hospital, Tirupati, India



05 Oral Health of Underserved and Vulnerable Populations

Dr. Nishant Visvas Dumont, Junior Resident, Department of Oral & Maxillofacial Surgery, Mahatma Gandhi Post Graduate Institute of Dental Sciences, Pondicherry University, Pondicherry, Pondicherry, India, 605010



Dr Rohit Pasari, BDS, MDS (Public Health Dentistry), Fellow of Global College of Implantology, Fellowship in Aesthetic and cosmetic dentistry, with an experience of 13 years in clinical practice at D'Care Dental Clinic, Moranhat, Assam, India



Dr. Kochikar Reshma Pai, Dean, Professor & Head, Department of Pediatric and Preventive Dentistry, Srinivas Institute of Dental Sciences, Mukka, Mangalore, Karnataka, India



Dr. Boris Saha, Assistant Professor, Department of Conservative Dentistry and Endodontics, Kusum Devi Sunderlal Dugar Jain Dental College, Kolkata, West Bengal, India



06 Advanced Regenerative Strategies & Material Science

Dr. P.Nihar , Assistant Professor , Department of Conservative Dentistry and Endodontics, Cksthaja Dental College, Tirupati, DR. N.T.R University of Health Sciences, Vijayawada, Andhra Pradesh, India



Dr. Vibha Samrit, Consultant Endodontist, Department of Conservative Dentistry and Endodontics, Nagpur, Maharashtra, India



Dr. Shweta Sharma, MDS, Conservative Dentistry and Endodontics, Private Practitioner and Ex-Reader- Inderprastha Dental college, Ghaziabad, Uttar Pradesh , sswhite7@gmail.com



Dr. Ajimol Theresa Jose
Senior Lecturer, Department of Prosthodontics & Implantology,
Faculty of Dentistry, AIMST University, Kedah, Malaysia.



07 Personalised Prosthodontics

Dr. Alok Dwivedi, Department of Prosthetic Dental Sciences, Faculty of Dentistry, Najran University, Najran Saudi Arabia



Dr Athira M, Assistant professor, Department of Prosthodontics, Educare Institute of Dental Sciences , Chattiparamba, Malappuram, Kerala,India



Dr. Kanak Pareek

BDS, MDS (OMFR), Implantologist, Micro-Endodontics, M.D at K. C. Clinic & Research Centre (estd. 1986),
Founder & M.D at Metagnostic
Founder and inventor of Angle Assist Founder and Inventor of IOPA
(Intraoral Plasma Arc Welder)
Co-founder CorticoCore, Sel'Phi & Sel'Phi Cosmeceuticals
G.S at Rajasthan Rural Healthcare Society - Global winner at NASA AMES
SPACE SETTLEMENT DESIGN PROJECT



Dr. Shaiq Gajdhar, Assistant Professor, Prosthodontics, Department of Oral and Maxillofacial Rehabilitation, Ibsina National College for Medical Studies. Jeddah, KSA.



08 Robotics, Ai-guided Surgery, and Virtual Surgical Planning in Oral and Maxillofacial Surgery

Dr. Sajjad Salam FFDRCS (Ire) MFDRCs (Ire) MDS, Dental and Maxillofacial Services, Consultant Oral and Maxillofacial Surgeon, King Hamad University Hospital - Royal Medical Services - Bahrain



Dr. Kanak Pareek

BDS, MDS (OMFR), Implantologist, Micro-Endodontics, M.D at K. C. Clinic & Research Centre (estd. 1986),
Founder & M.D at Metagnostic
Founder and inventor of Angle Assist Founder and Inventor of IOPA (Intraoral Plasma Arc Welder)
Co-founder CorticoCore, Sel'Phi & Sel'Phi Cosmeceuticals
G.S at Rajasthan Rural Healthcare Society - Global winner at NASA AMES SPACE SETTLEMENT DESIGN PROJECT



Dr. Ayush Shrivastava

B.D.S, M.D.S (OMFS)
Co-Founder at Cortico Core
Chief Scientist & Concept Validator at Metagnostic Clinician
Biomechanical strategist with over 1000+ Strategic Implants
Specializes in AI tools, data analysis, CBCT-driven planning, and intraoral welding techniques
National trainer in basal implantology with a research-driven approach



Dr. Sarabpreet Kaur, Consultant oral and Maxillofacial surgeon (MDS),
Address -H no.15-A gurbax nagar Amritsar, Punjab, India



CHAPTER 1

ROLE OF IMAGING IN ORAL CANCER DETECTION AND MANAGEMENT

Dr Richa Bahadur, Dr. Shreya Gill, Dr Neha Verma, Dr. Sajda Khan Gajdhar

INTRODUCTION

Oral cancer is an important health issue of global concern that has been on an increase in terms of incidence and mortality especially in developing nations such as India. Oral squamous cell carcinoma (OSCC) accounts to more than thirty percent of all the malignancies on the Indian subcontinent [1]. Stages I and II of malignancy show a significantly higher level of prognosis in comparison with stage III and IV, which is why the diagnosis of oral cancer has its success in its stage heavily dependent. Regrettably, the majority of incidences of early oral cancer present late because they lack information in the society and are generally non symptomatic. Imaging provides early diagnosis of oral cancer and staging, planning of therapy, and follow-up, which makes it quite significant [2].

Initially it was the privileged diagnostic tool but today the imaging techniques have revolutionized the field of oral medicine and radiology so far that it has become an absolute necessity in treating cancer. Although referrals to a traditional visual and hands-on examination are vital in determining the diagnosis of suspected oral lesions, imaging provides a depth of view, detail, and precision to determine the degree of disease, the invasion of neighboring structure, the nodal metastases, and the dissemination. To be able to design individualised treatment pathways, which focus on both oncological control and functional and cosmetic outcomes, the multidisciplinary cancer care teams need sufficient anatomical and functional expertise [3].

Good control of oral cancer is based on early diagnosis. Non-invasive imaging techniques especially enable clinicians to identify subclinical lesions, the differentiation between benign and malignant changes, and the determination of the accurate size and spread of that change. Even though at first looking these may provide informations, initial observations of the typical imaging tools such as intraoral periapical radiographs and orthopantomograms (OPGs) are often valueless in detecting the early or already deeply grounded lesions [4].

Computed tomography (CT), magnetic resonance imaging (MRI), and positron emission tomography (PET) are the modern cross-sectional imaging modalities and have become new stars in the therapeutic armamentarium. Particularly, MRI is very helpful due to the high prevalence of contrast variables of the soft tissue that can assist in explaining tumour limits, detecting perineural invasion, muscle, salivary gland, and other soft tissue involvement [5]. Palpation of mandibular or maxillary tumours necessitates the use of CT images where the bone is affected. Other new methods like optical coherence tomography (OCT), autofluorescent imaging, narrow band imaging (NBI), and high-resolution ultrasonic imaging arouse hopes since they depict real-time imaging in a non-invasive way. These devices are used to guide biopsies in a more specific histological diagnosis and chairside screening especially on the high-risk patients [6].

Independent of it being surgical, chemotherapeutic, radiotherapeutic or a combination of several modalities, optimal therapeutic choice is the one which relies on proper staging of oral cancer. Imaging makes most of the TNM (Tumor, Node, Metastasis) classification possible. T-stage analysis of the primary tumor is suggested to be performed by MRI due to its higher soft tissue contrast; CT is needed in the analysis of the cortical bone degeneration; and coupled with MRI, both can be used to measure the tumor volume, which is also becoming increasingly significant as a prognosticating indicator. PET-CT proves quite useful in examining the whole body as cancer progresses into its advanced stages in examination of M-stage distant spread which makes it able to identify metastases early and accurately [7, 8].

Accurate imaging staging ensures that the patient is not under or oversized and that morbidity is avoided since the person does not have to undergo an operation that he/she does not necessarily have. The survival rates improve owing to timely intervention. Imaging does not cease involvement of imaging at diagnosis and treatment planning. Monitoring and checking after effects of treatment is also vital. Alimlim, residual disease and the response of treatment, and recurrence or second primaries are outlined by cross-sectional imaging and common in oral cancer [9].

PET-CT can be very helpful in the evaluation of the response to treatment especially after radiation because any tissue change on an anatomical imaging may resemble recurrence. The instruments of functional imaging give an opportunity to distinguish between post-therapeutic fibrosis and remained malignancy. Future therapies based on imaging follow-up such as salvage surgery or second-line medication are guided [10].

Interactive radiology is beginning to become an effective option in the treatment of oral cancer besides diagnostics. Pictures have become guides to biopsies, fine-needled user of suspicious nodes, and palliative measures such as tumour embolisation of bleeding cancer lesions. These low invasive interventions have therapeutic and diagnostic benefits despite reduced morbidity of the patients [11].

Including imaging in the oral cavity cancer diagnostic and therapy plan implies the paradigm shift in radiology and oral medicine. Although oral cancer treatment takes place throughout the life span, imaging influences every phase of the process, including early diagnosis and proper staging,

treatment planning, monitoring, and follow-up [12]. With the promotion of radiomics, molecular imaging, and technologies fueled by the development of AI, the discipline of radiography in cancer is most likely to become far more central and advanced. Keeping abreast of such advancements not only provides a clinical but also an intellectual need to the radiologist and oral medicine specialist that will greatly influence the patient outcome [13].

EPIDEMIOLOGY AND CLINICAL OVERVIEW

Epidemiology

The incidence of oral cancer is a severe worldwide public health problem in Eastern European countries, mostly in the southern region of Africa, Southeast Asia, and South Asia. The statistics put the number of new cases and deaths due to oral cavity cancers at an estimated 377 and 177 000, respectively, and this estimate is taken world wide. Normally, there is higher male to female rate due to gender differences in the use of alcohol and tobacco which are variables of risks [14].

Cancer is the third most detected among the men and the most prevalent in India is oral cancer. The habit of tobacco chewing, usage of areca nut and gutkha as early childhood causes is also likely to play a major role in the prevalence of the disorder [15].

Yet despite being diagnosed even more in younger individuals due to factors present during their early years, the average age of onset is between 45 and 60 years. It is very common in late stage presentation mechanisms which vastly diminish treatment outcomes and prognosis in low-resource settings [16].

COMMON SITES OF ORAL CANCER

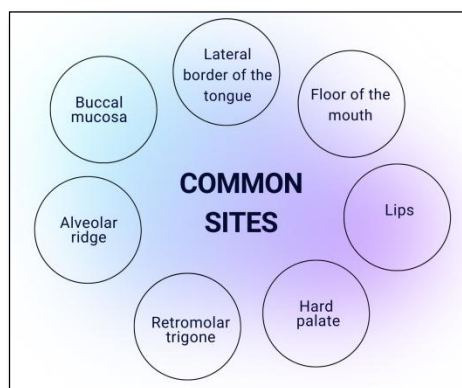


Figure 1: Common sites of oral cancer

RISK FACTORS

Several modifiable and non-modifiable risk factors contribute to the development of oral cancer:

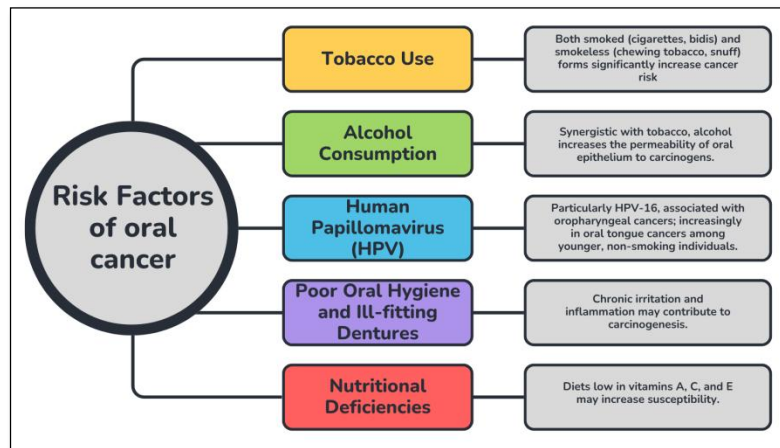


Figure 2: Risk factors of oral cancer

CLINICAL SIGNS AND SYMPTOMS

Early diagnosis of oral cancer is difficult since early phases of the disease can show no symptoms [17]. Typical clinical manifestations include:

- Non-healing ulcer with indurated (hard) margins
- Red (erythroplakia), white (leukoplakia), or mixed lesions in the oral cavity
- Exophytic growth-like masses
- Pain or burning sensation, especially while eating spicy foods
- Difficulty in chewing, swallowing, or speaking
- Trismus (restricted oral cavity opening), especially in cases involving the retromolar area
- Tooth mobility or non-healing extraction socket
- Numbness or paresthesia in the oral region
- Cervical lymphadenopathy, suggesting regional metastasis

Early identification of such symptoms during frequent dental visits is absolutely vital for the timeliness of diagnosis and referral. Dentists and other oral health professionals have a big impact on how doubtful people are screened and triaged for additional imaging and biopsy.

IMAGING MODALITIES IN ORAL CANCER

Imaging is predominant in achieving effective therapy of oral cancer. It guides initial diagnosis, tumour classification, staging, therapeutical planning and follow-ups. The selection of modality of imaging is based on the location of the tumour, clinical suspicion, and necessity of achieving a diagnosis on soft tissues or bone involvement, technology availability, and procurability, as well as cost effectiveness. Any imaging method possesses some advantages and disadvantages. A multimodal imaging approach, typically, provides the best assessment possible [18].

Conventional radiography (intra oral and panoramic)

Only a minor role should be played by conventional radiography namely bitewing and intraoral periapical radiography in the diagnosis of oral cancer. Nevertheless, it helps to explain local bone involvement and the tooth-related disease in the early or unintentional injuries. Occasionally referred to as orthopantomography or OPG, panoramic radiography is done to showcase the teeth, condyles and jaws in their entirety. It can raise some secondary changes that can be linked to cancer or bone erosion despite the fact that it is not specifically diagnostic of soft tissue tumours. It is a primary screening procedure [19].

Computed Tomography (CT)

Imaging with CT is very useful in assessing invasion of the bone, the size of the tumor, and the extension to the surrounding structures. Contrast CT makes it possible to define the border of the tumor, in particular, it relates to bone and air cavity, such as the maxillary sinus. It is also particularly useful in operating design, operating on resection and reconstruction choices. The use of multidetector CT (MDCT) allows 3D reconstructions, which can be used in setting up a virtual plan of the maxillofacial surgeries. Nevertheless, it has less detail in the soft tissue than an MRI and carries an exposure to ionizing radiation [20].

MRI (Magnetic Resonance Imaging)

Concerning the distributions on salivary glands, muscular invasion and neurovascular bundles soft tissue, MRI is the gold standard. It actually excels in terms of perineural invasion, bone marrow extension and deep tissue resection margins. The entire information on tissue properties is available in sequences with T1-weighted, T2-weighted, and contrast-enhanced weight. Dynamic contrast-enhanced MRI (DCE-MRI) and diffusion-weighted imaging (DWI) give great information regarding tumour aggressiveness and treatment response. MRI is more contrasting when it comes to soft tissues compared to CT and therefore, is radiation-free despite being more time consuming and expensive [21,22].

Ultrasound (USG)

Ultrasonic imaging is a non-invasive technique that is more affordable compared to other techniques when considering superficial tumours, cervical lymphadenopathy and directed fine needle aspiration cytology (FNAC). Doppler imaging is used to distinguish between the existence of benign and malignant lymph nodes based on their internal vascularity, shape and edge. USG is operator dependent and limited by bone interference and appropriate to deep, or intra oral, primary tumours. Nevertheless, simulating nodal diseases and after treatment are extremely significant [23].

PET-CT (Positron Emission Tomography the CT)

PET-CT is the combination of image-anatomical and metabolic using imaging isotopes fluorodeoxyglucose (FDG). It is quite delicate in establishing far-off metastases, hidden lymph node participation, and reoccurring disease. It is the best option in identifying residual or recurrent tumours that have transformed the anatomy of a patient after treatment. PET-CT can also assist radiotherapy treatment planning by way of mapping of active tumours. Nevertheless, this must be considered greatly expensive, limitedly accessible, and with the possibility of false positive in inflammation [24].

Computed Tomography (CBCT)

CBCT offers 3D oral and maxillofacial visual imaging in regards to the oral maxillofacial structure making it less radiation as compared to the normal CT. It is commonly applied to dental oncology in the study of jaw integrity, prosthesis planning and encroachment on the alveolar bone. However, it is only useful to hard tissues; that is, no concentration between soft tissues. Where a thorough osseous study is required, CBCT is slightly useful; MRI or MDCT is not of much assistance [25].

Optical Imaging (NBI, OCT, Autofluorescence)

Oral lesions could be detected and diagnosed early using optical imaging systems by examining the alterations in the surface of the oral cavity without performing any surgery and examining the small details. Narrow band imaging (NBI) enhances the visualization of the mucosal vascular pattern, thus making it possible to detect the dysplastic change. The early neoplastic changes of the epithelium and the lamina propria seen in higher resolution cross-sectional pictures provided by optical coherence tomography (OCT) are shown. Besides, the autofluorescence imaging strategy through the oscillations of natural tissue fluorescence aquifers illuminates the alterations of metabolic procedures in different tissues and provides a convenient way of identifying cancer early-onset [26,27].

Radiomics (Advanced Functional Imaging, AI-assisted Imaging)

The new technology on radiomics (quantitative acquisition of features of imaging), and artificial intelligence (AI) have now made the development of predictive models regarding tumor aggressiveness, prognosis, and treatment response possible. When examining something at a scale that would permit large-scale collections, the artificial intelligence systems can identify patterns on a level far too small to be noticeable by a human eye. These are the technologies that prop up individualized treatment planning and thus, are being applied in radiological practice. Nevertheless, prior to their extensive application, they lean on immense annotated data and strong validation [28].

Modality	Utility	Advantages	Limitations
Conventional Radiography	Baseline evaluation; bone involvement	Low cost, accessibility	Limited soft tissue resolution
Panoramic Radiograph (OPG)	Jaw evaluation, gross lesion detection	Overview of maxillofacial anatomy	Overlapping structures, low sensitivity

CT (Computed Tomography)	Tumor extent, cortical bone invasion	Good bone detail, rapid acquisition	Radiation exposure, limited soft tissue contrast
MRI (Magnetic Resonance Imaging)	Soft tissue delineation, perineural spread	Superior contrast, no ionizing radiation	High cost, longer scan time
Ultrasound (USG)	Cervical lymph node assessment, guided biopsy	Non-invasive, portable	Operator-dependent, limited by bone interference
PET-CT	Metastasis, recurrence detection	Whole-body imaging, functional assessment	Expensive, false positives in inflammation
Sialography	Salivary gland involvement	Ductal architecture visualization	Invasive, rarely used now
Cone Beam CT (CBCT)	3D maxillofacial bone imaging	High-resolution for jaw lesions	Limited soft tissue imaging

Table 1: Comparison of advantages and limitations of different imaging techniques

ROLE OF IMAGING IN EARLY DETECTION

The detection of oral cancer at its initial stages enhances survival and the prognosis of patients to a significantly high level. The early stage (stage I or II) diagnosis of oral squamous cell carcinoma (OSCC) typically has more functional and esthetic advantages since less extreme treatment methods can be applied successfully at an earlier period. On the other hand, lesions that occur during their early stages are usually not very noticeable or symptomatic when compared to the clinical diagnosis upon self. Through screening programs and risk factor assessment tools, it is through imaging technologies that particularly pre-malignant and early malignant lesions mainly in high-risk individuals can be detected [29].

Pre-Malignant Lesion Detection

Leukoplakia, erythroplakia, oral submucous fibrosis (OSMF) and lichen planus are oral pre-malignant disorders (OPMDs) that may lead to a malignant transformation. In a broad sense, the regular visual and palpative testing will not help to make out the distinction between the benign and dysplastic changes. Imaging also highlights the thickness of the lesions, subepithelial thickening, structural or vascular aberrations [30]. Newer imaging modalities like optical coherence tomography (OCT) and high resolution MRI have the ability to deliver epithelial and underlying connective tissue cross-sectional imaging thus allowing the identification of dysplastic changes prior to their invasion [31].

Utilization in High Risk Screening Programs

Surveillance aimed at early detection of oral lesion particularly is beneficial to the high-risk population, including regular users of alcohol, chronic tobacco or areca nuts, or an individual with a known family predisposition [32]. Community-based screening aims at providing a non-invasive method of triaging of the concerning malignancies, which is done by using portable photography

instruments in places with limited resources. The use of an autofluorescence device such as VELscope enhances visibility due to the detection of alteration in the fluorescence of tissues thus allowing more of the aberrant tissue to be identified. Tele-imaging technologies also allow the expert evaluation and follow-up without the travelling needed by the patient to reach main tertiary care centers, thus assuring better availability of specialist care [33].

New Non-Invasive Optical Tools

Some technologies that are being used to detect potential cancer early on include tissue autofluorescence, optical coherence tomography (OCT) and narrow band imaging (NBI) where non-invasive rather than clinical testing results are used. OCT provides cross-sectional images in the micrometre range at the same level as histological images without need of a biopsy, thus enabling epithelial abnormalities and basement membrane abnormalities which imply dysplasia or malignancy in situ to be identified [34]. NBI uses the narrow-bandwidth of light to enhance the visualization of blood vessel patterns giving a better view which is useful in detecting abnormal blood vessel growth that can be an indication of cancerous development. Epithelial dysplasia or cancer is normal, but it also is often present, and tissue autofluorescence imaging relies on the inherent fluorescence of tissue components such as collagen and NADH to distinguish healthy sites versus diseased ones in a different manner [35].

Artificial Intelligence/Radiomics in Forecast

The process of extracting high dimension and quantitative features of medical image with radiomics provides a potent tool of making sense of the underlying pathophysiology of oral cancer. Radiomic features can be used to predict the grade of tumor, the propensity of tumor metastasis and risk of recurrence in most cases even before a biopsy is taken, based on analysis of data collected via an MRI, CT or PET scan. By means of these image-based biomarkers, early risk stratification and individualized treatment planning are possible. This potential is further boosted by inclusion of machine learning and artificial intelligence (AI) that reveals intricate patterns and relationships that may not be intuited by human beings [36]. The tools based on AI can classify lesions automatically, assist in screening the population with large numbers without involvement of clinicians, and assist in decision-making. Additionally, combining AI with intraoral imaging devices proves to be an excellent development in timely distinction/ triaging of oral lesions. Collectively, these emerging technologies represent a paradigm shift in the area of precision diagnostics in oral oncology that is objective and is data-driven rather than based on subjective clinical evaluation [37].

IMAGING IN TUMOR STAGING

In the treatment of oral cancer, accurate tumor staging is rather crucial since it determines therapy choices, forecasts prognosis, and promotes ongoing professional communication. Still the pillar for oral cancer staging, the American Joint Committee on Cancer (AJCC) and the Union for International Cancer Control (UICC) devised the TNM categorization system. By providing specific anatomic and occasionally functional insights, imaging is absolutely critical in evaluating every component of the TNM system: tumor size (T), Nodal involvement (N), and distant metastases (M) [38].

Application of TNM Staging via Imaging

The 8th edition of the AJCC TNM system integrates depth of invasion (DOI) and extranodal extension (ENE), which have significant prognostic implications. Imaging techniques are indispensable in:

- Measuring tumor dimensions and DOI
- Identifying nodal size, shape, and enhancement patterns
- Detecting spread to distant organs such as lungs, liver, and bones

When combined with clinical and histological data, radiological staging boosts staging confidence and diagnostic accuracy. Sometimes combined with functional modalities like PET-CT, cross-sectional imaging modalities CT and MRI enable to show a complete staging profile [39].

T – Primary Tumor	
T Category	Criteria
Tis	Carcinoma in situ
T1	Tumor ≤ 2 cm in greatest dimension and DOI ≤ 5 mm
T2	Tumor ≤ 2 cm and DOI > 5 mm and ≤ 10 mm OR tumor > 2 cm but ≤ 4 cm and DOI ≤ 10 mm
T3	Tumor > 4 cm OR any tumor with DOI > 10 mm
T4a	Moderately advanced local disease: invasion of adjacent structures (e.g., cortical bone, deep muscles, skin, maxillary sinus)
T4b	Very advanced local disease: invasion of masticator space, pterygoid plates, skull base, or encasement of carotid artery
N – Regional Lymph Nodes	
N Category	Criteria
N0	No regional lymph node metastasis
N1	Metastasis in a single ipsilateral lymph node ≤ 3 cm without extranodal extension (ENE–)
N2a	Single ipsilateral node > 3 cm but ≤ 6 cm and ENE–
N2b	Multiple ipsilateral nodes ≤ 6 cm and ENE–
N2c	Bilateral or contralateral nodes ≤ 6 cm and ENE–
N3a	Node > 6 cm and ENE–
N3b	Any node with extranodal extension (ENE+) regardless of size
M – Distant Metastasis	
M Category	Criteria
M0	No distant metastasis
M1	Distant metastasis present

Table 2: TNM Staging Chart for Oral Cavity Cancer (AJCC 8th Edition)

ENE = Extranodal Extension, DOI = Depth of Invasion

Stage	TNM Combinations
Stage 0	Tis N0 M0
Stage I	T1 N0 M0
Stage II	T2 N0 M0
Stage III	T3 N0 M0 or T1–T3 N1 M0
Stage IVA	T4a N0/N1 M0 or T1–T4a N2 M0
Stage IVB	T4b Any N M0 or Any T N3 M0
Stage IVC	Any T Any N M1

Table 3: Stage Grouping

IMAGING-GUIDED BIOPSY AND DIAGNOSTIC ACCURACY

Diagnosis of oral cancer in most cases, oral cancer has to be diagnosed, based on the histological confirmation of worrying anomalies. Even when direct visual and touch sensation evaluations are the initial feature of clinical suspicion, imaging-guided biopsy procedures can be greatly useful in enhancing diagnostic accuracies especially in cases of deep-seated or anatomically problematic disorders. In this way, these techniques offer maximum biopsy path, allow selective identification of the lesion, exclude crucial structures and minimize the morbidity [40].

Ultrasound- or CT-Guided biopsy of Deep or challenging Lesions

Conventional techniques of performing biopsies are restricted to the intra oral finding of cancer in complex anatomical regions: retromolar trigone, the deep-reaching tongue musculature, the oropharynx. In this eventuality, either the core needle biopsy (CNB) or the ultrasonic-guided fine needle aspiration (US-FNA) would serve as an excellent alternative as the surgery can have a real-time image [41]. Their non-invasive nature, lack of ionizing radiation (in ultrasonic imaging), real-time monitoring of vascular structures to reduce bleeding risk and accurate insertion of insertion needles into the lesion are some of their benefits. CT-guided biopsy plays a significant role in tumors going deeper or more complex in the sense that they reach into the parapharyngeal space or the infratemporal fossa due to its superior spatial resolution and can scan the surrounding anatomy in cross-section. To provide guidance when the acoustic window has closed because of bone or air, to guide treatment when lesions approach vital structures such as the carotid sheath, or where penetration of ultrasound (e.g. deep echo degradation) is difficult, CT guidance can be particularly valuable. Although they reduce stress, increase accuracy and safety of the processes, US- and CT-guided procedures combine with the capability to sample previously inaccessible lesions [42].

FNAC of Lymph Node

No longer does FNA Cytology (FNAC) remain an invaluable, low-invasive, method of assessing cervical lymphadenopathy, particularly where it is believed to indicate a metastasis. Imaging, more precisely ultrasonic guidance has the advantage of maximally increasing the diagnostic sensitivity of FNAC, which permits specific targeting of problematic lymph nodes according to essential morphological changes, such as round shape, loss of fatty hilum, specific echogenicity, and the occurrence of necrosis [43]. This method ensures availability of live tissue specimen and elimination of the necrotic or cystic areas, thus distinguishing reactive, infectious, and malignant nodal alterations and minimizes the risk of a false-negative from the excisional biopsy. Doppler ultrasonic scanning further add to the diagnostic power by enabling a practitioner to distinguish between benign and malignant nodes thus allowing one to better make clinical decisions in head and neck oncology [44].

Increasing Diagnostic Yield Through image guidance

The blind methods are far much inferior to image-guided methods since the former increase the likelihood that mistakes can be made; they prevent the need to perform a second procedure, and can identify skip lesions or multiple cancers before they are detected. Such approaches also guarantee greater safety in procedures and the comfort of patients through accuracy targeting [45]. Particular attention (particularly in combination with robotic-assisted or intraoperative navigation to enhance accuracy) is being given by specialty centers to innovations in imaging technology, like cone beam CT (CBCT), and MRI-based navigation systems. In addition, the increasing combination of radiomics and artificial intelligence (AI) using imaging systems provides revolutionary possibilities. Such technologies might soon allow predicting the severity of the cancer, its aggressiveness, and the type of cancer, which would result in a more data-driven and personal approach to guiding biopsies in oral cancer treatment [46].

IMAGING IN TREATMENT PLANNING

Apart from diagnosis and staging, imaging is rather important for the formulation and use of oral cancer treatment programs. Whether surgical, radiotherapeutic, or reconstructive depending on thorough anatomical and functional knowledge, modern oncologic treatment maximizes results, lowers morbidity, and alters therapy. High-resolution imaging of tumor extent, surrounding tissue interactions, and patient-specific structural changes yields customized therapy planning [47].

Surgical Planning

Determining Resection Margins

Still, the basis of curative treatment in oral cancer is surgical excision with clear margins; preoperative planning and assessment primarily depend on imaging. Modern imaging methods detect depth of invasion, ascertain the three-dimensional dimensions of the tumor, and check penetration into nearby soft tissues or bone [48]. They are particularly useful in identifying which

important anatomical structures: the mandibular canal, floor of the oral cavity, and neurovascular bundles are similarly injured as well as in pointing out satellite nodules and skip lesions. Although computed tomography (CT) is better at defining bone erosions especially in the mandible and maxilla, magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) is particularly helpful for evaluating soft tissue boundaries and determining perineural distribution. These techniques taken together ensure appropriate staging and the best surgical design [49].

Virtual Surgical Planning (VSP) Using 3D Reconstructions

Modern imaging techniques now let one create remarkably finely detailed 3D virtual models of tumors and surrounding anatomical components from multislice CT and MRI datasets. These models allow practically flawless osteotomies, tumor removal margins, and flap implantation virtually prepared by surgeons. Virtual surgical planning (VSP) has been very helpful for treating complicated tumors in difficult areas like the roof of the oral cavity, upper jaw, or lower jaw, where precise positioning is crucial. When used together with 3D printed models and computer-designed cutting guides, these methods greatly improve the precision of surgeries, lessen confusion during the operation, and enhance overall treatment results [50].

Radiotherapy Planning

Radiotherapy in oral cancer requires exact tumor location and organ-at-risk (OAR) protection to offer optimum tumor management with the lowest feasible adverse effects. CT simulation scans form the foundation for both fundamental tools for radiation planning and dose distribution mapping. Particularly in soft tissue areas like the tongue, buccal mucosa, and floor of the oral cavity, fusion with MRI considerably increases the tumor border visibility. Especially in recurrent or residual disease, PET-CT fusion is occasionally also employed to identify metabolically active tumor areas [51]. Imaging is mainly responsible for defining the gross tumor volume (GTV) and the clinical target volume (CTV), which comprises presumed microscopic spread. It also minimizes radiation exposure to surrounding organs at risk (OARs), including salivary glands, the mandible, the spinal cord, and ocular structures, therefore enabling the precise design of such treatment modalities as proton therapy or intensity-modulated radiation therapy (IMRT) [52].

Reconstructive Planning

A key part of oral cancer treatment is post-resection functional and cosmetic restoration; imaging is therefore fairly helpful in guiding reconstructive activities. Preoperative computed tomography angiography (CTA) of donor sites, such as the fibula or radial forearm, establishes both the evaluation of vascular architecture and the choice of the most acceptable microvascular flap [53]. Precision sculpting of flaps and bone grafts made possible by virtual surgery planning and 3D modelling so greatly improves face symmetry and oral function including speech and mastication and permits prosthesis rehabilitation. Postoperative, flap integration, bone healing, and any complications can be tracked using cone-beam computed tomography (CBCT) or magnetic resonance imaging (MRI). All challenging procedures, like restoring the jaw, planning implants

that fuse with bone, removing tumours, and rebuilding the eye socket or upper jaw, gain advantages from using imaging to guide the reconstruction process [54].

IMAGING IN FOLLOW-UP AND SURVEILLANCE

Since the probability of the cancer returning within a short time is high and it may spread to the near lymph nodes, or there may be emergence of new tumours, especially in the first 23 years of treatment of oral cancer, it is of paramount importance that patients be closely monitored after they have been treated. The imaging is necessary to determine the condition of cervical lymph nodes, the presence of residual tumours and whether recurrences or alterations have occurred during treatment. Monitoring of the cervical lymph node status, ascertainment of residual lesions, and differentiation between recurring illness and the post-therapeutic changes rely on imaging [55].

Detecting Recurrence Vs Post-surgical/Radiation Changes

Determining how a tumour has recurred or whether changes, such as scar tissue, swelling, and bone damage due to treatment, are present continues to be a complex issue during follow-up treatment. Although CT mapping could show asymmetries of the soft tissues or bony abnormalities, it is not very useful in distinguishing scar tissue and the recurrent lesions. Its greater diagnostic accuracy is attributed to the stronger soft tissue contrast and function sequences that are specified with functional sequences such as diffusion-weighted imaging (DWI) of MRI [56]. Fibrosis caused by radiation looks dark in both T1 and T2 images and diffusion is not restricted in it, whereas recurrent tumors normally demonstrate contrast enhancement in the early phases and reduced diffusion in DWI. In addition, the trends in contrast/enhancement could contribute to the difference between active malignancy and post surgical scarring. MRI is also very helpful in architecturally difficult or problematic areas: the tongue, buccal mucosa, and soft palate where small signs of recurrence could be disregarded [57].

MRI and PET-CT in Post-Treatment Surveillance

Routine follow-up in patients with surgically treated oral cancer is advised with magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) because of its non-ionizing character, considerable ability to scan soft tissue planes, and efficiency in identifying perineural spread or submucosal recurrence. On the other hand, positron emission tomography-computed tomography (PET-CT) becomes fairly important in patients with clinical suspicion of recurrence or when conventional imaging produces contradictory findings [58]. PET-CT scan specifically detect residual or recurrent disease, nodal involvement, and distant metastases by means of functional imaging based on metabolic activity depending on FDG absorption. The technique is particularly helpful in previously irradiated tissues since fibrosis can either mimic or hide recurrent illness on anatomical pictures. Moreover, very helpful for whole-body surveillance in high-risk patients especially those with advanced-stage disease or presenting with systemic symptoms is PET-CT [59].

Monitoring Lymph Nodes with Ultrasound (USG)

Ultrasonic (USG) is still a non-invasive, moderately cost-effective imaging tool for the study of cervical lymph nodes during follow-up, especially in patients with a past history of head and neck cancer. USG-guided fine needle aspiration cytology (FNAC) increases diagnosis accuracy by allowing accurate tissue gathering of questionable nodes free from major morbidity. Serial ultrasonic testing is very helpful when one investigates changes in nodal size, cortical thickness, and vascularity over time [60]. They can quickly identify recurrence in once-treated neck and point out cystic or necrotic changes suggestive of malignant transformation. High-resolution Doppler ultrasound are also very helpful in telling apart harmless swollen lymph nodes from those that are cancerous, by looking at the shape of the nodes and how blood flows through them. Especially in cases requiring many samples or salvage neck dissection, these qualities direct quick clinical judgments [61].

EMERGING TRENDS AND FUTURE DIRECTIONS

Under the influence of imaging advancements, artificial intelligence and household diagnostics, it is likely that the oral oncology market is on the verge of a revolutionizing period. During its development, the combination of the traditional imaging methods and radiogenomics, liquid biopsy, and machine learning algorithms is broadening the scope of personalized cancer treatment. Other than this, it is through these advancements that early intervention, dynamic treatment planning, real-time monitoring, and improvement of the accuracy of diagnoses are enabled [62].

Artificial Intelligence (AI) in Image Interpretation

Particularly with convolutional neural networks (CNNs) and deep learning, artificial intelligence has shown incredible ability to manage demanding imaging data in oral oncology. One of artificial intelligence's primary applications is automated lesion recognition and segmentation since artificial intelligence algorithms can correctly identify oral tumors on MRI, CT, or CBCT with exceptional sensitivity and specificity [63]. Artificial intelligence also aids quantitative analysis by detecting benign, pre-malignant, or malignant tumors by extracting radiometric characteristics like texture, shape, and signal intensity patterns. Since algorithms are taught to predict tumor behavior, lymph node metastases, and survival outcomes dependent on baseline imaging, using machine learning is also in favor of predictive modeling. Since artificial intelligence significantly improves accuracy in radiography by minimizing differences between different observers and increasing workflow efficiency, it is a groundbreaking tool for the early detection and treatment of oral cancer [64].

Radiogenomics

Radiogenomics is a new area that brings together imaging and tumor genetics, trying to connect imaging features with different types of tumors, like those related to HPV or with p53 mutations in oral cancers. By means of non-invasive prediction of tumor aggressiveness, resistance patterns, and most likely response to treatments, this novel approach offers tailored therapy options [65]. By maybe eliminating the need for repeated biopsies, radiogenomic models offer a "virtual biopsy" capability that could more successfully guide therapy decisions. Particularly in the framework of

precision oncology, radiogenomics is transforming standard imaging from a merely diagnostic tool into a complex platform for molecular-level decision-making [66].

AI-Integrated Decision Support Systems

Next-generation decision support systems represent a big leap in clinical oncology since they combine advanced artificial intelligence algorithms with real-time clinical data to raise diagnosis accuracy and treatment precision. These devices offer automatic TNM staging by means of cross-sectional imaging; therefore, they optimize the diagnostic procedure [67]. They also provide dynamic treatment planning simulations integrating imaging results, pathology data, and patient-specific risk factors to support even more customized and evidence-based therapy. Additionally, by regularly checking images over time, these systems can create alerts for small changes, helping to spot any return or worsening of the condition early on. Designed to complement physician judgment, provide consistency in treatment delivery, and guarantee adherence to best practices spanning multiple healthcare environments, these creative ideas are supposed to be clinical copilots [68].

Liquid Biopsy and Imaging Correlations

Emerging as a less intrusive and successful method in oral cancer is liquid biopsy is the detection of circulating tumor DNA (ctDNA), exosomes, or circulating tumor cells (CTCs) in physiological fluids like blood and saliva. Liquid biopsy enhances diagnostic and prognostic ability when paired with imaging modalities by early prediction of recurrence or metastasis, usually before radiological changes become obvious [69]. Likewise, much depends on it for monitoring therapy responses and spotting residual diseases. Furthermore, the correlation of specific genetic modifications, such as EGFR and TP53 mutations, with radiomic imaging features supports the growing theory of image-molecular fusion. Combining imaging data with molecular biomarkers seems to provide a more full and dynamic knowledge of tumor biology, behavior, and development, therefore opening the road for more specialized and exact therapeutic choices in oral cancer treatment [70].

CONCLUSION

From early detection and diagnosis to treatment planning, monitoring, and long-term surveillance, imaging is crucial everywhere along the oral cancer spectrum. Using advanced modalities including CT, MRI, and PET-CT has greatly improved evaluation of cancer area, lymph node involvement, and distant metastases from traditional radiography. Individualised insights in the era of precision oncology derived from radiogenomics, functional imaging, and artificial intelligence-assisted interpretation enhance therapy planning and diagnosis accuracy. Maximising the benefits of advanced imaging requires a multimodal strategy involving pathologists, surgeons, oncologists, and radiologists. Technology combined with cooperation in decision-making helps clinicians provide more focused, quick, effective treatment, therefore improving the outcomes for oral cancer patients.

CHAPTER 2

ADVANCES IN CLEAR ALIGNERS: THE FUTURE OF ORTHODONTIC TREATMENT

Dr. Akshay Rathi, Dr. Sowjanya Gunukula, Dr. Bhavana Agarwal, Dr. Anirban Banerjee

INTRODUCTION

Introduced initially, orthodontics has gone through numerous changes since the advent of modern dentistry. Focused mainly on correcting the malocclusions and improving occlusion to provide optimal mastication and oral hygiene, conventional orthodontic treatment ranged in terms of metal bands and wires to the simple equipment such as headgear and extension devices; they were time-consuming, painful, and noticeable [1]. The fixed appliance treatment i.e. braces proved increasingly complex over time as stainless steel braces and nickel-titanium archwires and self-ligating systems developed. Traditional Braces have been associated with an unacceptable level of discomfort, problems of oral hygiene maintenance, speech correction and esthetics despite being partly effective. The evolving needs and expectations of patients, especially those of the geriatric population, called forth the need to develop more compassionate solutions [2].

Under the motivation of these changing norms, the orthodontic marketplace needed non-permanent and cosmetic fixes. Clear plastic aligners were first observed during the 1990s following lingual braces and ceramic braces. These alternatives gave the patients a more socially accepted method of receiving orthodontic corrections especially in social and professional places where appearance is of utmost importance [3]. Available among them was clear aligners, which have the ability to come off easily because of their comfortability and invisibility. Digital technologies, including clear aligner therapy (CAT), have not only simplified overcoming primitive difficulties, but also made it possible to successfully perform treatment with a high degree of preciseness and predictability even with the most severe malocclusions. Endorsed by physicians and patients, CAT is currently a viable and competitive method of the present day orthodontics [4].

There is a necessity to research the technical possibilities of the clear aligners and their aesthetic features. Traditional fixed appliances are mechanical, which is restricted by replacement, whereas transparent aligners have a more personalized treatment and apply techniques of digital diagnostics, computer-aided design (CAD), and 3D processing services. They now use artificial intelligence (AI), simulation devices to design and execute orthodontics coupled with intraoral scanners [5].

Even though there are several merits of clear aligner treatment, it should be noted that it presents some challenges that invite scientific debate. In other cases, the movement of the teeth using aligners may be subject to alternative biomechanical principles than movement of the teeth using braces, thus additional devices, such as attachments to retainers, elastics, and corrections may be

needed. Because its therapeutic effect is highly contingent on relevance diagnosis, proper treatment regimen planning, and strict compliance, physicians should be aware of the indications and limitations of CAT and its evolving horizon. Additionally, the rapid influx of direct-to-consumer (DTC) models and aligners is creating management issues related to professional oversight, patient safety and quality assurance. These are developments that ought to be looked at critically as the field expands to allow the development of moral behaviour that mutates on evidence [6].

This chapter provides the overall description of the advances in clear aligner technology along with the implications on orthodontic care. It will discuss the history of clear aligners, and deconstruct the basics of biomechanics, as well as considering the materials and fabrication processes that define the systems being used in the modern world. Of special concern will be the digital processes such as scanning, planning and monitoring as well as the role artificial intelligence and remote technologies play in addressing patient outcome. Clinical problems such as patient selection, treatment modalities different malocclusion etc, and the possible role of CAT in the combination of other modalities will be conferred. Other than solving constraints and future challenges facing the industry, the chapter will examine some of the novel advancements such as smart aligners, 3D printed trays, and AI-guided treatment plans [7].

The chapter is intended to provide sophisticated understanding of clear aligner treatment, its science, application and orientation among dental and orthodontic specialists. Clear aligners form a dynamic front as they offer art, science, and technology in orthodontics because the market has continued to grow the demand to have aesthetically pleasing, efficient, and patient-centered solutions. To achieve excellent treatment in the coming years, clinics are in a position to take advantage of this technology to its maximum and stay informed and actively engaged with ongoing advances [8].

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

Timeline of Orthodontic Appliance Development

People have been applying orthodontics for thousands of years. Archaeological evidence points to efforts at dental alignment in ancient Egypt and Rome using crude metal bands straightening teeth post-mortem. Beginning to appear only in the 18th and 19th centuries, scientific orthodontics Originally suggesting the Bandeau, a horseshoe-shaped tool used to widen the tooth arch in 1728, French physician Pierre Fauchard is thought to be acknowledged as the inventor of modern dentistry; he was the first who could design ever more complex permanent tools thanks to improved metallurgy in the 19th century [9].

Modern orthodontics started in the late 1800s under much influence from Edward H. Angle. He invented the "E-arch", then the "edgewise appliance", therefore establishing the basis for fixed orthodontic treatment using the first classification system for malocclusion [10]. New innovations kept pouring in: in the 1930s stainless steel replaced gold and silver; in the 1970s Lawrence Andrews developed pre-adjusted edgewise bracing; and in the 1980s self-ligating systems surfaced. Traditional braces kept metallic and clearly visible even with advances in materials and processes, which fuels the search for more graceful substitutes [11].

Year	Milestone	Details & Significance
1997	Founding of Align Technology	Zia Chishti and Kelsey Wirth develop the first digital clear aligner system—Invisalign.
1999	Launch of Invisalign	First commercial release; marketed directly to patients; used CAD/CAM to fabricate aligners.
Early 2000s	3D Printing & CAD Integration	Digital scans and virtual setups replace traditional impressions; improved precision.
2006	Launch of ClearCorrect	U.S.-based aligner company offering a cost-effective alternative with similar digital workflow.
2009–2011	Invisalign Teen Introduced	Special features for adolescents: compliance indicators, eruption tabs, and stage flexibility.
2012–2015	SmartForce® & SmartTrack™ by Align	Introduction of optimized attachments and new aligner material for better force application.
2017	Launch of Spark Aligners by Ormco	Introduces TruGEN™ material with higher clarity, comfort, and stain resistance.
2018–2020	Rise of AI & Remote Monitoring	Companies integrate AI into treatment planning; virtual monitoring apps (e.g., DentalMonitoring) emerge.
2020	In-Office 3D Printed Aligners	Orthodontists begin fabricating aligners chairside using 3D printers for faster turnaround.
2021	Integration of CBCT & AI	Aligners integrated with CBCT imaging and AI simulation tools for better outcome prediction.

Table 1: Key Milestones in the Evolution of Clear Aligner Therapy

Mechanism of Tooth Movement in Clear Aligners

Clear alignment treatment (CAT) offers a rather distinct biomechanical approach for tooth mobility compared to standard fixed orthodontic treatments. Their methods of force delivery, distribution, and modulation vary significantly, even if they both want to apply regulated forces to attain ideal dental alignment. First of all, clinicians who wish to develop appropriate treatment programs and address difficult situations with clear aligners must grasp these biomechanics [12].

Biomechanics Compared to Fixed Appliances

Usually, fixed appliances moves teeth under constant force produced by archwires interacting with braces. Using forces provided straight through the bracket-wire interface, these instruments provide three-dimensional manipulation via torque, tilting, and physical movement by use of ideas of force and moment control [13].

Clear aligners, on the other hand, depend on regular low-force treatments. Based on form and stiffness, every aligner in the next series progressively preprograms forces to teeth. The second phase of the treatment procedure is tooth movement resulting from the aligner seeking to bring the teeth back to their optimal shape that is, using the viscoelastic qualities of thermoplastic materials. Aligners usually shift teeth in increments of 0.2 to 0.3 mm with each tray; depending on how quickly material wear and intraoral warmth facilitate movement compared to fixed equipment [14].

Clear aligners make more difficult complex actions, including torque, extrusion, and root control, since they require more surface area of the teeth for force delivery than braces. Aligners are great for tipping, small rotations, and intrusion; yet, their ability to generate body movement or root torque is limited without mechanical support [15].

Attachments, Pressure Points, and Optimized Movement

Many auxiliary design features have been developed to overcome aligner-only force application limitations. Among the most important features are attachments, which are composite resin forms that are bonded to certain teeth. These attachments give handles that let the aligner more firmly grab the tooth and guide pressures more precisely to create desired movements [16].

There are several types of attachments used based on the required force system:

Optimized attachments: Custom-designed for each tooth and movement type

Rectangular/beveled attachments: Enhance retention and control for extrusion and root torque.

Ellipsoid attachments: Commonly used for anchorage or retention.

Modern aligners use artificial intelligence algorithms to prepare digital smart staging and optimum attachments, just like Invisalign does. Through control of when and how teeth migrate, these serve to reduce undesired tilting or lag and enable more consistent movement patterns [17].

Apart from attachments, the aligner plastic could feature pressure points to directly apply stresses to particular tooth surfaces. The manufacturer could include these in the design, or they could be applied chairside using thermal pliers. Pressure points are useful in rotations, intrusions, and distalization if normal aligner contact is insufficient [18].

Role of Auxiliary Tools

Some challenging movements still call for extra instruments to improve biomechanical control, even with advances in aligner design. Usually modified from conventional orthodontics, these instruments are quite helpful in precisely aligning difficult cases:

Elastics: Elastics control interarch relationships that is, Class II or III correction attached between aligned teeth or bonded buttons. They fix overjet, anteroposterior alignment, or crossbite. Moreover, quite useful for extrusion is vertical force generated by elastics [19].

Buttons: Fixed to teeth, these small composite or metal attachments either fix elastics or allow specific movements like molar distalisation. But buttons give consistent attachment points when aligner retention is inadequate for the required force vector [20].

Bite Ramps and Precision Cuts: Usually seen on palatal surfaces of upper incisors, biting ramps disclose the arches to correct deep bites. Precision cuts made from small notches in aligners allow elastics to fit without using bonded buttons, thereby increasing patient comfort [21].

Biomechanical Comparison: Fixed Appliances vs. Clear Aligners [22]

Aspect	Fixed Orthodontic Appliances (Braces)	Clear Aligners
Force Delivery	Continuous forces via archwires and brackets	Intermittent, low-magnitude forces via thermoplastic material
Force Control	High control over tooth movements in all planes	Limited control; enhanced with attachments and auxiliaries
Primary Force Source	Archwire/bracket interface	Pre-programmed aligner shape & fit
Type of Movement	Efficient for tipping, torque, bodily movement, rotations	Effective for tipping and intrusion; less predictable for torque
Attachment Method	Direct bonding of brackets to teeth	Retention via snug fit; reinforced with bonded composite attachments
Use of Auxiliaries	springs, elastics, headgear, etc.	elastics, buttons, bite ramps, precision cuts
Customization Level	Limited to bracket positioning and wire bends	Fully digital, tooth-by-tooth, aligner-by-aligner customization
Biomechanical Predictability	High in experienced hands	Improving; depends on planning software and patient compliance
Material Influence	Stainless steel, NiTi wires control force delivery	Thermoplastic stiffness and thickness influence force magnitude
Patient Control	Minimal fixed appliances cannot be removed	High—compliance is essential for success
Aesthetic Impact	Visible; metallic or ceramic brackets	Virtually invisible, clear thermoplastic
Comfort Level	Often causes soft tissue irritation	Generally more comfortable; smooth edges

Table 2: Biomechanical Comparison

Material Science of Aligners

Mostly in reaction to advances in material science, clear aligner treatment (CAT) has been created and shown successful. Specialised thermoplastic materials have enabled clear aligners from a cosmetic advantage to be clinically feasible and absolutely conceivable. Knowing their physical, mechanical, and biological properties helps one to assess the longevity, performance, and patient comfort of these materials [23].

Evolution of Thermoplastic Materials

Simple polyurethane and polyethylene terephthalate glycol-modified (PET-G) aligners were developed early on in aligner treatment. These materials were selected for their availability, transparency, and mouldability; their mechanical properties that is, weak elasticity and fast force decay were limited. As the therapeutic demands of aligner treatment developed, more sophisticated multi-layered high-performance thermoplastics evolved. These more contemporary materials combining elasticity, durability, and strength allow more controlled and consistent tooth movement [24].

One of the key turning moments was Align Technology's 2013 SmartTrack® introduction. This unique material provided improved aligner fit and increased force delivery unlike previous models. Many companies have created their own tailored materials since then, each with supposed advantages in comfort, clarity, and biomechanics [25].

Key Properties of Aligner Materials [26]

An optimal aligner material has to blend aesthetics in harmony with mechanical performance and biological safety [26,27]. The fundamental characteristics of the compounds affecting clinical results are mentioned in the following table:

Property	Importance in Aligner Therapy
Strength	Enables sustained force delivery without cracking or deformation
Flexibility/Elasticity	Allows for elastic recovery, better fit, and improved seating against teeth
Clarity/Transparency	Aesthetic value, patients prefer nearly invisible appliances
Biocompatibility	Must be non-toxic, non-carcinogenic, and hypoallergenic
Stress Relaxation Resistance	Determines how quickly the material loses force when under stress; lower decay = longer efficacy
Stain Resistance	Essential for long-term aesthetics, especially for prolonged wear
Moisture and Chemical Resistance	Prevents degradation due to saliva, pH fluctuations, and food particles
Formability	Ability to be molded with precision during vacuum or pressure thermoforming processes

Table 3: Key Properties of Aligner Materials

Digital Workflow and Treatment Planning

Depending largely on its seamless engagement with digital technology, the current day clear aligner therapy (CAT) provides a completely digital process that encourages precision, efficiency as well as predictability in contrast to traditional orthodontics which is reliant on a physical impression and manual bending of the wires. There is a clear indication of this under development digital revolution in the field of artificial intelligence (AI) and remote care technology to provide real-time monitoring of therapeutic response all the way down to early diagnosis of these technologies [28].

3D Intraoral Scanning

The process begins with digital impressions made using 3D intraoral scanners (such as iTero (Align Technology), Medit i700, and Trios (3Shape)). These advanced scanners render relatively precise digital images patient's teeth thereby, eliminating the need to use traditional impression materials [29]. Intraoral scanning results in faster case set-up and aligner production, better patient comfort, hygiene, accuracy, repeatability, and immediate display of crowding and occlusion. These digital footprints, once obtained, can then be easily remotely distributed to cloud-based systems where staging, planning, and treatment simulation are established on that foundation [30].

Digital Setup and Staging Using Software

After a 3D scan is obtained, it is loaded into aligner-specific software where a virtual treatment plan is generated. Using this digital model, orthodontists are able to move single teeth around and simulate these results, but also determine the sequence of movement needed to achieve the target [31]. Useful software platforms are:

Software	Associated Aligner System	Features
ClinCheck®	Invisalign	Real-time 3D simulations, root visualization, SmartForce® integration
ClearPilot™	ClearCorrect	User-friendly interface, staging control, real-time adjustments
Spark Approver	Spark Aligners	AI-assisted planning, TruGEN™ staging insights
SureSmile Software	SureSmile Aligners	Advanced tooth movement control, CBCT integration

Table 4: Software platforms

The digital setup offers precise control over key treatment parameters, including the staging of movements (determining the order and pace of individual tooth adjustments), strategic use and placement of attachments, application of interproximal reduction (IPR), and meticulous planning of anchorage and elastics [32]. It also facilitates mid-treatment refinements and the establishment of monitoring points, enabling continuous assessment and adjustments. This high level of customization empowers clinicians to address increasingly complex malocclusions effectively using aligners [33].

Role of AI and Machine Learning in Treatment Simulations

Treatment planning with the improved efficiency and predictability of clear aligner therapy has already been tremendously enhanced with the integration of artificial intelligence (AI) and machine learning (ML) [34]. There are three primary areas that are applied to use AI:

Automatic Tooth Segmentation and Labeling

AI software rapidly detects the presence of individual teeth through scans of 3D images, cutting costs by minimizing the time spent and the amount of manually inputted data and decreasing the number of errors caused by human beings [35].

Predictive Treatment Outcomes

Based on thousands of cases carried out, machine learning models predict the best pathways of the movements and areas that may cause problems to be tracked. That assists to minimize remodeling and enhances correctness of initial assistance [36].

Root and Bone Simulation

Complicated systems (e.g., Invisalign ClinCheck Pro with CBCT integration) have AI-based implementations to present the roots movement inside the bone, which makes the biomechanics and behavior of the periodontal better and safer. The ability to automate the treatment plan creation with help of AI makes orthodontists more of decision-makers rather than designers, thus facilitating faster approvals and improved outcomes, particularly in large practices [37].

Virtual Treatment Monitoring and Tele-Orthodontics

The digital landscape of the aligner therapy today has far exceeded the boundaries of the clinic, virtual monitoring systems and tele-orthodontic platforms have become the central focus of current orthodontic practice. The innovations were very useful in the context of the COVID-19 pandemic keeping the orthodontic treatment process afloat with less frequent in-person visits on the one hand and on the other hand serving as a stepping stone to a new age of patient-centered orthodontics

[38]. Notable among them are popular platforms, like DentalMonitoring® with their AI-enhanced analyzing of the direct smartphones scanning of the patient to check its fit, progress and hygiene in the case of orthodontic systems; Grin® Remote Monitoring a system that uses smartphones to monitor progress by implementing a special smartphone bracket and an app-based video communication; and SmileMate, which syncs real time photo-based evaluation directly with the clinician advice [39].

Benefits of virtual monitoring

In-office visits are reduced, encouraging patients to get care and convenience with no reduction in quality. Remote monitoring helps to detect failures or complications easily so that they are treated early. Constant communication improves patient adherence, and wider accessibility can benefit patients living in rural communities or those with a limited amount of time to spare, making treatment more effective, and patient-friendly [40].

Tele-orthodontics

Orthodontic practices can ensure a better reach and scalability when initial assessment can be conducted without requiring physical appointments. This plays another role of standardizing check-ins on international patients or those with mobility complaints. Once implemented, these technologies guarantee that the high clinical quality is preserved, and it offers the attending physicians and their patients more convenience and flexibility [41].

CLINICAL APPLICATIONS

Clear aligner therapy (CAT) has developed to become an effective instrument in the contemporary orthodontics with predictable outcomes in a vast variety of malocclusion. Nevertheless, its efficacy depends on a thoughtful case selection, a good knowledge of its biomechanical constraints, and compliance with the clinical protocols. The current section presents the general indications as well as contraindications and clinical conditions ideal towards being treated using aligner-based regimes.

Treatment of Malocclusions

Class I Malocclusions

More typical orthodontic problems like slight crowding, spacing, overjet or overbite are perfectly possible to resolve with modern methods of treatment. Interproximal reduction (IPR), staged tooth movements, and use of attachments are important in making treatment precise, more efficient, and generally successful [43].

Class II Malocclusions

Dental camouflage may successfully treat mild to moderate Class II malocclusion by aligners, and prior to use of elastics, elastics should be added through cutout holes or buttons to accomplish molar distalization. Nevertheless, with severe skeletal discrepancies alone, aligner therapy might not be enough and a combination of orthodontic methods or orthognathic surgery would be needed in order to present the best functional and aesthetic results [44].

Class III Malocclusions

Anterior-posterior correction is a more difficult task in orthodontic treatment especially with aligners. Nevertheless, pseudo-Class III malocclusion or dentoalveolar misalignment in some cases is efficiently controlled with the aid of aligners. These cases usually require adjunctive treatment such as use of elastics, minimal interproximal reduction (IPR) or even in more complicated cases, inclusion of surgical planning in order to create optimal results [45].

Treating Specific Conditions

Expansion

It has been established that it is possible to expand the posterior arch in adults, though up to a maximum of 2-4 mm on each side especially in patients who have a good bone support. This growth is more predictable in the premolar region than it is in the molar area which can be limited by skeletal resistance to the amount of movement [46].

Deep Bite Correction

The aligners also exhibit good anterior intrusion and control of vertical height; hence it is useful in controlling vertical discrepancy. Bite opening may be attained by the addition of anterior bite ramps, which disclose the posterior teeth and allow an in-demand alteration of occlusion. Also, posterior opening extrusion using aligners has the additional benefit of enhancing the vertical height and allows more accurate correction of severe bite problems and a better overall occlusal interrelationship [47].

Open Bite Management

Combination of molar intrusion and anterior extrusion will allow efficient management of anterior open bites to obtain appropriate vertical overlap of anterior teeth. Full coverage bracket design with clear aligners delivers a better vertical control as it is possible to achieve fine, segmental tooth movements that the conventional braces do not necessarily provide. This control makes a more predictable correction of the vertical dimension especially with regards to open bite cases [48].

Rotations

Smaller to mid-sized tooth rotations that do not exceed 20° are usually easy to cope with during orthodontic treatment. Cuspids and especially premolars can at times be more resistant to movement, and more difficult to correct. To achieve fruitful outcomes in this situation, it should employ optimized attachments to be able to provide greater control options and to include the overcorrection strategies in the treatment plan [49].

INDICATIONS AND CONTRAINDICATIONS

Proper case selection is critical to the success of CAT. While aligners have become increasingly capable due to enhanced materials and attachments, they are still best suited for specific clinical profiles [42].

Indications	Contraindications
Mild to moderate crowding or spacing (1–6 mm)	Severe skeletal discrepancies (requiring orthognathic surgery)
Class I malocclusions with minor rotations and midline corrections	Complex Class III or asymmetric malocclusions
Relapse cases (post-orthodontic treatment)	Deep impactions or need for large bodily tooth movements
Patients seeking aesthetic orthodontic options	Poor patient compliance or unrealistic expectations
Mild to moderate overbite or overjet correction	Active periodontal disease or poor oral hygiene
Minor posterior crossbites	Mixed dentition cases (unless specifically designed for Phase I aligners)
Patients with good oral hygiene and compliance	

LIMITATIONS

Despite technological progress, clear aligners still present limitations [50]:

Limitation	Clinical Implication
Limited torque control	Challenging in anterior teeth without customized attachments
Reduced control of bodily movements	Especially for large root movement or molar distalization
Inadequate vertical control	Intrusion and extrusion can be difficult in molars
Rotations in round-rooted teeth	Poor grip and reduced predictability, especially in canines
Compliance-dependent	Non-wear reduces efficacy; treatment tracking becomes unpredictable
Complex skeletal Class II/III	May require combination with fixed appliances or orthognathic surgery

ADVANCES AND INNOVATIONS IN CLEAR ALIGNER THERAPY

The rapid technological evolution in orthodontics has been especially transformative for clear aligner therapy (CAT). From artificial intelligence to smart materials and remote monitoring, the modern aligner landscape is being shaped by cutting-edge innovations that are enhancing precision, efficiency, and patient engagement. This section outlines the latest advancements and how they are redefining the future of orthodontic care.

AI-Driven Aligner Designs

Artificial intelligence (AI) now plays an important role in the digital treatment planning process of clear aligners and increases precision and efficiency throughout the entire process. Advanced machine learning applications can use high volumes of treated cases to estimate where the teeth will move to, and optimize the staging of highly complex moves e.g. torque, intrusion, and extrusion [51]. Real-time simulations of the outcomes of treatment can be simulated with high accuracy and refinements automated by tracking progress and patient response can be performed using these systems. Severe staging of aligner treatment has also been automated with some of the leading platforms such as ClinCheck Pro by Invisalign and Approver Software by Spark which are now even integrated with AI to automate the staging process leaving very little to be done by performing clinicians themselves [52].

3D Printed Aligners

Direct 3D printing is becoming a radical replacement of the old method thermoforming in the printing of aligners. It drastically minimizes the work required by the human factor because mold production and thermoforming are eliminated, easing the production process. The method allows thickness and flexibility of each aligner, or even separate teeth, to be customised more accurately, and the treatment result can be more accurate as well [53]. Biocompatible printable resins have been developed, like those presented by companies such as Graphy, that are comfortable, durable, and safe to patients. The method also helps the environment to be sustainable through cut-down of plastic waste. Efficient and flexible, the direct 3D printing paves the way to aligner production in clinics and mass customized orthodontic provision [54].

Smart Aligners with Embedded Sensors

Aligner therapy has one limitation, which is its strong dependence on the compliance of the patient. This challenge is being addressed by smart aligners that incorporate micro-sensors, tracking wear time via temperature- or pressure-sensitive technology, delivering real-time feedback both to patients and clinicians through connected applications, and facilitating behavioral nudges that will assist in improving wear-time and clinical outcomes [55]. Most prominently, these would be TheraMon sensors, which have already been in use with removable orthodontic products to provide accurate data on wear times, and emerging versions of a product known as the “Smarter Aligner”, which aim to integrate sensors into the aligner material body itself so as to conceal them and allow easier monitoring of wear times, and more effective treatment plan execution [56].

Augmented Reality (AR) and Virtual Monitoring

Augmented reality (AR) and tele-orthodontic platforms are changing the game of engaging patients and remotely caring. Using AR visualization apps, one can look at possible treatment effects and overlay them on live facial image, which increases the comprehension and inspiration [57]. In the meantime, remote orthodontic treatment systems, like the Invisalign Virtual Care and Dental Monitoring, use smartphone-to-scan, AI-aided analysis of progress, and clinician consultation on progress. These technologies facilitate orthodontic care by avoiding multiple in-office visits, thereby making the procedure more convenient, efficient more affordable especially to busy professionals and patients who live far off [58].

Integration with Lingual or Hybrid Appliances

Hybrid treatment involving aligners and adjunctive mechanisms could also be used to treat some complex orthodontic cases. Lingual appliances – Incognito or Harmony type can be introduced to deliver greater torque control or posterior anchorage, whereas miniscrew (TADs) or buttons could be introduced to exert extrinsic force without impacting on the aesthetics [59]. Also, segmental fixed appliances may be utilized together with aligners in cases that present less predictable movements with plastic forces alone including molar extrusion or canine derotation. The given integrative approach enables clinicians to increase the range of potentially treatable malocclusion without losing restorative benefits of aligner treatment [60].

CHALLENGES AND LIMITATIONS OF CLEAR ALIGNER THERAPY

Despite the growing popularity and technological advancements in clear aligner therapy (CAT), there remain inherent challenges and clinical limitations that practitioners must recognize. Understanding these limitations is crucial for effective treatment planning, patient communication, and outcome optimization [61].

Patient Compliance

Contrary to fixed appliances that cannot be removed, clear aligners are highly dependent on their requirements to be worn consistently regardless of the patient with the overall consensus being 20-22 hours each day [62]. Nonetheless, a substantial number of patients, especially teenagers, commonly fail to comply with this necessity, which translates into a number of consequences that include uncompleted or unpredictable tooth movements in patients, the inability of aligners to track, mal-fitting, and even forming gaps, prolonged treatment time, and refinements, and patient frustration and disappointment because of their respective expectations [63]. To overcome these difficulties, new methods of solving them are implemented, such as, smart aligners with the built-in wear time sensors, mobile apps that provide reminders, track progress and reward systems, extensive patient counseling, and follow-ups to motivate the patient to adhere to the treatment to ensure the best outcomes [64].

Difficulty with Complex Tooth Movements

There are tooth movements that are always more difficult to perform in the aligners than in the traditional braces. To cite an example, extrusion can prove challenging because the plastic substance of aligners has no strong vertical traction capabilities, and dramatic rotations, especially those applied to those teeth with a round root such as canines and premolars, tend to be unpredictable [65]. Without the mechanical engagement of brackets and wires, torque control needs much more precise root movement and therefore is also less reliable. Likewise, with the additional control afforded by the use of archwires, bodily movements can be controlled in a better way and such complex interarch corrections, such as those with a correction in the sagittal plane or vertical plane, tend to require some form of assistance by using elastics or temporary anchorage devices (TADs) [66]. These tooth movements are less predictable even using the benefit of optimised attachments, overcorrection staging and the use of auxiliaries, and so hybrid treatment or temporary utilisation of fixed appliances may be needed to deliver optimal results [67].

Refinements and Mid-Course Corrections

Refinements are further sets of aligners, prescribed when the treatment result does not follow the plan and can occur due to a lack of tracking of one to several teeth, biomechanical constraints of the aligner, incorrect wear, or biological variation. In certain circumstances, it may be required to make mid course corrections earlier than the original aligner sequence is finished. This clinically translates to an overall treatment time increase, a greater burden of work on the clinicians in terms of rescanning, treatment planning, and approvals, and even frustration of the patient due to a lack of linear, smooth progression. Additionally, the refinements can result in some other laboratory or reordering expenses that increase the total financial load of the treatment [68].

Pediatric and Adolescent Use of Clear Aligners

Although originally used in adult, clear aligner therapy (CAT) has become more common in orthodontic when used in the pediatric and adolescent world. As increasing design refinements make aligners child-friendly, and the accuracy of digital technology brings aligners into the early-intervention picture and comprehensive treatment plans of growing patients. Nevertheless, biological and behavioral factors related to age have to be incorporated into planning [69].



Growth Considerations in Young Patients

Craniofacial growth, dental eruption and skeletal development must be given careful consideration in offering orthodontic treatment to children and adolescents. Treatment planning needs to consider growth and development of eruption styles such as mixed dentition, steam roots and developing permanent teeth when the aligners are used on the growing individuals [70]. Because active treatment of aligners does not produce effects on skeletal growth to the same extent as functional appliances then growth modifying treatment, e.g. correction of Class II malocclusion, generally needs some additional treatment or Hybrid treatment. Besides, the time of intervention also matters since the aligners are not always suitable during the late mixed dentition phase unless created particularly addressing this issue, like Invisalign First [71].

Interceptive Orthodontics with Aligners

Interceptive or Phase I orthodontic therapy emphasizes the treatment of the malocclusions that are yet to develop with the intention to make it simpler to intervene and treat them at a later stage. Clear aligners have become one of the effective implementation of this phase that provides specific solutions to different conditions. To give an example, crossbite correction may be done using arch expansion with the assistance of aligners and elastics whereas minor anterior crowding could be addressed through space making with interproximal reduction (IPR) or arch development [72].

The proclined incisors may be fixed by retraction and bite correction by means of removable aligners, and thumb sucking can be eliminated with the help of the myofunctional modules included in the aligners. Correspondingly, asymmetric staging as well as distalization strategies can be used to fix the dental midline disparities [73]. Specific orthodontic systems like Invisalign First and 3M Clarity Junior have more features tailored to the special needs of Phase I orthodontics, including the ability to pre-compensate eruption of unerupted teeth, and short orthodontic appliances better suited to primary teeth, as well as greater vertical coverage to better allow bite control and, therefore, greater effect of early orthodontic treatment [74].

Myofunctional Integration and Habit Correction

Oral development of jaws and the establishment of the dentition are often disrupted by orofacial myofunctional disorders related to an abnormal position of the jaws in children, malocclusions. Common predisposing factors are a tongue thrust, breath through the mouth in the oral cavity, improper swallowing manner, and inferior tongue position. The presence of such habits may alter the alignment of the teeth and jaws due to incorrect curvature of the muscles of the mouth unless prevented at an early stage [75].

Aligners are capable of a successful synthesis with myofunctional therapy (MFT), which can improve the results of treatment, as not only dental positioning but also the diseases of functional habits are corrected during it. By using certain aligner designs we may achieve correct positions of the tongue by guiding and reinforcing the tongue in the correct position, and with MFT we can retrain the neuromuscular pathways to develop healthier jaw and facial growth out of phase. Such

holistic treatment does not only enable the achievement of more stable outcomes but also decreases the degree of risk of relapse since the etiologic processes underlying malocclusion are identified and corrected [76].

New orthodontic systems are currently emerging and involving the implementation of myofunctional modules to improve the results of the treatment. These incorporate tongue-trainers within aligners to encourage good tongue position and bumper or flange appliances that help prevent bad oral habits, and this can include being fitted with Myobrace or other removable myofunctional appliances to help in the muscular re-education to achieve better oral functionality [77].

FUTURE DIRECTIONS IN CLEAR ALIGNER THERAPY

As clear aligner therapy (CAT) becomes a mainstream orthodontic modality, ongoing research and innovation continue to push its boundaries. The future of CAT promises a convergence of biotechnology, artificial intelligence, and personalized medicine. This section explores upcoming advancements poised to redefine orthodontic care.

Personalized Aligners Using Genetic and Craniofacial Data

The field of precision orthodontics is moving in the direction of using personal biological blueprints to maximize clinical outcomes. It is also hoped that future aligners will be both anatomically fitted to the teeth based on dental anatomy, and also genetically marked in relation to tooth movement speed, bone density, and craniofacial patterns of growth. Combining cephalometric AI with 3D facial scans will enable the planning of treatments to ensure that there is equilibrium of ensuring functional demands and total facial aesthetics. Further, the integration of epigenetic information could be used to differentiate patients who have a greater chance of relapse or unpredictable outcomes and thus truly personalized and dynamic orthodontics [78].

Smart Biomaterials and Biodegradable Aligners

The field of material science is also converging rather quickly into the creation of next-generation orthodontic aligners that do not simply distribute passive forces on a patient. Future innovations work will entail the increasing use of smart polymers that can react to changes in oral pH or temperature, which can be used to deliver controlled and dynamic releases of forces; Shape-memory materials, which can provide sustained and consistent pressure across the surface of a tooth over a period of time; and the use of biodegradable aligners, which not only eliminate plastic wastage, but also allow the possibility of the single-use of what can be termed as an eco-aligner to be worn on a daily basis. Collectively, these innovations have the potential to maximize patient comfort, reduce the necessity of refinements and support orthodontic practice with the overall sustainability ambitions [79].

AI-Based Auto-Correction and Predictive Planning

The artificial intelligence will still improve the design and monitoring of treatment by bringing about the advanced level of automation and prediction. Intraoral scans sent by patients can create real-time auto-correction algorithms that help modify the progress of treatment without requiring any manual work leading to increased precision and efficiency [80]. Predictive analytics based on dealing with deep learning models on millions of clinical cases will predict the necessity of mid-course correction, identify non-tracking teeth early enough, and provide recommendations regarding precise placement of attachments or alterations in the staging. Moreover, workflows without barriers to integration with robot-assisted aligner fabrication would allow them to be produced in-clinic on a near-real-time basis on the basis of AI-updated prescriptions and potentially transform the orthodontic care by improving both the accuracy and speed at which it is administered [81].

Remote Orthodontic Care Models

Tele-orthodontics is not only a monitoring solution, but a full remote treatment ecosystem. The new at-home impression kits, AI scans, and virtual consultations can make it possible to have an end-to-end diagnosis-to-delivery cycle, and portable 3D scanners and intraoral cameras could soon become devices owned by the patient. New technology like holographic support via AR/VR will only improve the instructions and consultations with the patients making care more interactive [82]. Other testing global brands are performing with subscription-based models over aligners utilizing AI to follow virtual verification, cutting down the chair-time, and opening accessibility. As much as this democratization of orthodontic care constitutes an enormous promise, especially to the rural populations and other underserved groups, such an approach has to be very much balanced against the concepts of safety and professional oversight in order to promise the positive results [83].

Aligners in Preventive and Pre-Prosthetic Orthodontics

Aligners have also increasingly been incorporated into the interdisciplinary dentistry as they find more uses beyond correcting malocclusion. They are used in pre-prosthetic orthodontics to generate excellent implant/crown spacing, correct upright molars and straighten drifting teeth prior to installing prosthesis [84]. Aligners, in being the practice of preventive orthodontics, may facilitate small alignments of the teeth in the early stages of mixed dentition stages, thus eliminating a more complicated treatment in the future, or help to shut post-extraction spaces to prevent orthodontic treatment at a later stage. Due to their esthetics and the removability, aligners have become preferable by far in case of patients receiving restorative, periodontal, or implant treatment, an aspect that makes it a broad-based tool in the contemporary dental practice [85].

CONCLUSION

In summary, clear aligner therapy has progressed from a cosmetic adjunct to a scientifically validated and digitally driven orthodontic solution. This evolution has been propelled by innovations such as AI-assisted treatment planning, 3D printing, smart biomaterials, and virtual monitoring systems. Together, these advances have made treatment more precise, efficient, and tailored to individual patient needs. The shift toward patient-centered care—marked by enhanced comfort, esthetics, and flexibility—reflects a broader transformation in healthcare toward personalization and convenience. As we look to the next decade, clear aligners are expected to integrate genetic data, biodegradable materials, and fully remote treatment models, making orthodontic care more accessible and intelligent than ever before. These developments signal not just an improvement in tools but a redefinition of how orthodontic care is conceived and delivered, positioning aligners at the forefront of modern, minimally invasive dentistry.

CHAPTER 3

PERIODONTAL REGENERATION: CURRENT ADVANCES IN TISSUE ENGINEERING

Dr. Ayush Shrivastava, Dr. Vishwas Sharma, Dr. Amit Kumar Joseph, Dr. Deepti Maskara

INTRODUCTION

Periodontal disease is a common oral health problem that happens when the tissues that support the teeth, like cementum, periodontal ligament (PDL), and alveolar bone, gradually break down. Although they cover cleaning, root planning, and surgical operations, conventional periodontal treatments do not replace the lost periodontal tissues, even though they usually strive to slow down disease progression and reduce inflammation. Periodontal regeneration thus becomes a useful therapeutic target, aimed not only at stopping disease but also at restoring the periodontium to its natural design and function [1].

In the last few years, periodontal regeneration has evolved drastically. At first, the focus was mainly on using methods like barrier membranes, guided tissue regeneration (GTR), and bone implants. Although these techniques provided partial regeneration in many therapeutic environments, the outcomes were variable and largely depended on the patient. With biological treatments aiming to emulate the complex interactions required in normal tissue development and regeneration opening themselves, tissue engineering and regenerative medicine have ushered in a new age in periodontal therapy [2].

Applied in periodontology, tissue engineering is an interdisciplinary field combining biology, engineering, materials science, and clinical sciences to produce successful replacements for damaged periodontal tissues. Scaffolds, cells, and biomolecular signals, frequently referred to as the tissue engineering triad, are its three basic constituents [3]. Taken collectively, these components provide a framework allowing cellular infiltration, differentiation, and tissue development within the defect site. This approach seeks to break free from the limitations of conventional treatments and enable real regeneration of all periodontal tissues, not repair or fibrous healing [4].

Particularly the development of biodegradable, biocompatible, and multifunctional materials encouraging cell adhesion, proliferation, and angiogenesis has shown significant improvement in scaffold design in recent years. Among the cutting-edge tools applied in customized periodontal treatment are smart biomaterials, 3D bioprinting, and nanofibrous scaffolds. Researchers are progressively integrating bioactive molecules, such as growth factors and cytokines that control cellular activity and promote tissue regeneration, into these scaffolds [5].

Comparably transformative is the contribution stem cell biology makes to periodontal regeneration. Mesenchymal stem cells (MSCs), taken from dental pulp, periodontal ligament, alveolar bone marrow, and even gum tissue, have shown a great ability to turn into osteoblasts, cementoblasts, and fibroblasts, which are the main cell types needed for repairing periodontal tissue. Not only can autologous stem cell treatments solve ethical concerns, but they also lower immunogenic side effects, which qualifies them for clinical translation [6].

The newly discovered knowledge of molecular signalling pathways affecting periodontal tissue formation and healing adds yet another degree of complexity and opportunity. Key signalling molecules currently under review include bone morphogenetic proteins (BMPs), platelet-derived growth factors (PDGFs), vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF), and fibroblast growth factors (FGFs), which aim to increase the efficacy and predictability of clinical outcomes [7]. Moreover, the invention of controlled release systems combining hydrogels and microspheres enables the continuous dispersion of these bioactive molecules in the target area, thereby improving the regeneration environment [8].

Still another interesting route is incorporating gene therapy into periodontal regeneration. Gene therapy seeks to overcome the limitations of direct protein delivery and generate continuous, localised production of necessary biomolecules by including genes encoding restoring proteins directly into the periodontal tissues. Although it is still in the early phases, gene therapy has the potential to create long-lasting biological impacts and could significantly advance the field in the coming years [9].

Recently, the combination of immunomodulatory techniques and alterations in host-microbiome interactions has become particularly intriguing. Apart from a bacterial infection, too strong a host immune response causes persistent periodontitis. Thus, for efficient periodontal tissue engineering, a pro-regenerative environment and immune response management become basic requirements. Immune-modulating scaffolds, anti-inflammatory cytokines, and T cell regulation help define several approaches already in use [10].

Furthermore, remarkable is the development in clinical translational application of tissue engineering techniques. Periodontal regeneration stem cell-based treatments and growth factor distribution methods have proved in clinical studies their safety and efficiency. Still difficult are legal limitations, expenses, long-term consequences, and process standardisation. A predictable, reproducible, patient-specific regenerative medicine gradually becomes a realistic possibility as scientists keep addressing these constraints [11].

Shifting from old methods to new ways that support natural healing of the gums, periodontal regeneration through tissue engineering represents a major change. In this field, stem cell research, biomaterials science, molecular biology, and bioengineering taken together have brought rapid development. These advances clarify periodontal biology and provide the means for inventive treatments able to restore dental health, function, and aesthetics in patients with periodontal disease. Research lowers the barrier separating bench and bedside; hence, periodontal treatment seems to be progressively regenerative, tailored, and hopeful [12].

PERIODONTAL TISSUES AND REGENERATION TARGETS

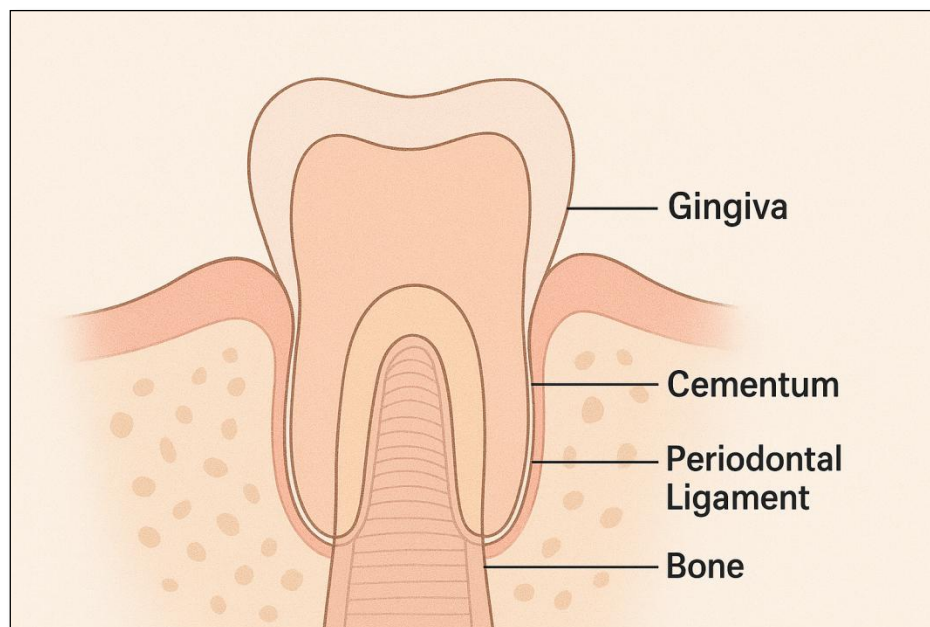
Comprising four main tissues working together to support and protect the teeth within the jawbone, the periodontium is a dynamic and sophisticated architecture.

Cementum: Cementum is a calcified tissue that shields the tooth root and provides a home for periodontal ligaments. Since it is quite avascular and lacks remodelling capacity, its regeneration poses a biological problem. Two main kinds are acellular extrinsic fibre cementum and cellular intrinsic fibre cementum [13].

Periodontal Ligament (PDL): The cementum and alveolar bone are connected by a unique connective tissue. Rich in mechanical force transmission, PDL controls everything by means of fibroblasts, progenitor cells, and blood vessels. Since it must precisely reintegrate into freshly created bone and cementum, effective periodontal regeneration mostly relies on its fibres [14].

Alveolar Bone: The sockets in this bone allow tooth roots to settle. It is always changing and rather prone to mechanical impulses and inflammatory reactions. Starting with resorbed alveolar bone, periodontal disease causes teeth movement and loss. Bone regeneration is one of the primary objectives of regenerative treatments [15].

Gingiva: Shielding the soft tissue around the alveolar bone, the gingiva rings the teeth from bacterial attack. Not only for looks, but also for maintaining the integrity of the periodontium after regeneration; a good keratinized gingiva is consequently vital [16].



Healing vs. Regeneration vs. Repair

Healing refers to the natural biological process that restores tissue continuity after injury. It may involve inflammation, granulation tissue formation, and scar tissue development [17].

Repair involves the re-establishment of tissue continuity with fibrous tissue rather than the original specialized structures. In periodontics, this often results in a long junctional epithelium, which lacks the biomechanical and functional characteristics of true periodontal attachment [18].

Regeneration, the gold standard, is the reconstitution of the original tissue architecture and function. In periodontium, this means new cementum, functionally aligned PDL fibers, and alveolar bone – precisely integrated as in the natural state [19].

The distinction is critical while conventional periodontal therapies often achieve repair, regenerative therapies aim for true regeneration to restore lost function and long-term tooth stability.

Biological Challenges in Regenerating Multiple Tissue Types Simultaneously

The simultaneous and coordinated regeneration of many functionally and anatomically different tissues inside a limited and perhaps inflamed environment is one of the most challenging concerns in periodontal regeneration. The main difficulties are:

Spatial Orientation and Integration: Cementum, PDL, and alveolar bone must regenerate in specific spatial relationships. Misalignment or incomplete formation of one tissue compromises the function of the whole system [20].

Cellular Crosstalk: Multiple cell types such as osteoblasts, cementoblasts, fibroblasts, and stem cells must be recruited and coordinated to differentiate appropriately and deposit the right matrix in the right place [21].

Selective Cell Repopulation: Techniques like guided tissue regeneration (GTR) aim to exclude epithelial and gingival connective tissue cells while allowing PDL and bone-forming cells to colonize the defect. However, maintaining this selective environment is difficult [22].

Inflammatory Environment: Chronic periodontitis alters the local microenvironment, with persistent inflammation, microbial dysbiosis, and tissue destruction. These conditions impair stem cell function and scaffold integration [23].

Vascularization: All regenerative tissues require adequate blood supply. However, creating vascular networks within bioengineered constructs, especially in large defects, remains a major hurdle [24].

Material Biocompatibility: The ideal scaffold must be biocompatible, degrade at the right rate, support cellular activity, and integrate with host tissues without causing immune reactions [25].

PRINCIPLES OF TISSUE ENGINEERING IN PERIODONTOLOGY

In periodontology, tissue engineering is the rapidly growing field combining clinical dentistry, material science, and biology to rebuild damaged periodontal tissues. The main goal is to fix the structure and function of the periodontium using methods that carefully combine technical and biological ideas. Underlying, most essentially, tissue engineering are cells, scaffolds, and signalling molecules. These elements taken together control the regeneration of functional tissue [26].

The Triad of Tissue Engineering: Scaffolds, Cells, and Signaling Molecules

Scaffolds

A basic three-dimensional framework for cell attachment, migration, and differentiation defines most of the process of periodontal regeneration. Scaffolds should be biocompatible and bioresorbable if we are to sufficiently stimulate this process to guarantee safe integration into host tissues and gradually disintegrate as natural tissue regeneration proceeds. Periodontal ligament (PDL), cementum, and bone all need suitable spatial direction to guide the proper anatomical alignment-based regeneration [27]. Furthermore, crucial for perfect scaffolds are enough mechanical strength and porosity to maintain structural integrity, support mobility and allow vascular penetration. Among other materials, scaffold construction gains from synthetic polymers like PLGA and PCL, natural polymers like collagen and chitosan, hydrogels, and nanofibrous matrices. Recent technological advances, including 3D printing and electrospinning, now allow unique, multilayered scaffolds to replicate the intricate architecture of the original periodontium more precisely and have better regeneration capability [28].

Cells

Cell-based regeneration relies on delivering or recruiting cells that can differentiate into tissue-specific lineages. Commonly used cell types in periodontal engineering include:

- Periodontal ligament stem cells (PDLSCs)
- Gingival mesenchymal stem cells (GMSCs)
- Bone marrow-derived mesenchymal stem cells (BMSCs)
- Dental follicle stem cells (DFSCs)

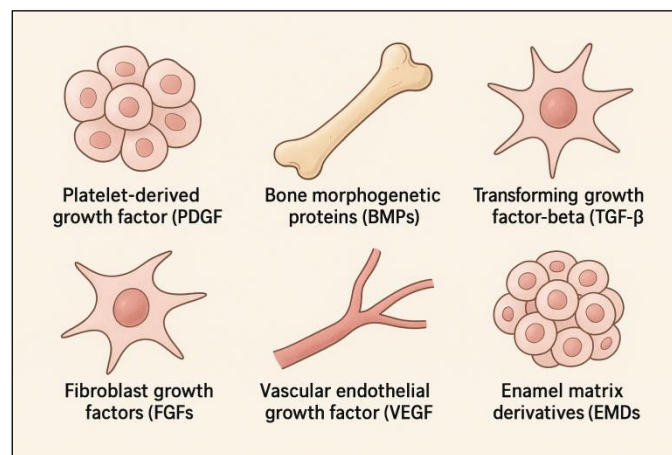
These cells contribute to the regeneration of cementum, alveolar bone, and PDL fibers. Cell therapy may involve either direct transplantation or the use of cell-seeded scaffolds that create a regenerative microenvironment [29,30].

Signaling Molecules (Growth Factors)

These are bioactive proteins that regulate cellular behavior such as proliferation, chemotaxis, differentiation, and matrix synthesis. Key growth factors in periodontal regeneration include:

- Platelet-derived growth factor (PDGF)
- Bone morphogenetic proteins (BMPs)
- Transforming growth factor-beta (TGF- β)
- Fibroblast growth factors (FGFs)
- Vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF)
- Enamel matrix derivatives (EMDs)

Advanced delivery systems such as nanocarriers, microspheres, and smart-release hydrogels help ensure sustained and localized release of these molecules [31,32].



Role of Biomimicry and Bioactivation

Biomimicry

Most of the periodontal regeneration is under the direction of a three-dimensional framework controlling cell attachment, migration, and differentiation. Safe for the body and able to break down over time, scaffolds have to naturally fit the surrounding tissues and support the healing process by virtue of their stability. They also need the periodontal structures bone, cementum, and periodontal ligament (PDL); the correct support to enable their regeneration back in the appropriate places [33]. Moreover, very important for ideal scaffolds are enough mechanical strength and porosity to preserve structural integrity, support mobility and allow vascular penetration. Among other materials, synthetic polymers such as PLGA and PCL help scaffold building; natural polymers include collagen and chitosan, hydrogels, and nanofibrous mats. Custom-made, layered scaffolds that better mimic the complex structure of natural periodontium enhances their ability to regenerate, thanks to recent advancements in technology like 3D printing and electrospinning [34].

Bioactivation

Bioactivation is the functionalising of materials or scaffolds under active interaction with biological signals inside host tissues, therefore optimising the benefits of regeneration. Extensive matrix (ECM) proteins or bioactive peptides covering scaffolds offer many ways to replicate natural tissue settings [35]. Furthermore, buried in nanoparticles are therapeutic genes or growth factors with localised, long-lasting biological action. Advanced techniques also offer tailored and controlled therapeutic effects through sensitive systems that respond to specific environmental stimuli, such as pH, temperature, or the presence of enzymes [36].

Together, biomimicry and bioactivation enhance cell-scaffold interactions and promote more predictable tissue regeneration by closely replicating natural healing pathways.

In Vitro vs In Vivo Considerations

In Vitro Studies

Usually under laboratory supervision, these studies make use of synthetic tissue models or cell cultures. They offer interesting research covering biocompatibility and cytotoxicity, scaffold disintegration and mechanical characteristics, stem cell behavior, and differentiation potential. Although in vitro systems have widespread use, their lack of the complicated biological background seen in a human organism could restrict their ability to completely forecast clinical effects [37].

In Vivo Studies

Examining immunological responses, inflammatory responses, tissue integration, and functional regeneration that is, load-bearing capacities and vascularization requires in vivo research, i.e., animal models or human clinical trials. These findings present significant fresh ideas on the biological effectiveness of regeneration methods in suitable physiological conditions. Still, they cause major issues like alterations in immunological profile, individual healing capacity, and defect size. Big animals like dogs and pigs have closer physical and physiological similarities to humans, even if their use is connected with high expenses and difficult ethical questions [38].

Stem Cells and Cell-Based Therapies

Stem cell-based treatments are among the most fascinating approaches in periodontal regeneration. These methods use the capacity of stem cells to self-renew and specialise into many cell types required to rebuild periodontal tissues, including cementoblasts, osteoblasts, and fibroblasts. Clinics and scientists hope to increase the predictability and quality of tissue mending beyond what is possible with scaffolding or growth factor-only treatments by incorporating stem cells into regenerative therapy [39].

Types of Stem Cells Used in Periodontal Regeneration

Several stem cell sources have been explored for their potential in regenerating periodontal structures. These include both dental and non-dental origin cells:

Periodontal Ligament Stem Cells (PDLSCs)

Stem cell-based treatments are among the most fascinating approaches in periodontal regeneration. These methods utilise the capacity of stem cells to self-renew and specialise in the many cell types required to rebuild periodontal tissues, including cementoblasts, osteoblasts, and fibroblasts. Clinics and scientists aim to improve the reliability and effectiveness of healing tissue beyond what can be achieved with just scaffolding or growth factor treatments by adding stem cells to regenerative therapy [40].

Bone Marrow-Derived Mesenchymal Stem Cells (BMSCs)

Packed with osteogenic potential, BMSCs have drawn particular interest in periodontal and orthopaedic regeneration. Usually cut off the long bones or iliac crest, they can split off into fat, cartilage, and bone [41].

Gingival Mesenchymal Stem Cells (GMSCs)

They have immunosuppressive activity, quick development, and are easy to use, unlike gingival connective tissue. Even if their osteogenic ability is less than that of BMSCs, they induce angiogenesis and support soft tissue healing [42].

Dental Pulp Stem Cells (DPSCs)

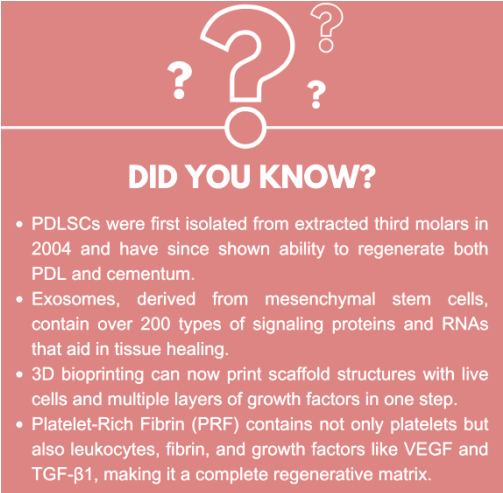
DPSCs, discovered in the dental pulp, can differentiate into various cell types, including odontoblasts and neurons. Rare in periodontics, endodontic and neuroregenerative research finds them more frequently [43].

Dental Follicle Stem Cells (DFSCs) and Stem Cells from the Apical Papilla (SCAP) are also under investigation for their potential in regenerating the periodontium and surrounding structures [44].

Harvesting, Culturing, and Differentiation Potential

Harvesting Techniques

Researchers usually collect stem cells through less invasive procedures from gingival biopsies, bone marrow aspirations, or removed teeth e.g., third molars for PDLSCs. The resultant tissue is either explant culture or enzymatic treatment for subsequent stem cell harvest [45].



DID YOU KNOW?

- PDLSCs were first isolated from extracted third molars in 2004 and have since shown ability to regenerate both PDL and cementum.
- Exosomes, derived from mesenchymal stem cells, contain over 200 types of signaling proteins and RNAs that aid in tissue healing.
- 3D bioprinting can now print scaffold structures with live cells and multiple layers of growth factors in one step.
- Platelet-Rich Fibrin (PRF) contains not only platelets but also leukocytes, fibrin, and growth factors like VEGF and TGF- β 1, making it a complete regenerative matrix.

Culturing

Stem cells are taken and then cultivated in vitro under regulated conditions to maintain their multipotency. Maximizing culture conditions requires modeling physiological niches, specific media compositions, growth hormones (like FGF and EGF), and sometimes low oxygen tension [46].

Differentiation Potential

Focused stimulation can lead these cells to grow into specific lineages, thereby enabling their use in regenerative medicine. Some of the substances that can help this process are ascorbic acid, β -glycerophosphate, and dexamethasone; enamel matrix derivatives or bone morphogenetic proteins (BMPs) can encourage the growth of cementum cells [47]. Conversely, usually resulting from mechanical stimulation and certain matrix proteins is fibrogenic differentiation. The type of tissue intended for regeneration determines the differentiation strategy to be chosen. Finally, maintaining cellular viability and ensuring appropriate signaling in the transplanted environment define the efficacy of these regeneration techniques [48].

Cell Sheet Engineering and Spheroid-Based Models

To overcome limitations of traditional scaffold-based delivery, newer methods such as cell sheet engineering and spheroid-based models are being developed to enhance tissue integration and regeneration.

Cell Sheet Engineering

Stem cells are grown to confluence on temperature-responsive pans using a new regenerative technology called cell sheet engineering, therefore permitting the extraction of whole monolayer "cell sheets" free from enzymatic digestion. Maintaining cellular function and vitality depends on important cell-to-cell junctions and extracellular matrix components; hence, our technique protects them. These cell sheets have several benefits, including better cell survival, more integration with host tissues, and angiogenesis stimulation, whether they are deliberately stacked or wrapped over defective areas. Preclinical studies have shown encouraging results, particularly in regenerating periodontal ligament and cementum, highlighting the potential of this technique for creating periodontal tissue [49, 50].

Spheroid-Based Models

Three-dimensional aggregates of stem cells in spheroid form closely approximate the structure of native tissues compared with conventional monolayer cultures. They increase cell-to-cell contact, differentiation, and reduce apoptosis following transplantation. Spheroids integrated with injectable hydrogels or scaffold matrices provide a minimally invasive approach combining high regenerative potential with structural support of tissue reconstruction, and are therefore highly promising in applications in tissue engineering and regenerative medicine [51].

Scaffold Materials and Fabrication Techniques

Fundamentally, scaffolds in periodontal tissue engineering are temporary structures affecting cell stick, mobility, growth, and tissue generation. Perfect scaffolds should allow vascularization, closely mirror the extracellular matrix (ECM) of periodontal tissues, and break down at a rate fit for tissue regeneration. Modern manufacturing techniques, including 3D bioprinting and scaffold design, have altered drastically both the use of natural and synthetic materials [52].

Natural vs. Synthetic Scaffolds

Parameter	Natural Scaffolds	Synthetic Scaffolds
Examples	Collagen, Chitosan, Gelatin, Hyaluronic Acid, Alginate, Fibrin	PLGA, PCL, PEG, PLA
Source	Derived from biological organisms (e.g., animals, marine life)	Chemically synthesized polymers
Biocompatibility	High	Moderate to high (may need surface modification)
Bioactivity	Intrinsically bioactive, mimics native ECM	Lacks bioactivity unless modified
Mechanical Strength	Generally poor	Good to excellent, can be tailored
Degradation	Natural degradation without toxic byproducts	Controlled degradation, but some acidic byproducts possible
Customizability	Limited	Highly customizable (structure, degradation rate, mechanical properties)
Batch Variability	High (depends on biological source)	Low (standardized manufacturing)
Applications	Promotes cell adhesion, wound healing, ECM-like environment	Structural support, drug delivery, tailored scaffolding
Limitations	Weak mechanics, inconsistent quality, fast/variable degradation	Foreign body reactions, non-bioactive, acidic degradation products
Production Scale	Difficult to standardize, limited scalability	Easy to scale up for mass production

Table 1: Natural vs. Synthetic Scaffolds

Nanostructured and Bioactive Scaffolds

Greater biomimicry and functional integration in nanotechnology have greatly improved periodontal scaffold design. Designed mostly by electro spinning, nanofibrous scaffolds faithfully reproduce the fibrous architecture of the natural extracellular matrix (ECM), therefore enhancing cell adhesion, direction, and proliferation. Collagen, PLGA, or their composites can be used to generate these nanofibers, combining mechanical strength with bioactivity [53]. Moreover, bioactive scaffolds are designed to actively interact with host tissues by including bioactive compounds such as growth factors or restorative peptides. Among the prominent examples are enamel matrix derivatives (EMDs) incorporated into collagen scaffolds to assist cementum and periodontal ligament (PDL) synthesis and hydroxyapatite (HA) or bioactive glass-based scaffolds for bone regeneration. Moreover, functionalized nanoscaffolds combining surface chemical alterations with nanotopographical signals have shown remarkable capacity to affect stem cell activity, improve osteoconduction, and stimulate angiogenesis, so facilitating more successful periodontal regeneration [54].

3D Printing and Bioprinting in Periodontal Scaffolds

3D printing has revolutionized periodontal regeneration by enabling the fabrication of patient-specific scaffolds derived from imaging data such as cone-beam computed tomography (CBCT). This technology allows for the creation of compartmentalized scaffolds that closely mimic the natural architecture of periodontal tissues, including bone, periodontal ligament (PDL), and cementum. Commonly used materials in these applications include polylactic-co-glycolic acid (PLGA), polycaprolactone (PCL), and various composite blends, which offer tailored mechanical properties and biocompatibility for effective tissue regeneration [55].

Bioprinting is an emerging technique that involves the use of cell-laden bioinks to fabricate living scaffolds with high precision. This technology enables the co-printing of cells, biomaterial scaffolds, and growth factors in spatially controlled patterns, closely mimicking the architecture of natural tissues. One of its most promising aspects is the potential to replicate vascularized and functional tissue constructs, opening new avenues for complex defect reconstruction and personalized regenerative therapies. Despite its transformative potential, the clinical translation of bioprinting remains in its early stages, requiring further research to overcome challenges related to scalability, integration, and regulatory approval [56].

Biodegradability and Mechanical Properties

An appropriate scaffold for periodontal regeneration must match tissue growth if structural support till the newly produced tissue can fulfill functional needs. The primary determinant is biodegradability, so degradation products should be non-toxic and either absorbed by the body or eliminated there. The speed of degradation depends on several parameters: surrounding ambient pH, crosslinking density, and scaffold material composition. Important mechanical characteristics of the scaffold also include its strength adequate to support in vivo physiological pressures, notably in load-bearing locations such as alveolar bone defects and surgical handling. Scaffolds that are flexible enough should also allow the periodontal ligament (PDL) to grow, thereby emphasizing the importance of a compliant, elastic matrix. Often composite or multilayered scaffolding designs enable a suitable compromise between controlled degradability and biomechanical integrity [57].

Growth Factors and Signaling Molecules

All the things needed for periodontal tissue regeneration, like growth factors and signaling molecules, are important biological substances that manage key cell activities such as moving, growing, changing, and forming the extracellular matrix (ECM). By arranging the complicated interactions between cells and scaffolds, these molecules generate biochemical signals that improve the predictability and effectiveness of regeneration treatments [58].

Key Growth Factors in Periodontal Regeneration

Several growth factors have been identified as pivotal in periodontal tissue development and repair:

Platelet derived growth factors (PDGF)

Among the most researched growth factors in periodontology, platelet-derived growth factor (PDGF) is clearly necessary for tissue regeneration. Key events in periodontal healing are PDGF's stimulation of fibroblast and osteoblast proliferation, angiogenesis, and collagen production. The recombinant form, rhPDGF-BB, is found in products like GEM 21S and has proven to be very helpful in treating deep bone and gum issues, making it a good choice for advanced periodontal healing treatments [59].

Bone Morphogenetic Proteins (BMPs)

Strong osteoinductive chemicals, especially BMP-2 and BMP-7, enable mesenchymal stem cells to grow into osteoblasts and cementoblasts, stimulating bone and cementum production. Although these proteins have therapeutic value, their use has to be tightly regulated since incorrect dosage or delivery could lead to unwanted calcification and inflammatory reactions, therefore compromising adjacent tissues and general therapy effects [60].

Transforming Growth Factor-Beta (TGF- β)

It regulates immunomodulation, matrix development, and cell growth. Usually working in conjunction with other growth factors, it serves to improve periodontal ligament and alveolar bone regeneration [61].

Fibroblast Growth Factors (FGFs)

Sometimes referred to as basic FGF, fibroblast growth factor-2 (FGF-2) is rather important for tissue regeneration because of its various biological actions. It actively encourages angiogenesis, which is necessary to increase blood vessel formation in scaffolds and ensure the supply of nutrients and oxygen needed for tissue repair. Apart from its angiogenic properties, FGF-2 induces periodontal ligament (PDL) fibroblast development and epithelial proliferation, which makes it indispensable for strategies of periodontal and oral tissue regeneration [62].

Vascular Endothelial Growth Factor (VEGF)

Usually under control of neovascularization, Vascular Endothelial Growth Factor (VEGF) is essential to promote endothelial cell migration and proliferation, fostering the development of new blood vessels in regenerated tissues. This angiogenic effect, especially in big or poorly vascularized wounds, affects the survival and integration capacity of intended grafts. Usually co-delivered with osteogenic medications to raise scaffold vascularization and enable effective bone mending, VEGF thus promises a synergistic increase of both angiogenesis and osteogenesis [63,64].

Enamel Matrix Derivatives (EMDs)

Emdogain®, which comes from pig tooth buds, is a type of protein that mimics the natural process of cement formation. EMDs stimulate the activity of cementoblasts and periodontal ligament (PDL) fibroblasts, therefore promoting the creation of new cementum and cellular fiber attachment. Clinically, they have shown significant success in guided tissue regeneration (GTR) and are commonly utilized in tandem with flap surgeries to improve periodontal regeneration results [65].

Controlled Release Systems and Gene Delivery

Growth factors are inherently unstable and prone to rapid degradation. Hence, their controlled and localized delivery is crucial for clinical success.

Controlled Release Systems

These complicated delivery systems make treatments more effective by steadily releasing active chemicals right where they are needed, which lowers overall exposure to the body. Some of the

many delivery methods include microspheres, which are often made from PLGA hydrogels using materials like alginate or gelatin, and multilayer scaffolds designed to release substances at specific times. Moreover, potential carriers for targeted dispersion include liposomes and nanoparticles. These systems can be carefully created to release one or more medicines in a controlled manner, closely mimicking the natural stages of tissue healing [66].

Gene Delivery

Reaching long-term, customized synthesis of therapeutic proteins in periodontal regeneration calls for a new approach presented by gene therapy. This method uses viral vectors such as adenoviruses and lentiviruses, which have outstanding transduction effectiveness; it also uses non-viral systems including plasmid DNA, lipoplexes, and nanoparticles, which allow greater safety and design freedom. Using genes, it's possible to directly inject important healing substances like platelet-derived growth factor (PDGF), bone morphogenetic proteins (BMPs), and vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF) into areas where periodontal tissue is missing or to include them in scaffolds or stem cells. This strategy generates constant endogenous production of growth factors at the site of damage, therefore fostering effective tissue regeneration [67].

PRF, PRP, and Other Autologous Preparations

Autologous blood-derived products are increasingly favored for their regenerative potential, biocompatibility, and ease of use.

Platelet-Rich Plasma (PRP)

Reaching long-term, customized synthesis of therapeutic proteins in periodontal regeneration calls for a new approach presented by gene therapy. This method uses viruses like adenoviruses and lentiviruses, which are very good at delivering genes; it also uses safer options like plasmid DNA, lipoplexes, and nanoparticles, which offer more flexibility in design. By using genes, we can directly inject important healing substances like platelet-derived growth factor (PDGF), bone morphogenetic proteins (BMPs), and vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF) into areas where periodontal tissue is missing or mix them into scaffolds or stem cells. This strategy generates constant endogenous production of growth factors at the site of damage, therefore fostering effective tissue regeneration [68, 69].

Platelet-Rich Fibrin (PRF)

Second-grade readiness Platelet-rich fibrin (PRF) efficiently traps leukocytes and platelets in a fibrin matrix, thereby enhancing their regeneration ability. Unlike platelet-rich plasma (PRP), PRF has various benefits, including the absence of chemical additions, simplicity of preparation and handling, and continual release of growth factors over a period of 7–10 days. Its several forms Advanced PRF (A-PRF), Injectable PRF (I-PRF), and Titanium-PRF (T-PRF) show different characteristics that fit a broad spectrum of soft and hard tissue use in clinical practice [70].

Concentrated Growth Factor (CGF) **and** Autologous Conditioned Serum (ACS) are newer autologous formulations also explored in periodontal and implant therapy. These autologous preparations are particularly useful in flap surgeries, ridge preservation, sinus augmentation, and peri-implantitis treatment, offering biologically active, patient-specific regenerative support [71].

ADVANCED REGENERATIVE STRATEGIES

Periodontal regeneration is fast-changing as new biotechnologies beyond conventional tissue engineering grow. Exosome-based treatments, gene therapy, epigenetic modification, and gene-editing technologies such as CRISPR are creating exciting possibilities for exact, tailored, long-lasting periodontal tissue regeneration. These new techniques seek to solve the molecular causes of periodontal degeneration, therefore improving the biological possibilities for whole tissue regeneration [72].

Strategy	Mechanism	Key Agents	Applications	Advantages	Challenges
Gene Therapy	Delivery of specific genes to stimulate production of regenerative proteins	PDGF, BMP-2, VEGF, Runx2, IL-10; Viral (adenovirus, lentivirus) & Non-viral vectors	Enhances osteogenesis, angiogenesis, and immune modulation	Sustained local protein production; precise targeting	Safety, vector delivery, risk of off-target effects
Epigenetic Modulation	Regulation of gene expression without altering DNA sequence	HDAC inhibitors, DNMT inhibitors, microRNAs (e.g., miR-21, miR-29b)	Reactivates regenerative genes; reverses inflammation-induced repression	Non-genotoxic, reversible effects	Specificity, delivery systems, long-term outcomes
Exosome Therapy	Use of extracellular vesicles to transfer regenerative signals	Exosomes from PDLSCs, BMSCs, GMSCs, iPSCs	Enhances angiogenesis, osteogenesis, and immune regulation	Cell-free, low immunogenicity, stable and scalable	Isolation standardization, dosage control
CRISPR Gene Editing	Precise modification of host genome for regenerative enhancement	CRISPR-Cas9, base editors, prime editors	Upregulation of bone genes; silencing inflammatory genes; correcting mutations	High specificity, long-lasting effects, patient customization	Ethical concerns, off-target risks, regulatory hurdles

Table 2: Advanced Regenerative Strategies in Periodontal Regeneration

CLINICAL APPLICATIONS

Recent progress in tissue engineering has opened up many additional options for treating periodontal regeneration. This has made it easier to forecast what would happen when you treat gum disease and has made the treatments more biologically sound. Engineered scaffolds, especially those that have growth factors like platelet-derived growth factor (PDGF), bone morphogenetic proteins (BMPs), and enamel matrix derivatives (EMD), have shown promise in rebuilding alveolar bone, cementum, and periodontal ligament in both intrabony and furcation defects. Researchers are beginning to investigate stem cell-based medicines in clinical studies that are still in their early stages. These treatments involve mesenchymal stem cells from the periodontal ligament, bone marrow, or gums [73]. It seems that these treatments will work and be safe. Smart biomaterials that can respond to local inflammatory or enzymatic signals can let you transfer drugs or growth factors to specific locations in a regulated fashion. This helps tissues recover and fit better. Customization of flaws and clinical precision are growing better all the time. There are many ways this is happening, such as making scaffolds that fit each patient and 3D printing. These innovative ideas are steadily changing the way we think about getting implants and taking care of our gums. They are transforming how we heal from passive biological regeneration to active biological regeneration. In the long term, this will make things go better [74].

Parameter	Conventional Regeneration (GTR, Bone Grafts)	Tissue-Engineered Approaches
Mechanism	Passive guidance of tissue growth using membranes/grafts	Active regeneration using cells, scaffolds, and bioactive molecules
Materials Used	Resorbable/non-resorbable membranes, autografts, allografts	Customized scaffolds, stem cells, growth factors, gene-modified matrices
Outcome Variability	Moderate; limited by defect anatomy and healing capacity	High potential; depends on integration and biofunctionality
Clinical Complexity	Well-established protocols; moderate technical demand	Technically demanding; requires specialized handling and facilities
Long-Term Data	Extensive	Limited but growing
Regulatory Approval	Widely accepted	Under regulatory scrutiny in most countries

Table 3: Comparison with Conventional Regenerative Procedures

Category	Key Issues	Clinical Implications
Immunological Responses & Safety Concerns	- Host immune rejection of allogeneic or synthetic materials - Inflammatory responses - Viral vector risks in gene therapy - Off-target effects in CRISPR	- Potential graft failure - Postoperative complications - Need for careful material selection and immune monitoring
Cost-Effectiveness & Standardization	- High costs of biomaterials and stem cell culture - Lack of uniform protocols for PRF/PRP, scaffolds, cell expansion	- Limited accessibility in routine practice - Inconsistent clinical outcomes - Need for low-cost, reproducible alternatives
Regulatory & Ethical Issues	- Stringent approval processes for biologics and gene therapy - Ethical debates over embryonic stem cell use - Misuse of unregulated stem cell therapies	- Legal liability and restricted clinical use - Importance of informed consent and transparent patient education
Long-Term Predictability & Integration	- Limited long-term data on tissue stability and function - Biomechanical mismatch between native and regenerated tissues - Uncertain relapse risks	- Hesitation in widespread adoption - Necessity for longitudinal clinical trials and follow-up systems

Table 4: Challenges and Limitations in Periodontal Tissue Engineering

FUTURE DIRECTIONS AND INNOVATIONS

As new biology and technology come together, the field of periodontal regeneration is going to change a lot. Regenerative medications should get better, work better with other treatments, and be more personalized for each patient during the next ten years. Some of these are smart biomaterials that change depending on their surroundings, digital planning, personalized therapy, and organoid models [75].

Smart Biomaterials and Stimuli-Responsive Scaffolds

Most of the time, the materials used for scaffolding don't alter significantly when the periodontal area does. On the other hand, smart biomaterials are a big step forward since they change when the pH, temperature, enzyme activity, or mechanical stress changes. These novel scaffolds have systems that release anti-inflammatory medications when the area is irritated and the pH is low. They also have hydrogels that break down enzymes. This functionality enables them to manage

how fast and how much medicine is supplied. Lastly, they have shape-memory polymers that change shape to fit the defect when they are put in [76]. These smart scaffolds are amazing because they can let out antibiotics or growth nutrients when they are needed. This means that fewer medical treatments are needed, and they work better than the body's natural healing mechanism. In the end, they permit periodontal regeneration to happen at different phases by changing to fit the needs of the tissue as it grows and changes [77].

AI and Digital Planning in Regenerative Therapies

AI is becoming more and more important in regenerative dentistry, especially when it comes to generating treatment plans and figuring out what will happen next. AI algorithms can employ cone-beam computed tomography (CBCT) and intraoral imaging data to help make scaffolds that fit the contour of each patient's oral cavity. You can also use AI-based predictive modeling to guess what will happen during regeneration based on what you know about each patient's strengths and weaknesses. This process helps people get the best care for them [78]. AI is also helping to make it easier to see how well tissue is recovering in clinical trials by automatically looking at pictures of histology. Digital tools, such as 3D-printed scaffolds made from scans of some patients, are already being used in early therapy settings. They help with things like getting better results from surgery, spending less time in the operating room, and identifying the best way to solve problems. AI-powered design tools might one day be able to plan scaffolds and cell therapy completely on their own, making it different for each patient. Such capabilities would make dental work that restores teeth more accurate, helpful, and reliable [79].

Personalized Regenerative Dentistry

The age of precision medicine is having a bigger and bigger impact on periodontics. This means that each patient can get a treatment that is made particularly for them. This individualized method takes into account factors like genetic markers (including IL-1 genotype and MMP polymorphisms), systemic health conditions (such as diabetes and osteoporosis), the types of bacteria in the oral cavity, and how well stem cells respond. With this much knowledge, you may choose the best scaffold-cell-growth factor combinations for each patient [80]. You can also choose personalized pharmacogenetic-guided treatments like gene delivery that are dependent on how each person's inflammatory genes are expressed. The goal is to get the best results for regeneration while keeping the bad effects to a minimum. Genomic profiling, salivary biomarkers, and predictive analytics are just a few of the emerging tools that are helping doctors make more tailored and data-driven choices about how to treat periodontal disease [81].

Organoid Models and Lab-Grown Periodontal Tissues

Organoids are groups of cells that come together to form three-dimensional forms that look and work like genuine tissues. We are currently working on organoid models, which could help us learn more about gum problems and identify ways to treat them in the future. These models strive to depict how cementoblasts, periodontal ligament (PDL) cells, and osteoblasts work together, as well as how the immune system and tissues work together when you have periodontitis. There are many reasons why they might be used, such as to learn more about how periodontitis gets worse and how the body recovers itself by replicating diseases in a lab. You might be able to use a 3D

system that acts like the body to try out new drugs, biomaterials, and gene therapies. These organoids could help create custom-made periodontal tissue that can be used for grafts or even to help regenerate tissue at a larger scale. This would greatly assist individuals who have lost significant amounts of gum tissue [82].

CONCLUSION

Periodontal regeneration is developing from traditional healing approaches to sophisticated tissue engineering techniques aimed at real restoration of shape and function. By mixing new concepts like smart biomaterials, gene editing, and exosomes with stem cell therapies, bioactive scaffolds, and signaling molecules, regenerative periodontics can create customized and reliable outcomes. Clinical translation is defined by cost, standardization, and regulatory challenges; yet, organoid models, artificial intelligence-driven planning, and precision-based treatments seem to brighten the future. By means of continuous multidisciplinary interaction and clinical validation, bring these discoveries from laboratory to bedside.

CHAPTER 4

SMART MATERIALS IN DENTISTRY: RESPONDING TO ENVIRONMENTAL STIMULI FOR IMPROVED LONGEVITY

Dr Athira M, Dr. Satwik Chatterjee, Prof. Mohammed Mustafa, Dr. Cidda Sindhuja

INTRODUCTION

Dentistry has changed a lot in the last few decades because of new materials and technologies. These changes not only fix difficulties, but they also make the biological and aesthetic effects of dental surgery better. Smart materials are one of the most important new things in the field of dental biomaterials science [1]. Intelligent or sensitive materials, often known as smart materials, can change their properties when they come into contact with factors like light, electric or magnetic fields, temperature, moisture, pH, or stress. These changes in how people treat each other are starting a new era in restorative and preventive dentistry. Now, materials may change, react, and interact with their surroundings to make dental restorations last longer, work better, and be better for the body [2].

People don't use dental products very often. Amalgam, resin composites, and ceramics have been around for a long time, but they don't change shape in the oral cavity and only provide static mechanical support [3]. Smart materials, on the other hand, make dental treatment more interactive because they can cure themselves, eliminate bacteria, release medicine, remineralising, learn shapes, and lower stress. The oral cavity is continually changing, and things like altering pH levels, bacteria, temperature changes, and mechanical forces like chewing and grinding can make it harmful. These factors are extremely important for oral health [4].

One of the most talked-about types of smart materials in dentistry is pH-responsive. Bacteria in the oral cavity that produce acid are often responsible for causing cavities and wearing down teeth. This action breaks down the minerals that build up dentin and enamel. Smart materials that can sense when the pH is too low and release remineralizing agents like calcium, phosphate, or fluoride ions can help keep dental tissues healthy by managing the pH and letting them recover on their own. These materials not only help restorations stay longer, but they also help keep cavities from coming back at the borders of restorations. This type of decay is called secondary caries [5].

"Shape memory alloys" (SMAs) and "shape memory polymers" (SMPs) are two more things that are already utilized in braces. When heated to a certain point, some materials can return to their former shape. Nickel-titanium (NiTi) wires used in orthodontics, for example, can change shape and stay that way [6]. This helps them place mild, constant pressure on the teeth, which makes them move faster and with less pain. In addition to orthodontics, researchers are also looking into

how to apply shape-memory technology in endodontics, implantology, and prosthodontics. When the body warms up, it causes the materials to change or activate, which improves their performance and fit [7].

Two forms of bio-responsive smart materials that have shown a lot of promise in both restorative and endodontic treatments are bioactive glass and bioceramics. These things can help create hydroxyapatite, a mineral that is in teeth and bones. This process makes the tissues in the dentin and periodontium grow again. Mineral trioxide aggregate (MTA) and newer calcium silicate-based cements are now the best materials for protecting the pulp, filling the end of the root, and helping with tissue regeneration because they seal well, are safe for living things, and promote tissue growth [8].

Self-repairing materials are also progressing rapidly. Their purpose is to address common issues that arise during restorations, including microcracks and fatigue failure. These smart composites contain small capsules that hold healing agents. When a fracture happens, the chemicals are released, which starts polymerization or precipitation that fixes the damage. Restorations last longer since they can fix themselves. They may even need to be replaced or retreated less often as time goes on [9].

Smart materials that destroy bacteria have also been produced to stop biofilm from forming. Biofilm is a significant cause of why dental problems and implant failures occur. These materials either contain silver ions, quaternary ammonium compounds, or light-activated nanoparticles, or they release chemicals that kill germs upon contact. The antimicrobial activity on demand keeps your oral cavity healthy and reduces your exposure to antibiotics. This action is one aspect of the bigger goal of antibiotic stewardship [10].

Researchers in prosthodontics and implantology are looking at piezoelectric materials to determine if they can change mechanical stress into electrical charges. This approach could help osseointegration by making bone develop around the implants. These materials work like bone does in nature, which makes dental implants endure longer and be stronger [11].

Nanotechnology makes smart materials even more useful and responsive when they are used together. Nanoparticles have the ability to enhance the strength of dental materials, regulate the distribution of medications, and transport medicinal chemicals to specific locations. For instance, nanoparticle-based smart sealers in endodontics can release antibacterial compounds while also making the seal stronger. This feature gives them two ways to stay healthy [12].

We need to closely examine the numerous problems and constraints associated with smart materials. Biocompatibility, long-term stability, possible cytotoxicity, and cost-effectiveness are still highly important. Doctors also need to complete many tests, get permission from the government, and learn how to employ new ideas from the lab in the clinic [13].

In conclusion, smart materials are a huge step forward in modern dentistry since they allow us new ways to solve old problems. These materials perform well in the oral cavity, which makes treatments more effective, lowers the probability of failure, and makes restorations last longer. The

future of dental care will move away from restoring broken things and toward using materials that fill cavities and assist in keeping teeth healthy [14].

HISTORICAL EVOLUTION AND DEVELOPMENT

Dental materials have come a long way. They used to be just simple, nonreactive chemicals, but now they are smart materials that can change and react to their surroundings. By looking at how biomimetic and intelligent materials in dentistry have changed throughout time, we may better understand the new technologies and ways of thinking about them [15,16].

ERA	MILESTONE	DESCRIPTION
ANCIENT TIMES	Use of natural materials	Egyptians and Etruscans used gold wires, ivory, and shells for dental replacements.
19TH CENTURY	Introduction of dental amalgam	Silver amalgam became widely accepted despite initial controversy.
EARLY 20TH CENTURY	Acrylic resins for dentures	Polymethyl methacrylate (PMMA) improved prosthodontic outcomes.
1950S–70S	Development of composite resins	Bowen’s resin revolutionized restorative dentistry with aesthetic alternatives.
1980S	Glass ionomer cements (GIC)	Offered chemical adhesion and fluoride release, laying groundwork for bioactivity.
1990S	Resin-modified GICs	Combined physical and chemical benefits of composites and GICs.
2000S	Introduction of bioactive materials	Calcium silicates and bioactive glasses became mainstream in endodontics and restorative care.
2010S	Rise of nanomaterials	Nanoscale fillers and coatings enhanced mechanical and antimicrobial properties.
2020S–PRESENT	Smart and stimuli-responsive materials	Materials that react to pH, temperature, bacterial presence, and stress introduced into clinical practice.

Table 1: Timeline of biomaterials in dentistry

CLASSIFICATION OF SMART MATERIALS IN DENTISTRY

There are many different kinds of smart dental materials. Each one is made up of diverse parts and reacts to changes in the environment in its own way. Researchers and doctors can learn more about how these new materials work and where they can be useful by using this two-part classification [17,18].

STIMULUS TYPE	MATERIAL CLASS	EXAMPLE	CLINICAL APPLICATION
THERMO-RESPONSIVE	Shape Memory Alloy (NiTi)	NiTi orthodontic archwires	Orthodontic tooth movement
PH-SENSITIVE	Glass ionomer, Polymer	Fluoride-releasing GICs	Anti-caries restorations
MOISTURE-RESPONSIVE	Hydrogels, Endodontic sealers	Bioceramic sealers	Enhanced canal sealing in endodontics
STRESS-RESPONSIVE	Composite resins	Smart composite with viscoelastic changes	Restorative materials with adaptive stiffness
BIOFILM-SENSITIVE	Composite, Coatings	Antibacterial composites with silver ions	Prevention of secondary caries and biofilm control
THERMO-RESPONSIVE	Polymer (shape-memory)	Smart aligner materials	Clear aligner therapy
PH-SENSITIVE	Bioactive ceramics	Calcium phosphate-releasing materials	Pulp capping, remineralization
MOISTURE-RESPONSIVE	Hydrogel scaffolds	PEG-based hydrogel for drug delivery	Periodontal regeneration, local drug delivery

Table 2: Classification of smart materials in dentistry

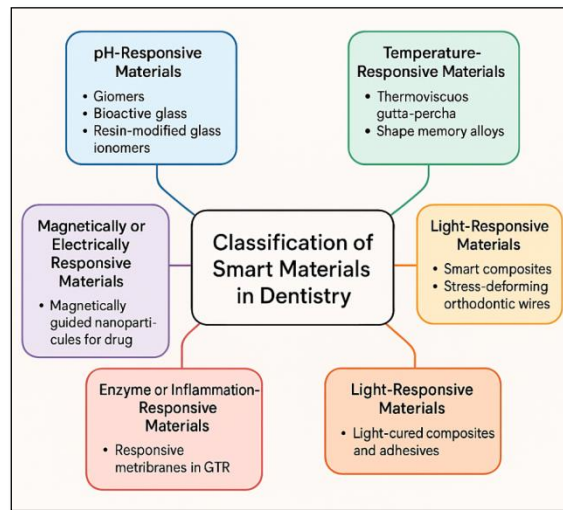


Figure 1: Classification of Smart Materials in Dentistry

MECHANISM OF ACTION OF SMART MATERIALS IN DENTISTRY

Smart materials are made to change when the environment of oral cavity changes, such as when the pH, temperature, moisture, bacterial activity, or mechanical stress changes. The way they work depends on the natural structures of their molecules or the functional agents they have that make things happen [19].

Material Behavior in Response to Environmental Triggers

Dental smart materials have a stimulus-response relationship, which means that when they are in a certain condition, they respond in a way that is beneficial for them. These reactions might be illustrated in figure 2 [20]

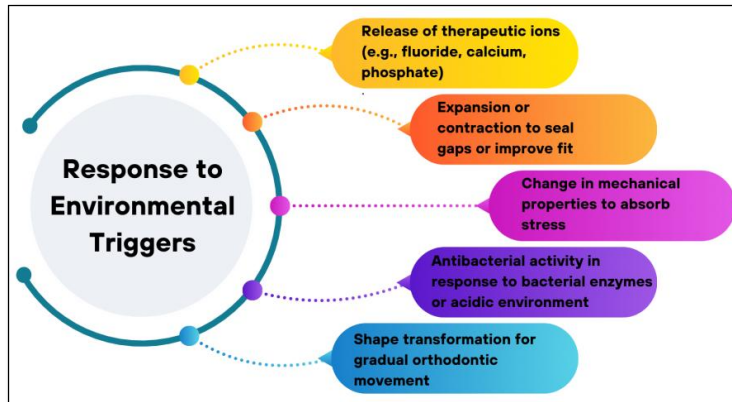


Figure 2: Responses to environmental triggers

Molecular or Physical-Level Changes

Smart dental materials can undergo several types of microscopic or macroscopic transformations. These include [21]:

TYPE OF CHANGE	MECHANISM	OUTCOME
ION RELEASE	Triggered by pH or enzymatic activity	Promotes remineralization, antibacterial action
VOLUME EXPANSION	Hygroscopic swelling in moist environments	Improves sealing ability in endodontics
PHASE TRANSFORMATION	Heat-induced shape recovery	Shape memory behavior in orthodontic wires
POLYMER MATRIX REARRANGEMENT	Stress or pH sensitivity	Changes elasticity or stiffness during function
COLOR CHANGE	Thermochromic or pH-sensitive dyes	Visual feedback for patients or clinicians
DEGRADATION/EROSION	Controlled breakdown in response to pH or enzymes	Localized drug delivery or tissue regeneration

Table 3: Molecular or physical-level changes in dental materials

APPLICATIONS OF SMART MATERIALS IN CLINICAL DENTISTRY

Smart materials are changing the way dentists work by making their tools more functional, flexible, and long-lasting. They are useful in many areas because they can respond to things that happen in the oral cavity [22].

Restorative Dentistry

Smart Composites

Smart composites are new kinds of dental materials that may change shape when the oral cavity does. When they come into contact with acidic pH levels, which happen a lot during cariogenic attacks, they release fluoride, calcium, and phosphate ions. This is how they usually behave. This targeted ion release not only helps bring minerals back to enamel and dentin that have lost them, but it also makes the acidic conditions less acidic, which protects/customizes the tooth structure surrounding it. Two examples of these kinds of materials are giomers and bioactive composites. They look and work like regular composites, but they also have the mending characteristics of glass ionomer parts [23, 24].

Self-Healing Materials

High-tech self-healing dental materials can mend small damage on their own, which makes restorations last longer. When small cracks form in the resin matrix, these materials release microcapsules rich in healing monomers. When the monomers are free, they join together to fill in the little fractures. This keeps them from getting worse and makes it less likely that the restoration will fail. Resin-based composites with self-healing agents built in are a well-known example. These are a new and promising approach to getting dental care that doesn't hurt too much and lasts a long time [25, 26].

Endodontics

Moisture-Responsive Sealers

Moisture-sensitive sealers, such as bioceramic sealers (MTA-based and calcium silicate formulations), get a little bigger when they are used in wet root canals because they absorb water. Due to their mechanism of action, these sealers may absorb moisture from the surrounding air. Their size makes it easier to keep track of how they are growing and helps them fit better in the canal. These sealers improve apical sealing, which stops micro leakage and makes endodontic treatments work better over time [27, 28].

PH-Activated Disinfecting Agents

Disinfectants that work when the pH is low kill more bacteria in acidic areas, where bacteria are more active. These things don't do much when the pH is neutral, which protects healthy periapical tissues from getting damaged [29]. Their antibacterial characteristics kick in when they come into contact with an acidic pH, which is frequent in inflammatory tissues or infected root canals. This makes cleaning more concentrated and useful. This selective action not only makes the medication work better, but it also keeps neighboring healthy tissues safe. Such an approach could be a big step forward in how we treat teeth [30].

Prosthodontics

Adaptive Denture Base Materials

Polymers that react to heat are employed in materials for adaptive denture bases. When the temperature in the oral cavity varies, these polymers can vary in how well they fit. The denture may change shape to match better with the tissues in the oral cavity. This makes it more comfortable for the patient and helps it stay in place better. Some people refer to these materials as "smart acrylics" or "thermo-adaptive resins." They are a big step forward in prosthodontics because they help removable dentures work better and feel better for the person who wears them [31].

Stress-Absorbing Liners

Liners made of viscoelastic polymers absorb tension. When you chew these polymers, they may change shape, which helps them deal with stress. These materials act as a cushion between the base of the denture and the tissues in the oral cavity. This helps to spread the occlusal stresses more evenly. This is why they help keep the other ridges from getting absorbed and make it less painful or uncomfortable for those who wear dentures. Soft liners with clever cushioning are great examples since they help prostheses fit better and provide patient comfort [32].

Orthodontics:

Shape-Memory Alloys (NiTi Wires)

Nickel-titanium (NiTi) wires are a kind of shape-memory alloy that changes its shape when the temperature changes. This peculiar property allows the wires to reorganize their crystal structure. This feature helps them go back to their original shape after being bent. Because of this, superelastic NiTi archwires may place light, constant stress on items for a long time. This feature is helpful for moving teeth in orthodontics. Patients feel better, and therapy goes faster since they can keep the same amount of force [33].

Biofilm-Resistant Coatings

Biofilm-resistant coatings are special alterations applied to the surface of orthodontic brackets to keep bacteria from clinging to them and developing. These coatings function by creating a barrier

that keeps germs from attaching to the surface in the first place. This approach makes it less likely that biofilms will build in the oral cavity [34]. This keeps plaques from building up so much around the brackets. This makes it easier to keep your oral cavity clean when you wear braces. One such example is silver nanoparticles on brackets, which kill many microorganisms. Another prominent example is quaternary ammonium compounds, which break down the walls of bacterial cells and hinder them from developing [35].

Periodontics

Drug-Delivering Scaffolds

Drug-delivering scaffolds, a new type of biomaterial, aim to provide individualized care for patients with gum disease and other oral health issues. These scaffolds often have hydrogels in them. When they come into contact with the acidic or enzyme-rich environment of periodontal pockets, they alter form [36]. Hydrogels release chemicals that combat inflammation or germs right where the illness is when they come into contact with things like a lower pH or greater enzyme activity. This method makes sure that the medicine reaches the right area without any issues. This makes the treatment operate better, minimizes the danger of side effects in the overall body, and speeds up the repair of the periodontium [37].

Responsive Membranes for Guided Tissue Regeneration (GTR)

Responsive membranes for Guided Tissue Regeneration (GTR) are innovative biomaterials that function as adaptive barriers, altering their properties in response to the surrounding tissue environment. When these membranes come into contact with certain biological signals, including inflammation, they break down or turn on. This approach makes it easier to use and more personal for each person. They assist control when barrier function starts and ceases by responding to signs of inflammation in the area. The process keeps the area in good shape and helps the tissue grow back. This moving feature helps tissue heal faster and better than regular static membranes [38].

Implantology

Antimicrobial Smart Coatings

Smart coatings that kill germs are advanced dental materials designed to prevent germ growth by releasing substances upon contact with bacteria. These coatings let out silver, zinc ions, or antibacterial peptides when they come into contact with dangerous pathogens. These items kill bacteria right away by attacking them. This adaptive reaction keeps biofilm from building and makes it less likely that you will have an infection. Because of this, they are especially useful for braces, implants, and anything else that fixes teeth [39, 40].

Osseointegrative Coatings

Osseointegrative coatings make it simpler for implants to interact with the bone tissue around them by altering the surface of the implant with bioactive peptides or calcium phosphate compounds. This alteration to the surface makes cells behave in ways that are needed for osseointegration to work. These coatings help osteoblasts, which are cells that produce bone, connect, grow, and get stronger. This makes it easier for the implant to stick to the bone. This is why they make dental and orthopedic implants far more stable and successful over time [41].

ADVANTAGES AND LIMITATIONS OF SMART MATERIALS IN DENTISTRY

There are many benefits to using smart materials in dentistry. They endure longer, can cure themselves, and help people feel better. Some materials, such shape-memory alloys and bio-responsive composites, can change shape to fit the mouth. This means they heal faster and don't need to be fixed as often. But they do have some problems. For instance, they can be hard to get because they cost a lot and you don't know how effectively they'll work in the mouth over time. They also need unique abilities, which can make dental work harder and more expensive. There aren't many smart materials that can be used for dental reasons either [42, 43].

ASPECT	ADVANTAGES	LIMITATIONS
CLINICAL PERFORMANCE	• Targeted ion/drug release • Self-healing capability • Improved sealing and adaptation	• Unpredictable long-term behavior • Limited real-world performance validation
TREATMENT LONGEVITY	• Increased restoration lifespan • Resistance to wear and microleakage	• Risk of degradation or breakdown over time
PATIENT BENEFITS	• Enhanced comfort and fit • Reduced chair-time and visits • Higher satisfaction	• Higher cost to patient • Possible adverse
PREVENTIVE POTENTIAL	• Caries inhibition • Antibacterial action • Remineralization support	• Variable response in different oral environments
MATERIAL RESPONSIVENESS	• Adapts to pH, temperature, stress, moisture, bacteria	• Complex material design and behavior prediction difficult
INNOVATION IN SPECIALTIES	• Applicable in ortho, endo, perio, prosthodontics, and implants	• Need for clinical specialty-specific trials
BIOLOGICAL INTERACTION	• Promotes healing and regeneration • Biocompatible in controlled doses	• Biocompatibility not fully established • Possible immune sensitivity

REGULATORY & PRACTICAL CONCERNS	• Encourages minimally invasive dentistry • Supports personalized treatments	• Lack of standardization • Regulatory classification challenges
FABRICATION AND ACCESSIBILITY	• Integration with nanotech, polymers, smart alloys	• Expensive manufacturing • Limited availability in some regions

Table 4: Advantages and Limitations of Smart Materials

FUTURE PERSPECTIVES AND INNOVATIONS IN SMART DENTAL MATERIALS

The next generation of clinical equipment is being influenced by interdisciplinary advancements in the rapidly developing field of smart dental materials. With the use of precision, intelligence, and personalisation, these developments seek to move dentistry away from reactive care and towards predictive and preventative care [44].

Nanotechnology Integration

Fillers, fibres, and surface coatings added through meticulous nanoscale engineering have made dental materials much more sensitive, responsive, and bioactive. Nanotechnology can help remineralise early cavities by using calcium phosphate or nano-fluoride particles. Furthermore, by encouraging the development of bone and cell connections on implant surfaces with nanotextures, it can promote osseointegration [45]. Antimicrobial nanocoatings such as copper or nanosilver also lower the risk of infection by inhibiting the growth of biofilm. Future drug delivery to targeted regions, especially hard-to-reach places like periodontal pockets or root canals, may be greatly aided by nanocarriers. As a result, treatment will become more focused and efficient [46].

AI-Assisted Responsive Materials

Smart dental materials are a cutting-edge and intriguing advancement in restorative therapy and orthodontics. Real-time temperature, pH, and bacterial count monitoring is made possible by the sensors and artificial intelligence (AI) algorithms found in these materials. These materials may react differently depending on the information. These traits increase therapy precision and improve patients' recovery [47]. For instance, depending on the state of the teeth, the pressure that orthodontic aligners apply can now be changed. These therapeutic materials can even change colour or wirelessly alert medical personnel when something goes wrong. Future restorations and prostheses will be able to monitor themselves and notify patients and dentists when they begin to show signs of disease or failure. With the aid of such technology, we can treat patients more rapidly while maintaining their dental health [48].

Personalized Smart Dental Materials

Genome-based customisation is leading to more individualised dental operations. This suggests that the materials are customised based on the specific genetic makeup of the patient, the properties of their saliva, or the kinds of oral bacteria [49]. These cutting-edge biomaterials frequently include polymers that change with saliva pH or enzyme activity. This flexibility enhances therapy's efficacy and attention. For example, specialised antibacterial medications may be administered to people who are more likely to get cavities, and tailored scaffolds may be used in treatments that encourage the body's natural healing process [50].

Potential for Diagnostic Capabilities

In dentistry, smart diagnostic interfaces are a new type of material that can determine the type of therapy required or the severity of an issue. These materials are made to adjust to modifications in the oral cavity's chemical or biological environment. For instance, certain resin composites may lose minerals or alter colour when exposed to bacterial acids [51]. These changes may enable users to identify issues earlier. Similarly, implant coatings that illuminate when they come into contact with an ill individual facilitate the prompt detection and treatment of infections. These intelligent materials will eventually be paired with wearable technology or intraoral scanners to produce hybrid diagnostic instruments. It is possible to examine the temperature, the condition of the tissues, and the forces holding them together at any time. Each patient can receive quick, individualised dental care because to this capabilities [52].

CONCLUSION

The use of smart materials is an important advancement in dentistry. They transform the industry from passive restoratives to active, responsive treatments by engaging with the oral cavity. Furthermore, these materials respond differently to changes in pH, temperature, and mechanical stress. As a result, restorations stay longer, patients feel better, and treatments are more successful. They can be used to improve individualised and preventative care in a number of disciplines, such as periodontics, endodontics, prosthodontics, orthodontics, and implantology. There are still issues, nevertheless, such as exorbitant prices, biocompatibility issues, and a dearth of long-term clinical data. However, advancements in AI, nanotechnology, and diagnostics make the future appear bright. To reach their full potential and establish evidence-based smart dentistry as the norm, more investigation and thorough clinical validation are required.

CHAPTER 5

ORAL HEALTH OF UNDERSERVED AND VULNERABLE POPULATIONS

Dr. Nishant Visvas Dumont, Dr. Rohit Pasari, Dr. Kochikar Reshma Pai, Dr. Boris Saha

INTRODUCTION

Oral health is a crucial part of general well-being as it has an influence on functioning capacity to eat food, communicate, interact with different people, and have a high standard of living. Although the level of dental care has increased and individuals have a greater awareness of the importance of adhering to preventative oral care, significant oral health disparities continue to exist between different demographic and socioeconomic groups in regard to the distribution of oral health services [1]. These gaps have the disproportionate effect on underserved and vulnerable populations and are frequently characterized by low income, racial or ethnic minority person, age, disability, remote location, or other unstable living or housing. To some individuals, quality dental care is not just limited; they sometimes lack it altogether [2].

The issues surrounding the oral health of the underprivileged and the impoverished groups can be understood only when their various complications are understood. These are structural, cultural and economic forms of obstructions due to the historical inequality and institutional injustices [3]. Poor dental health of the populations is caused by the lack of knowledge and care and the overall societal inability to provide a fair approach to healthcare. This failure can be evidenced by the fact that underprivileged groups have more dental caries, periodontal disease, loss of teeth and the occurrence of oral infections and cancers compared to the general population [4].

The socioeconomic determinant of oral health can be considered one of the most evident elements of this problem. Income and education are substantially linked to oral health. Individuals with low incomes are more likely to possess dental insurance policy, reside in regions that have minimal availability of dental care providers and delay or do not receive absolutely necessary dental care on account of cost [5]. The World Health Organization and various epidemiological data have concluded that children with low income households are much more likely to experience untreated dental decay. Children that live in low-income families in the United States were found to be twice as likely to develop cavities as those living in higher-income families at the ages between 5 and 19 years as stated by the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) [6].

Further, oral health disorders are more prevalent among racial and ethnic minorities. These inequalities are rooted in historical uncertainty of medical systems, language and culture barriers and unrecognized prejudices by healthcare workers on top of financial burdens. Neglect can be worsened by cultural stigmas regarding dental care or misunderstandings about its importance. Moreover, the linguistic and cultural aspects of reaching minority groups often are overlooked in dental education and awareness campaigns [7].

Another source of disparity is geographical location since there is gross inadequacy of dental specialists in the rural areas. Even in rich nations or in several regions across the globe, gaining the most basic dental treatment is a long trip when it is even available to the rural folks [8]. These problems are worsened by public transport, water with added fluorine and deficiency of health knowledge. The determination of certain neighborhoods, often characterized by low income groups, as Dental Health Professional Shortage Places (DHPSAs), especially those that are urban, illustrates geographic disparities in the provision of dental care [9].

Individuals with disabilities represent a significant yet often overlooked segment of society. Disabilities relating to physical, mental and developmental factors can greatly affect difficulty in obtaining dental care and being able to maintain proper oral hygiene [10]. There is a great lack of technology in a huge number of dental offices that would serve this group, and few dentists are properly educated to serve such patients with special needs. Moreover, oral health management of such individuals is dispersed and ineffective because of the integration of dental care and other medical treatment, which is often lacking [11].

The aged are another susceptible group, particularly lonely ones on fixed incomes or in long-term care centers. Complications of health, drugs that lead to xerostomia (dry mouth), and poor dexterity leading to an inability to practice appropriate dental care are some of the common effects of aging [12]. Dental procedures are not usually accepted as covered services under the public insurances such as Medicare in the US; even though the older an individual is, the more dental care becomes a necessity. Due to this fact, the older people often lack insurance cover of essential surgeries. Mismanagement of oral health in the group can lead to systemic health consequenc, including diabetes, cardiovascular disease, aspiration pneumonia, and inadequate nutritional intake due to chewing problems due to periodontal diseases [13].

Health disparities have serious impacts on inmates, the homeless and immigrants and refugees. The precarious housing conditions of these individuals contribute to their dental health problems because of the lack of insurance and the inaccessibility of basic medical care. Oral infections, pain among the homeless is a regular occurrence that can result in an ER visit. In these circumstances, care provided is usually palliative as opposed to curative and preventive care [14].

Evidence based, comprehensive plan is needed in ensuring the management of the oral health needs of disadvantaged and underrepresented communities. Among treatments to be adopted are

introduction of targeted health campaigns related to population, expansion of the coverage to dental care by reforming legislations, increasing investment in community health programs and incorporation of dental care in the mainstream health center [15]. Culturally sensitive care, workforce diversity and improved training on the dentists to meet special needs groups are also very important. Access can equally be increased by the community-based programmes like dentist school programme, mobile clinics and the teledentistry programme [16].

Dental health is a major health issue and cannot be underscored as a public health concern. Chronic illness and general health are related to oral diseases, which are not localized only to the mouth cavity. Accordingly, enhancement of the oral health of the disadvantaged and marginalized populations is not solely a dental concern but it is critical in human rights and fairness of health [17].

Conceptual Understanding of Vulnerability in Oral Health

To understand oral health vulnerability, a thorough analysis of the manner in which systemic, social, and economic factors interact to affect oral health outcomes is required. Rather than being just the product of personal behavior or heredity, vulnerability arises from larger systemic factors that prevent certain individuals from achieving and sustaining optimal oral health [18].

Social Determinants of Oral Health

Social determinants of health are the non-medical ones that affect health. These involve social status; the people with low incomes will likely have untreated cases of oral illness and tooth caries as they have to pay and do not have sufficient access to dental care. Education is an additional key factor because low levels of education are associated with poor oral hygiene and practices, low levels of oral health literacy, and an unawareness of preventative therapy [19]. Geographic location is also a critical determinant; people living in rural places and small towns tend to have no access to dental providers and healthcare services, and this will slow down the process of diagnosis and therapy. Ethnicity and race also play a role. Language or cultural differences, a mistrust of medical workers and an unconscious bias among providers can worsen inequities in oral health between ethnic minorities [20]. Disability status is also a factor that can affect oral conditions because patients with physical or cognitive disabilities are often underserved, experience barriers during communication and rely on the assistance of caregivers to maintain oral hygiene. Such factors interact to affect oral health behavior, diet, access to services and the lifestyle which have their effect on the risk and outcomes of the disease [21].

HEALTH INEQUITIES VS. HEALTH INEQUALITIES

There is a need to differentiate between health disparities and health inequalities. Health disparities refer to measurable differences in population groups in the distribution health characteristics or health status. As an illustration, children in rural areas had more prevalence of dental caries when compared to children in the urban areas [22]. Health inequalities however differ but are unjust, unfair and avoidable. It is unfair when children in low-income communities have poor dental

health because of not accessing community fluoridation or preventive treatments. Negligence, regulatory deficiencies and unequal resources are frequently causes in the genesis of oral health disparities, which creates a vicious cycle of deprivation [23].

Intersectionality and Compounded Vulnerabilities

The intersectionality paradigm examines the multiple ways in which various identity factors, such as poverty, gender, ethnicity, disability, and geography, interplay and add to the health risks faced by individuals as well as the life circumstances of those individuals themselves. As an example, a disabled elderly lady in a distant tribal area may experience financial dependency, poor communications, and gender ignoring in healthcare choices, physical hindrances to go to the clinic, and poor available transportation [24].

CATEGORIES OF UNDERSERVED AND VULNERABLE POPULATIONS

Low-Income Family Children

These children have a large probability of suffering early childhood caries by receiving little preventive works into the dental care and exposure to poor dietary foods. They require the caregivers to perform daily oral hygiene and in most cases they are only taken to the dentist during dental emergency cases. Poor exposure to fluoride and lack of school-based oral health program in poor regions add to how vulnerable they become [25].

Older Adults in long-Term Care

This audience also has high rates of periodontal illness, loss of teeth and xerostomia which are usually a side effect of medication. Oral health requirements are not addressed in most institutional arrangements because of the unavailability of trained care providers and oral health policies. Others are also unable to take care of their oral hygiene by themselves due to functional impairments [26].

Rural and Tribal Populations

The communities that are far-flung and have poor infrastructure have difficulty in accessing dental clinics. Limited care is also due to a lack of dental professionals and specialty services. Besides, cultural beliefs, low health literacy, and insufficient oral health education have an impact on their willingness and possibility to reach treatment [27].

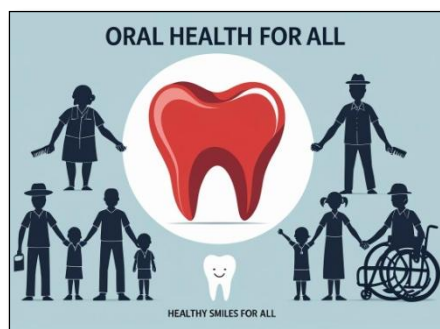


Figure 1: Illustration showing oral health for all

Migrants and Refugees

These people usually face the inconvenience of discontinuous dental care on migration status, documentation issues and instability of residence. The fear of discrimination, language barrier, and cultural differences may deter one to utilize the available services. Most of them are seen with untreated cavities, traumatic injury in the mouth, and malnutrition [28].

Homeless Individuals

The level of access to oral hygiene products and preventive dental care in the populations of homeless is minimal so the levels of infections and tooth loss as well as chronic pain are high. Oral health care tends to be neglected with the basic needs of life such as food and shelter being of first priority [29].

The Disabled

Natural or physiological (impairments that one cannot overcome; physical, sensory, or cognitive) barriers may impede access to dental care and its provision. Such a group of people is more likely to achieve poor oral hygiene and unaddressed dental problems. Some of them need special clinical settings and support of caregivers, as well as an individual plan of treatment [30].

Racial / Ethnic minorities

There might be systemic discrimination and culturally incompetent care in the context of dental care by these population groups. Their oral health outcomes are affected by dietary habits and conventional health beliefs as well as poor access to the provision of effective services. They are also lacking as the researched group on oral health and outreach programs [31].

Incarcerated Populations

Dental needs of people in prison are high and they have limited access to treatment, which are usually stop-gap services in case of an emergency. The interruption of continuous care and preventive care services by incarceration enhances oral health outcomes further [32].

People living with HIV/AIDs or Chronic Conditions

Various oral diseases which a person is more vulnerable to in presence of chronic diseases are candidiasis, ulcers, xerostomia. The stigma in the dental environments may result in care avoidance. Efficient management can be achieved by merging oral health services and systemic disease treatment management in order to make it comprehensive [33].

BURDEN OF ORAL DISEASES IN UNDERSERVED AND VULNERABLE POPULATIONS

Oral disease burden is disproportionately experienced by underserved and vulnerable populations having a set combination of biological, social, and systemic disadvantages. The oral health needs

of these populations are undiagnosed, underreported and undertreated and remain a part of the wheel of poor health and poverty [34].

Common oral diseases like dental caries are highly prevalent and are among the most common chronic diseases that affect the children and adults in the low-resource communities. High intake of sugar diets, poor fluoride exposure, and inadequate availability of the preventive services exacerbate the condition. Periodontal disease is also prevalent with inadequate oral care, lack of access to medical treatment, tobacco use and systemic diseases, such as diabetes contributing to the risk and severity of periodontal disease in more susceptible populations [35]. Tobacco use (smoked and smokeless), alcohol use, and late diagnosis increase the oral cancer rates with more disease and deaths being registered. The problem of such advanced uncured dental disease is that tooth loss can affect both functions, nutrition and appearance and this occurs especially in the elderly and in those affected by social and economic deprivation [36].

Reaching preventative and curative services is also a top issue. Most members of poor populations lack access to regular dental treatment, fluoridated water, and dental insurance and even simple teeth cleanliness. In underserved areas, a dearth of primary and preventive care services yields to intense extraction-based emergency care because of a near-complete lack of preventive care services, e.g., sealants, fluoride varnishes, oral health education [37].

Slowing of diagnosis and treatment is usual. Conditions like oral cancer or periodontal disease cannot be diagnosed until they reach the advanced stage thus chances of success of such treatments are diminished. Cost, travel, fear, and the absence of health literacy are some of the barriers which contribute to regular or no achieved dental visit. Among other things, this delay makes the overall process of treatment more complex and costly, and leads to poor prognoses as well as unnecessary suffering [38].

Inadequate oral health has severe effects on quality of life in relation to oral health. It may intervene in eating, speech and social gathering of an individual and alter daily functioning and self-esteem. The oral conditions might cause even children to have problems with concentration at school, and adults might become unemployable, or unable to even get integrated into the society. The combination of chronic pain, infection, and aesthetic issues all contribute negatively to quality of life and are particularly bracing when people are already managing other types of disadvantage [39].

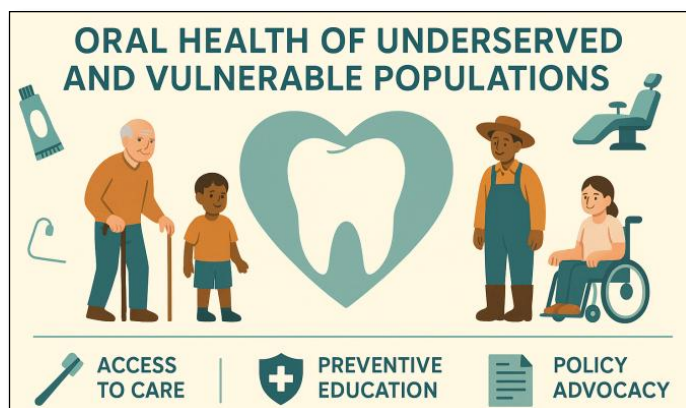


Figure 2: Illustration showing oral health for vulnerable population

BARRIERS TO ORAL HEALTH CARE

The vulnerable and underserved populations are faced with various intertwined obstacles that do not allow appropriate, affordable, and timely oral care to occur. These obstacles are based on structured, economical, cultural, and systemic aspects and play a vital role in causing oral health disparity [40].

Structural Obstacles

The challenge of geographic inaccessibility also constitutes a significant problem as most rural, tribal, and remote communities do not have dental clinics nearby. Access is also restricted by the inadequacy of providers; hence most of them are based in the urban areas. The clinic is even less accessible due to transportation, whether through public transport or individual car ownership. Lack of dental insurance, especially low income groups, limits the dentist access to even the simplest dental care [41].

Economic Barriers

Dental care is unaffordable to a large number since it is not a priority in the public sphere of health financing due to its high out-of-pocket expenditures. Unemployment and underemployment compel the individuals to focus on the basic needs including food and shelter to the exclusion of oral care. Patients are also not likely to seek treatment because of fear of losing the daily wages by spending the time visiting a clinic [42].

Barriers in Culture and Linguistics

The lack of historic care or even discrimination causes mistrust in the healthcare system among the marginalized people, which results in the avoidance of the form of dental care. Generally, low oral health literacy decreases the needs of preventative care and restricts the knowledge of the disease development. The existence of language issues, including in migrants, may prevent the quality communication between customers and clinicians [43].

Barriers in the System

Oral health systems tend to be underfunded as general health systems are concerned more with providing general medical care and neglecting the oral health field. The inequalities are contributed to by policy gaps, including lack of integrated oral health strategies, lack of incentives to expand rural practice as well as under-funded school dental programs. The inability to coordinate health care systems is also hampered by the fragmented health systems that are separated by oral health and general health care services, particularly in patients with chronic illnesses [44].

CURRENT PUBLIC HEALTH STRATEGIES AND PROGRAMS

Various additional initiatives have been introduced on a local, national, and global scale to support the oral health requirements the populations who are undeserved and those that are in need. The goal of such programs is the development of the access, preventive care, and incorporation of oral health into general health systems [45].

Government Initiatives

Integrated and comprehensive oral health services are to be provided under National Oral Health Program (NOHP -India) implemented by the Ministry of Health and Family Welfare. It dwells on preventive, promotive and curative care at the primary health care level and the activities include oral health camps, awareness, and training of healthcare workers. Ayushman Bharat - Health and Wellness Centers, initiative further integrates oral health to non-communicable disease (NCD) prevention and management with screening, counseling, and increased grassroot services of wellness centers and digital health technology [46].

School Based Dental Programs

Such programs provide preventive care such as use of fluoride varnish, dental sealants, and teaching children about oral hygiene. They are especially useful to the disadvantaged social economic groups without frequent access to dentists. The early adoption of positive health habits and thus the activities and actions of these programs lead to the overall alleviation of the burden of the oral ailments in the long run [47].

Mobile Dental Units

Mobile dental units are fully equipped with dental chairs, X-ray equipment and sterilization equipment, and traverse to remote locations, tribal populations and migrants to bring care to their places where they live. They provide preventive, diagnostic and primary curative services straight to underserved communities. They are flexible and thus useful in natural disasters, the rural environment, and also to persons facing mobility issues [48].

Participating in Agencies as Community Health Workers

Local trained health workers such as ASHA (Accredited Social Health Activist) and Anganwadi also play a wonderful role in teaching oral hygiene, educating families and case referrals. This familiarity with their culture, language, and social lives helps them to evade the trust obstacle so that they connect the rural and marginalized communities with formal health care [49].

Global Frameworks and Strategic Guidance

There is advocacy to mainstream oral health as part of primary health care and universal health coverage by global organizations like the World Health Organization (WHO). Their attention involves dealing with social factors and integrating oral health into the NCD approach. FDI World Dental Federation also helps to promote equity and culturally sensitive oral health promotion across the globe through the support of global policy development, best practice frameworks and creation and dissemination of awareness programs such as the World Oral Health Day [50].

ROLE OF DENTAL PROFESSIONALS AND PUBLIC HEALTH SYSTEMS

Empathy and Cultural Competence

Cultural competence refers to the capacity of the dental professionals to give considerate and responsive cultural regarding the beliefs, practices, and needs of the diverse patients. This necessitates empathy and sense of sensitivity towards people, especially those with marginalized backgrounds that might feel fearful, stigmatized, or traumatized regarding health care [51]. Inclusive communication training, the availability of language services, and knowledge of the

social context of the patient are the important factors to establish trust and enhance adherence to treatment [52].

The Community Based Dental Education and Outreach

These kinds of activities like school screening, mobile dental clinics, health camps, and raising awareness of oral health can help in enhancing community engagement. The involvement in the community-based participatory research helps to provide services that will be tied to the real needs of the population [53]. Dental schools ought to include service-learning models within its curriculum so that it makes the students do a rotation program in underserved or rural setting to have first hand experience [54].

Incorporation of oral health in primary care

Primary healthcare systems should incorporate oral health so that they are not set aside as standalone health services. Dentists can partner with medicine, nursing, and ally health professionals to treat the oral status that accompanies systemic diseases such as diabetes and cardiopulmonary disorders. Initial provision of basic information about oral health can be very broad through training of non-dental personnel like ASHA workers to do this [55].

Advocacy and Intersectoral Collaboration

Another significant aspect of dentists is their ability to promote policy changes, more budget, and the introduction of oral health into health insurance plans. Oral health promotion would also be effective when there is co-operation with other sectors e.g. education, water and sanitation, social justice and disability rights to resolve broader issues of social determinants. When reformers engage directly in designing oral health policy, conducting research in the area of public health, and conducting program evaluations their efforts can lead to more systemic solutions regarding the solution of disparities [56].

POLICY AND LEGISLATIVE FRAMEWORK

An effective policy and legislative framework can facilitate the eradication of oral health disparities and the provision of equitable care to the underserved and vulnerable population. Oral health should also not be viewed as only a clinical problem but as a human right and a national and global health concern. At policy level, the national and international level, there are highlighted efforts through national oral health policy like national oral health policy (India), which focus on prevention and promotive oral health service at community level [57].

This policy can be used to enhance oral health that should be integrated in the current national health missions and this policy involves activities such as awareness campaigns, mobile outreach, and school dental programs. The WHO Global Oral Health Action Plan (2023-2030) would aim at lessening the burden of oral illnesses with the help of prevention, incorporated consideration, and incorporation in Universal Health Coverage (UHC) [58]. It promotes the focus on oral health in the strategies of countries on NCD and health system. In the meantime, FDI Vision 2030: Delivering Optimal Oral Health to All advocates a people- centered, prevention, and integrated care system around the world, emphasizing the need to prioritize both workforce outcomes and digital innovation to achieve equity. Rights based approach to healthcare views oral health as a basic human right and not a privilege. This practice is driven by the non-discrimination,

accountability, participation, and transparency of delivering health services. It urges states and governments to deal with inequality based on poverty, gender, disability and minority statuses [59].

There are key implications of Universal Health Coverage (UHC), as far as oral health is concerned. UHC will make sure that everyone can access the health services that they require without incurring financial destitution [60]. Yet, the oral health is often not included in the UHC packages, but when it is, it is underfinanced. Oral health inclusion in UHC would enhance preventive care, decrease direct financial outlays, as well as guarantee the better health outcomes at a population level. In addition, it also falls with the sustainable development goal 3 (Good Health and Well-Being) [61].

It is becoming vital that more encompassing dental benefit programs exist. Comprehensive dental care, and not only the emergency care, has to feature in public insurance or government-funded programs. The Indian Ayushman Bharat program factors in routine and preventive dental services in their current health benefit plans. Dental insurance pilot programs in schools can also be considered. Benefit programs should be personalized to benefit children, the old, disabled individuals, the population in rural and far-flung areas, and those with chronic and immunocompromised conditions [62].

INNOVATIVE MODELS OF CARE DELIVERY

Creative, community-based, and technologically assisted care models are necessary to help offset the disparity between oral care services and the underserved segments of the community. These models question the traditional method of clinical delivery since they emphasize accessibility, prevention, and proper utilization of resources [63].

The newer modalities of teledentistry and mobile health (mHealth) are becoming very effective in remote and underprivileged areas. Teledentistry uses the power of digital technology to deliver distance consultations, remote diagnosis, treatment planning, and patient education. mHealth involves the use of mobile phones and apps to provide oral health advice and remind and monitor patient behavior [64]. Cases of usage of such technologies are video consultations of schoolchildren in rural locations, remote video surveillance of oral lesions through an option of community health workers with smartphone images, and virtual follow-ups in the extraction process or chronic disease management. The strategies minimize geographic and financial impediments and allow continuity of dental care in areas with no dental clinics and specialist references where necessary [65].

Scalable solutions also exist in the form of task-shifting and community dental health workers. In this model, certain preventive or education oral health activities by dentists are re-allocated to trained non-dental health providers (community health workers, school teachers, Anganwadi workers or auxiliary dental staff). These functions may also comprise the provision of oral education, simple screening and referrals, fluoride varnish application, and referral coordination [66].

Preventive-oriented approaches, such as Minimal Intervention Dentistry (MID), change the paradigm of oral disease in that surgical management of disease is replaced by preventive and conservative care. These models stress early detection, remineralization methods, and education with a focus on the patient [67]. The most central strategies include the application of atraumatic restorative techniques (ART), fluoride varnish and sealants, and behavior change along with assessments of the caries risk. Such an approach will curb the disease progression, minimise invasive procedures, and better sustain oral health over the long run with fewer resources, especially for children, geriatric patients and anxious patients [68].

RESEARCH GAPS AND FUTURE DIRECTIONS

Addressing the oral health needs of underserved and vulnerable populations requires a strong evidence base that reflects their realities. However, several research gaps remain, limiting effective policy development, program design, and healthcare delivery.

Filling the Gap in Disaggregated data

One of the greatest issues that impact oral health equity is the absence of disaggregated data. Numerous national health surveys and records fail to record any demographic details that include those for subgroups, including caste, disability status, migrant background, and incarceration history [69]. These nuances cannot be identified without such detailed data and, as such, they leave disparities in the shadows, leading to interventions that are not well targeted and underrepresentation. Making improvements in the health information systems to capture both the social determinants as well as the oral health indicators and even to make sure that the voices of the marginalized groups are represented in both the surveillance and reporting should be done as a priority [70].

Advocating Community-Engaged Research

Traditional research methodologies fail to capture the nature on how marginalized groups of people live, beliefs they have and institutionalize impediments. Community-Based Participatory Research (CBPR) would fill this gap and supports the banking of communities and communities in defining research priorities, co-designing the research to interpret research results. Such an inclusive solution increases the relevance, acceptability, and overall sustainability of oral health interventions [71].

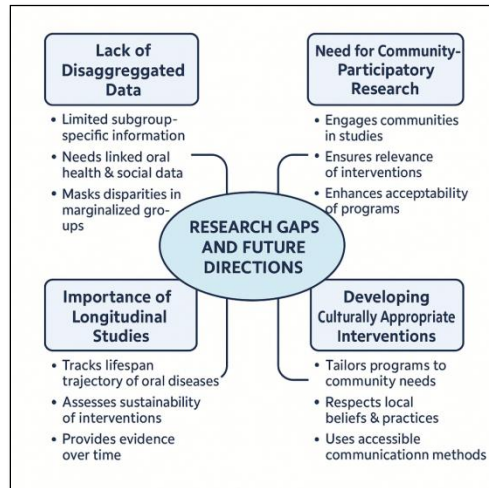


Figure 3: Infographic of Research Gaps and Future Directions

Expanding longitudinal research

Cross-sectional or short-term research gives limited frames of snapshots of oral health patterns. Longitudinal research, however, allows following the course of oral diseases and can be used to determine the measures of the long-term effectiveness of the intervention throughout the life span. It is also possible to have more in-depth details on the influence of behavioral factors, environmental factors and systemic factors among others, and the sustainability of the public health models with time [72].

Culturally Appropriate Interventions Design

Generic, one-program-fits-all oral health programs are likely to fail if they ignore the needs of various communities. Effective programs should be both language- and culture-specific and geared toward local standards. This includes utilizing traditional health beliefs and practices in program design, involving community leaders in the outreach, and reaching out through the use of visual, oral, or folk media in contexts of low literacy level [73].

CONCLUSION

Oral health vulnerability is minutely associated with social, economic, cultural, and systemic determinants. The number of marginal groups it impacts is very broad, including children living in poverty, elderly residents of care homes, migrants, ethnic minorities and individuals with disabilities. These disparate groups need a comprehensive approach to ensure their oral health is improved; this should comprise systemic change, community-based active outreach, novel service

delivery forms, and culturally competent care. Oral health should be accepted as an intrinsic human right and should be inclusive in universal health coverage and become one of the national and global health priorities. However, the task of developing an inclusive and equitable oral health environment needs to be done by dental professionals, public health systems, researchers, policymakers, and communities. We can and must work together and be culturally competent in all aspects to optimize oral health and well-being of everyone including geography, income, identity, and ability.

ADVANCED REGENERATIVE STRATEGIES & MATERIAL SCIENCE

Dr. P. Nihar, Dr. Vibha Samrit, Dr. Shweta Sharma, Dr. Ajimol Theresa Jose

INTRODUCTION

Dentistry is a discipline that has been transformed over the past few decades where it has shifted in recent times more to a science that is less biological than before. The inherent contribution of the innovative regeneration strategies and material science solutions has been significant to accelerate the evolution into the basis of the new techniques in therapy. Due to the increasingly greater demands on oral surgeries, especially in the field of implantology, periodontal surgery, maxillofacial reconstruction and the treatment of traumas, which refer more and more to the functional and esthetic reconstruction of teeth or patients, those requirements work on techniques that must be capable of repairing and not merely restoring native tissues [1]. It is also possible to utilize such developments to not only restore structure but also biological functionality, and the development of regenerative oral surgery has now become a most exciting and promising area within the scope of modern dental medicine [2].

The nature of its restorative surgery, oral regenerative surgery is open surgery in the field of dentistry and its aim is the recreation of oral and maxillofacial functions and structures, the alveolar bone, the periodontal ligaments, gingival tissues as well as the oral mucosa must be recreated. Conventional surgical practice focused on autogenous grafting and guided tissue regeneration (GTR), although this approach is burdened by the issue of donor site morbidity, limited availability of graft material and limitations in long-term outcome prediction [3]. In contrast, new regenerative strategies are focused on mimicking the complexity of the native tissue in a tissue-like format that is equally both biologically inspired and patient-specific in solutions. These strategies employ the philosophies of developmental biology, tissue engineering and signalling pathways to fill the void of the regeneration process by orienting a specific cellular response towards regenerating the tissue by natural remodeling of the local environment [4].

The pillars of the regenerative surgery and scaffolds, cells and signaling molecules have all received a boost in the advancement of material science. In the last decade biomaterials initially passively as inert supports have been surmounted and with active participation in tissue repair has been made possible by engineering. The advanced scaffolds have now developed an ability to regulate release of bioactive molecules and host stem cell attraction as well as coping with the change in the physiological conditions [5]. Examples include bioresorbable nanofiber scaffold of extracellular matrix (ECM) templates, osteoinductivity, and hydrogel systems, all with controlled rates of degradation, and have calcium-phosphate-based bio-ceramics. The development of 3D bioprinting and additive manufacturing techniques has allowed creating patient specific scaffold thus adding reliability and efficiency to the regeneration procedures [6].

Biologically, stem cells, growth factors and the gene therapy have taken center stage in the reshaping of the face of regeneration. The dental and in general the MSCs possess multilineage potential and immunomodulatory properties with intraoral applications being the ideal condition [7]. Autologous PRF and derivatives have emerged as angiogenesis stimulating, collagen synthesizing and cell proliferating bioactive matrices as well. Meanwhile, recombinant growth factors, such as bone morphogenetic proteins (BMPs), fibroblast growth factors (FGFs) and vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF) have introduced novelties in obtaining credible bone regeneration along with soft tissue regeneration [8].

Nanotechnology has been revolutionary in regards to using it in the design of material. The relevance of the nanostructured surfaces of implants membranes and of grafting materials affects the adsorption of proteins, adhesion and differentiation of cells. As an example, nanotopography of implant titanium surfaces can enhance integration of bones due to stimulation of the activity of osteoblasts and inhibition of the colonisation of bacteria. There is also a new frontier; with smart materials-smart pH responsive hydrogels, piezoelectric polymers, antibacterial coatings-not merely materials that help heal the body, but directly shape the healing process [9].

The methods of site preservation using bioactive substances applied in the branch of implantology can be helpful, as the modes of implant success were the long-term use of biomaterials, which provide high volume and quality of bone [10]. In periodontal surgery, regenerative approaches are relevant to reconstruct the complex periodontal structure by relying on biologically dynamic membranes and cell-populated scaffolds. Similarly, tissue-engineered constructs alternative to traditional autologous bone grafting, potential reduced morbidity to patients, and the promise to reconstruct diffuse three dimensional defects on a routine basis in maxillofacial trauma and oncologic reconstruction [11].

The advances are still faced with huge hurdles. The challenges are multifactorial due to the heterogeneity and hardly predictable behavior of oral tissues, high microbial burden in the oral milieu, and other poor health markers of individuals, including smoking, the complexity of health care as a system, personal oral health, etc [12]. More importantly, the growth of the stem cells and gene therapy, in medical establishments, occurs with regulatory issues when it comes to the applicability of the therapy as well as the cost aspect and the logistics. The aspect of morals is also a consideration and this is even more so as far as ethic considerations on application of embryonic stem cells or even the genetic engineered organisms [13].

Future trends would involve the introduction of the multidisciplinary approach with clinicians, material scientists, molecular biologist and bioengineers to overcome such downfall. It is worth emphasizing that the design of modular and flexible therapeutic platforms that are inexpensive, scalable and comfortable to the biology should be developed [14]. The combination of genomic profiling and the application of AI in regenerative planning would help regenerative interventions to become more predictable and personalized with the application of personalized medicine. In addition, the development of good clinical trials with significant years of research are necessary in order to come up with evidence based procedures that would be utilized in making choices under different clinical contexts [15].

In summary, the regenerative methodologies coupled with the recent material science are rendering to the oral surgery a new era. These range of treatment may not only restore oral tissues to a

structural level but also finally to a functional and an aesthetic level, as smartness of biological nature combines with the genius of engineering ingenuity [16].

FUNDAMENTALS OF REGENERATION IN ENDODONTICS

Endodontics, a branch of dentistry that focuses on the diagnosis and treatment of diseases and injuries of the dental pulp and surrounding tissues, often involves the regeneration of tissues that have been compromised due to infection or trauma. A solid understanding of the biological principles that govern tissue regeneration is crucial for effectively implementing regenerative treatments in the pulp-dentin complex and surrounding tissues [17].

Wound Healing: Regeneration vs Repair in Endodontics

Wound healing in endodontics is a dynamic, multistep process, significantly influenced by the environment within the root canal and the surrounding periodontal tissues. In clinical endodontics, achieving true tissue regeneration over repair is the goal, especially in procedures such as pulpal regeneration, apical periodontitis treatment, and the management of periapical defects. These processes occur via two main mechanisms:

Repair

Repair in endodontics refers to the restoration of the tissue's structural continuity without returning it to its original function. This typically results in the formation of scar tissue, such as the healing of periapical lesions without restoring the original pulp or dentin structure [18].

Regeneration

Regeneration in endodontics is the complete restoration of the original tissue structure and function, ideally involving the restoration of the dental pulp, dentin, and supporting tissues. True regenerative procedures aim to replace the damaged pulp with a functional pulp-like tissue capable of sustaining the vitality of the tooth [19].

Osteogenesis, Osteoinduction, and Osteoconduction in Endodontics

The principles of osteogenesis, osteoinduction, and osteoconduction also apply to endodontic regeneration, particularly when bone involvement, such as periapical lesions or cysts, is present. Understanding these principles helps in selecting the right regenerative materials and techniques.

Osteogenesis

Osteogenesis refers to the formation of new bone through osteoblasts derived from either the graft material or surrounding tissue. This process is especially relevant in cases involving periapical bone defects [20].

Osteoinduction

Osteoinduction involves the stimulation of undifferentiated mesenchymal cells to become osteoblasts, which form new bone. In endodontics, this process can be facilitated by bioactive molecules such as Bone Morphogenetic Proteins (BMPs), which play a significant role in regenerating periapical bone tissue and supporting the vitality of the tooth [21].

Osteoconduction

Osteoconduction is the ability of a scaffold to support new bone growth by providing a structural framework. In endodontics, osteoconductive materials like hydroxyapatite and tricalcium phosphate are often used to fill bone defects, allowing for the infiltration of cells and blood vessels from surrounding tissues [21].

The Regenerative Triad in Endodontics

Successful tissue regeneration in endodontics depends on the synergistic interaction of three key elements:

Cells

Stem cells derived from the dental pulp and periodontal ligament are central to regenerative therapies in endodontics. These cells have the ability to differentiate into various cell types, which is critical for the repair and regeneration of dental tissues. They can generate odontoblast-like cells for dentin formation, endothelial cells for angiogenesis, and fibroblasts for soft tissue healing [22].

Scaffolds

Scaffolds in endodontic regeneration provide the necessary structural support for new tissue growth. These can be derived from natural sources, such as collagen or decellularized matrices, or from synthetic materials like polylactic acid (PLA) and hydroxyapatite. Scaffolds should be biocompatible, have an appropriate degradation rate, and be porous enough to allow for cellular infiltration and angiogenesis [23].

Signaling Molecules

Growth factors such as BMPs, Vascular Endothelial Growth Factor (VEGF), and Platelet-Derived Growth Factor (PDGF) are crucial in regulating the cellular responses required for regeneration in endodontics. These signaling molecules help control cell migration, proliferation, differentiation, and the production of extracellular matrix, all of which contribute to creating a healthy regenerative environment for the pulp and surrounding tissues [24].

Incorporating these elements into regenerative endodontic procedures allows for the potential to restore not only the structural integrity but also the functional capacity of damaged teeth, contributing to long-term dental health.

BIOMATERIALS IN ORAL SURGERY

Application of biomaterials has transformed the science of oral and maxillofacial surgery by realizing reconstruction, regenerative and functional reconstruction of both the hard and soft tissues. The choice of proper biomaterials is determined by their source, their degradation pattern, mechanical, and biological performance [25].

Classification of Biomaterials

Natural vs Synthetic Biomaterials

Natural biomaterials can be termed as xenogenic, allogenic or autogenic. Typical examples are collagen, chitosan, alginate and gelatin. They can be employed due to the value of their biological compatibility and bioactivity, attachment of cells and thus regenerative and biomedical application. Nevertheless, they do have some limitations that include their mechanical strength, which may vary and may be prone to immune reactivity [26].

Synthetic biomaterials are man-made specifically designed with the biomedical in mind since they can be tested in their composition and properties, which can be tailored toward the clinical requirements. Well known are hydroxyapatite (HA), 2-tricalcium phosphate (2-TCP), polylactic acid (PLA), polyglycolic acid (PGA), and polyetheretherketone (PEEK). Bioresorbable materials are appreciated in their low infection risk, as well as the possibility to modify them in order to adapt their mechanical and chemical properties. Nevertheless, they also have limited bioactivity of their own and in most cases may not be easily incorporated long term in native tissues [27].

Biodegradable vs Non-Biodegradable Biomaterials

The biodegradable materials gradually get reabsorbed and replaced with the native tissue thereby helping in regenerative processes. Typical examples are resorbable membrane and bone replacement (i.e. Beta tricalcium phosphate, beta-TCP). Their key strength is that they minimize the number of procedures required to remove them, thus contributing to less patient discomfort and clinical sequelae. Nonetheless, obtaining a rate of resorption that coincides with that of production of new tissues is essential to achieve optimal healing and functional integration [28].

Non-biodegradable materials e.g. titanium mesh and PTFE membranes are left in the body indefinitely or must be removed by a surgical intervention even after performing their useful role. The strength and working conditions of these materials offer mechanical stability and long-term structural support, and hence they are useful to maintain space to enable tissue regeneration. Nevertheless, they also have certain risks to their use, infection and exposure of the membranes being the most common of them and deteriorate the process of healing and lead to the further clinical intervention [29].

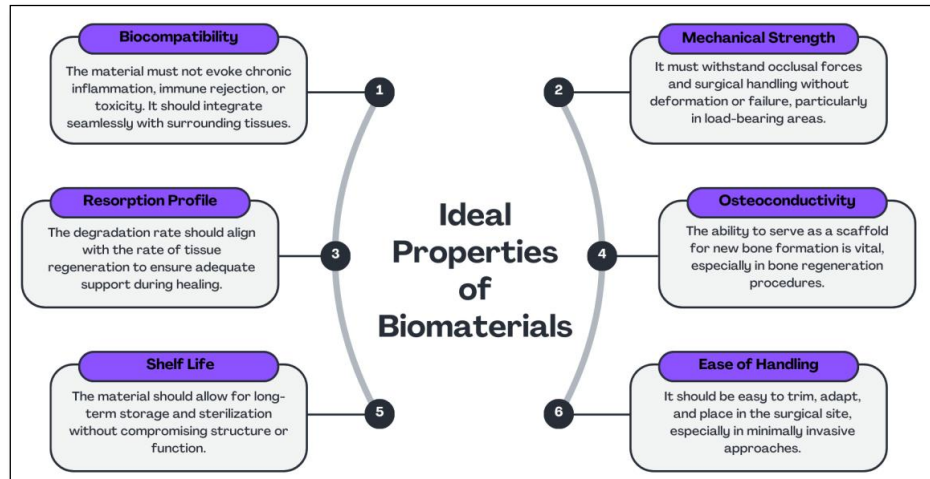


Figure 1: Ideal Properties of Biomaterials

COMMONLY USED BIOMATERIALS IN ORAL SURGERY

Collagen

Collagen is natural protein derived in Biovine or Bioporc. It finds it an excellent use as hemostatic agent during oral surgery, an addition to barrier membranes and soft tissue graft substitute. Its strongest features include extreme biocompatibility, resorbability, and angiogenic, and cell migration capabilities with optimum characteristics to resolve wound healing and tissue regeneration. However, collagen is limited in the mechanical strength and carries the potential risk of antigenicity that is likely to limit its use in some patients [30].

Hydroxyapatite (HA)

Hydroxyapatite is a ceramic which can be synthetically made or can be harvested from natural bone. It is used extensively in the filling of bones and coating of dental implants. The outstanding features are the osteoconductive property and the similarity in chemical composition with natural bone that helps in the deeper anchoring of the host tissues. Yet HA resorbs slowly and is brittle and therefore not suitable in a dynamic or a highly loaded area [31].

Beta-Tricalcium Phosphate

Beta-tricalcium phosphate a synthetic calcium phosphate ceramic usually applied in bone grafts (in extraction sockets, internal sinus lifts, and around peri-implant defects). It is bioactive and resorbable and the porous nature helps it achieve tissue ingrowth. Besides these advantages it is

known that β -TCP is too weak-mechanically and is resorbed too fast to be used as standalone material, however it has been claimed that its mechanical strength can be improved by mixing with other, e.g. stable-resorbing, materials [32].

Bioactive Glass

Bioglass is a silicate material with phosphate and calcium components making the material applicable in periodontal defects and ridge prevention. It is being valued in its strong osteostimulation effects and in its natural anti bacteriostatic outcomes, which assist in blocking infection. However, like other ceramics, it is easily broken, and thus it cannot be used elsewhere where mechanical stress or load bearing takes effect [33].

Titanium

The metallic element, titanium, is one of the common and widespread used material in oral surgery, including dental implants, dental fixation plates, titanium meshes in guided bone regeneration (GBR). It presents an excellent biocompatibility, good mechanic characteristics, and important characteristics that can be exploited in the osseointegration process. Despite its strength, titanium is non-resorbable and its exposure to the oral environment can present additional risk of the infection. Also its radiopaque character can interfere with some of the imaging modes [34].

Polyetheretherketone (PEEK)

PEEK is an excellent thermoplastic polymer used in surgical implants as implant abutments, craniofacial implants and customized surgical guides. The main strengths of it are high mechanical performance, radiolucency, and the ability to be customized by CAD-CAM. The problem with PEEK however is that it inherently is bio inert and may require a change in surface characteristics to be more bio inertable, and long term clinical data on its use in oral surgery is still lacking [35].

Polymers (Nanoplastics PLA, PGA)

Polyglycolic acid (PGA) and polylactic acid (PLA) are man-made aliphatic resorbable polyesters and are used in resorbable sutures, membranes, and scaffolds. They are equally stable in their rates of resorption, and they can tolerate different values according to clinical need. Nevertheless, the fact that they can produce acid-by-products during degradation is likely to make the surrounding site pH lower due to which it may limit the healing and tissue response within the surgical area [36].

Guided Bone Regeneration (GBR)

The Guided Bone Regeneration is a procedure where the barrier membranes are used in the promotion of favorable repopulation of exposed bone defects in the presence of osteogenic cells without the ingrowth of undesired soft tissues.

MEMBRANES: NON-RESORBABLE VS RESORBABLE

It is common to find resorbable materials; which include collagen, polylactic acid (PLA) and polyglycolic acid (PGA) because they are bio compatible and ensure there is tissue incorporation without a second surgery. These materials are slowly depleted in the patient body, eliminating patient pain and enhancing healing process. However, they can be restricted by unpredictable rates of resorption and lack of mechanical strength relative to alternatives (mainly non-resorbable), which can potentially reduce long- term stability in some clinical cases [37].

Expanded PTFE (ePTFE) and dense PTFE (dPTFE) membranes and titanium-reinforced meshes are non-resorbable membranes that can be widely used in regenerative procedures because of their superior space maintenance and high mechanical strength. They offer an anchorage where tissue regeneration is optimally stable and have advantages of inhibiting the contraction of the soft tissue into the defect area. Nonetheless, their application is linked to some of the disadvantages such as the second surgical procedure to remove them and the increased possibility of an exposed membrane that can play a deterring role in the healing process [38].

Principles and Techniques

The exclusion of cells is important to ensure the soft tissue cells cannot infiltrate the defect location hence ensuring that only the osteogenic cells are involved in the regeneration. Space maintenance is also very crucial, since the membrane has to maintain isolated ambiance favoring the development of new bone. To reduce micromovement that may impair healing, both the graft and the membrane must be stabilized. Lastly, the aim of the surgical procedure is the primary closure with a flap having no tension because of protecting the risk of the surgical area of an infection, and the regenerative outcomes improvement [39].

Clinical Uses

- Alveolar ridge augmentation
- Dehiscence or fenestration defects around implants
- Post-extraction socket preservation

BONE GRAFTS AND SUBSTITUTES

Bone grafting materials can be characterized into three categories, which includes nonautologous, biologically used materials, depending on the source and pathophysiology of action (osteogenesis,

osteinduction, osteoconduction). A perfect graft is a scaffold, bone attraction, and it should also have osteogenic cells.

Autograft (Autogenous Bone)

Autografts refer to bone grafts that have been harvested in the patient with the use of healthy bone tissue, which is more frequently than not harvested at the mandibular symphysis or iliac crest. These grafts constitute the gold standard in bone regeneration since they are osteogenic, osteoinductive and osteoconductive in nature. However, the number of limitations associated with autografts is also very high, but nevertheless, they are more superior regarding their biological foundation. Adding to the time required and complicating the risk of donor site morbidity, the necessity of maintaining a second surgical site often allows only as much bone as can be harvested [40].

Allografts

Allografts, the most frequently used human allografts are freeze-dried bone allograft (FDBA) or demineralized freeze-dried bone allograft (DFDBA), usually derived through the cadaver bone. The first strongest merit of such grafts is that they are easily accessible, and one does not have to go through surgery when seeking a donor site; therefore, it is not so invasive. Specifically, DFDBA possesses certain osteoinductive action as it also freezes certain bone morphogenetic proteins. Furthermore, the grafts may vary in their biological activity depending on the method of processing their preparations and uniqueness of a donor [41].

Xenografts

Xenografts are bone grafts derived from animals that typically are either bovine or porcine. The most widely used one is deproteinized bovine bone mineral, e.g. Bio-Oss. These grafts provide excellent osteoconductive scaffold wherein bone grows and their resorption has been slow; therefore, it is used to maintain space. However, xenografts lack viable cells, and exhibit no osteoinductivity in contrast to the autografts. In addition, their usage may bring about ethical, cultural or religious challenges to some patients in relation to the source animal and personal belief [42].

Artificial replacements (alloplasts)

Alloplasts represent synthetic artificial bone materials which are fabricated to possess the same structure as a natural bone. Some of the commonly used materials are hydroxyapatite and beta-tricalcium phosphate (Beta) TCP (beta-Tricalcium Phosphate), and bioactive glass. The grafts are advantageous due to their safety level since there is no threat of transmission of a disease and they are customizable, depending on porosity and degradation rate. However, many alloplastic possess the characteristic of being unable to promote bone formation (i.e. bioinert), and they are more likely to exhibit inferior integration compared to biologically derived grafts. Therefore, they could be employed more optimally in certain clinically related outputs into which they could be

implicated in the requirements of mechanical integrity without the enhancement of biological stimulations [43].

Growth Factors and Biologics

Biologics maximize bone-healing by inculcating cellular activity to encompass differentiation, cellular migration, and angiogenesis. They represent a successful step in participation in regenerative processes in oral surgery.

Platelet-rich fibrin (PRF)

The second-generation concentrates is a Platelet-Rich Fibrin (PRF), the platelets fused with platelets and leukocytes, and cytokines in fibrin. It is a biologically active scaffold and plays a critical role in angiogenesis, wound healing regeneration, and maturation of the soft tissues. One of the most significant advantages of PRF is the possibility to induce self-healing without anticoagulants and supplements. Its application however has a drawback as it does not offer a great deal when it comes to the mechanical support, it can not be used as a stand alone material in grafting [44].

Platelet- rich- plasma (PRP)

Platelet-Rich Plasma (PRP) is a first-generation concentrate that IS significantly rich in growth factors and contains Platelet-Derived Growth Factor (PDGF), Transforming Growth Factor-beta (TGF-b) and Vascular Endothelial Growth Factor (VEGF). These are pivotal in stimulating the tissues regeneration when graft materials are used together with the use of PRP to promote healing. Despite its potential in therapy, PRP must be supplemented with anticoagulants during the preparation and the release of the growth factors [45].

Bone Morphogenetic Proteins (BMPs)

Bond morphogenetic proteins (BMPs) specifically the BMP-2 and BMP-7 possess a strong osteoinductive property and can be used in regenerative medicine. Such proteins may induce growth of new bone because they initiate differentiation of the mesenchymal cells into osteoblasts. The clinical use of BMPs is most frequently found in the sinus lift procedure and large bone defect repair processes and spinal fusion procedures. There are however disadvantages to their use in that it is expensive and it has the risk of unwanted side effects such as inflammatory reaction as well as ectopic bone formation [46].

Enamel Matrix Derivative (EMD)

Enamel Matrix Derivative (EMD) is a biologic product comprised of pigs tooth germ proteins. This is achieved through induction of cementoblasts, osteoblasts and periodontal ligament cells which comprise major agents involved in the renewal process of periodontal tissues. Major uses of EMD include the treatment of periodontal flaws and EMD has been reported to effectively

stabilize cementum, alveolar bones and periodontal ligament regeneration. However, it has limited application and can be utilized on a periodontal level, and not large bone defects [47].

Application	Preferred Strategies	Limitations
Alveolar ridge preservation	Xenograft + collagen membrane	Slow resorption; potential exposure
Sinus augmentation	β -TCP, PRF, autograft mix	Sinus membrane perforation risk
Peri-implant defects	GBR with alloplast + membrane	Membrane stabilization issues
Periodontal intrabony defects	EMD, PRF, DFDBA	Technique-sensitive; variable results
Segmental bone defects	BMPs + scaffold	Cost, regulatory approval, unpredictable outcomes

Table 1: Applications of Growth Factors

STEM CELL-BASED THERAPIES IN ORAL SURGERY

One of these advancing fields in regenerative medicine in oral medicine is stem cell therapy. Through the self-renewal and multipotent differentiation ability of mesenchymal stem cells (MSCs), clinicians have the hope to handle complex craniofacial defects, regenerate bone and periodontal tissues and even regenerate pulp-dentin complex [48].

Mesenchymal Stem Cells (MSCs): Sources Relevant to Oral Surgery

MSCs can differentiate into osteoblasts, chondrocytes, adipocytes, and fibroblasts making them ideal for both hard and soft tissue regeneration. Multiple oral and extraoral sources of MSCs have been identified [49]:

MSC Type	Source	Tissue Regeneration Potential	Advantages
DPSC (Dental Pulp Stem Cells)	Pulp tissue of permanent or deciduous teeth	Dentin-pulp complex, bone, neural tissue	Easy access, high proliferation
PDLSC (Periodontal Ligament Stem Cells)	Periodontal ligament of extracted teeth	Cementum, periodontal ligament, alveolar bone	High potential for periodontal regeneration
SCAP (Stem Cells from Apical Papilla)	Immature root apex of developing teeth	Root dentin, pulp regeneration	Immature cells, highly proliferative
BMSC (Bone Marrow-derived MSCs)	Iliac crest, tibia, mandible	Bone, cartilage	Gold standard for bone regeneration
GMSC (Gingival MSCs)	Gingival connective tissue	Soft tissue repair, immunomodulation	Minimally invasive harvest
ADSC (Adipose-derived MSCs)	Buccal fat pad, subcutaneous fat	Bone, cartilage, soft tissue	Abundant, easy harvest, immunomodulatory

Table 2: Sources of Mesenchymal Stem Cells

Techniques for Harvesting and Transplantation

Harvesting

Mesenchymal stem cells (MSCs) have different sources and the method of harvest varies. Tooth-derived MSCs are relatively non-invasive and readily available source, especially when performing dental work, because they can be isolated under sterile conditions following extraction or naturally exfoliated teeth. Bone marrow is aspirated usually off the iliac crest, and the centrifugation process results in the stem cells being isolated in bone marrow aspiration [50]. Even though this can be a good method, it is more invasive. Another common method is the extraction of fat tissue using liposuction from adipose tissue. It is followed by enzymatic digestion and filtering to get MSCs. The other possible source of stem cell, which can be used to restore the cells, is adipose- derived stem cells and they are abundant and usually quite simple to obtain [51].

Processing and Exportation

After harvesting, stem cells are subjected to an isolation and expansion procedure that carries out very stringent in vitro conditions to preserve the viability and multipotency of the cells. The cells can be grown as monolayer in conventional flasks or into three-dimensional (3D) scaffold like hydrogel or collagen matrix to better resemble a natural extracellular micro-environment. These scaffolds are supportive both mechanically and also add cell-cell communication leading to high successful tissue regeneration. It is the application that will determine which culture technique will be used, as well as the desired pathway to differentiation [52].

Transplantation Techniques

MSC transplantation consists of various methods that can be used to transplant the cells in a target tissue. One method is the direct injection in which stem cells in most cases along with bioactive growth factors are injected directly into the defect area. Such an approach is straightforward and can provide minimal control of cell distribution and retention. A second approach is scaffold based delivery, whereby MSCs are adherent to the biodegradable scaffolds that provide three dimensional tissue growth and lead to strengthened structural coupling [53]. The most sophisticated method is the use of tissue engineering constructs whereby MSCs in the form of complex with biomaterials and bioactive molecules are formed to achieve a highly specific regenerative environment. As another example, in the case of alveolar bone regeneration the dental pulp stem cells (DPSCs) incorporated on hydroxyapatite scaffolds have shown an encouraging socket preservation complying with the promising clinical potential of the demonstrated system [54].

Clinical Trials and Translational Challenges

Current Clinical Applications

Periodontal regeneration has been extensively explored through clinical trials utilizing periodontal ligament stem cells (PDLSCs), which show promising potential in restoring lost periodontal structures. Similarly, alveolar bone augmentation strategies have advanced with bone marrow–derived mesenchymal stem cell (BMSC) based studies, demonstrating enhanced bone formation and integration [55]. In the field of endodontics, pulp regeneration protocols incorporating dental pulp stem cells (DPSCs) combined with biocompatible scaffolds in revascularization approaches have yielded encouraging outcomes, highlighting the regenerative potential of stem cell based therapies across various dental applications [56].

Ongoing Clinical Trials

Phase I and II clinical trials have been conducted to evaluate the safety and efficacy of regenerative approaches in treating bone and periodontal defects. These studies explore innovative strategies such as stem-cell loaded membranes that enhance guided tissue regeneration, injectable mesenchymal stem cells (MSCs) that promote site-specific healing and tissue formation, and bioengineered roots designed to mimic natural tooth structures and restore function. Collectively, these early-phase trials highlight the promising potential of stem cell–based and bioengineered therapies in advancing periodontal and bone regeneration [57].



Figure 2: Translational Challenges

GENE THERAPY AND MOLECULAR APPROACHES IN ORAL SURGERY

Gene therapy is a novel frontier in regenerative oral surgery because it can more precisely control cellular activities, enhance tissue repair, and can overcome the shortcomings of simple grafting

and use biologics. Such a plan suggests placing specific Genetics in host cells to augment regenerative paths or minimize inhibition factors [58].

Gene Delivery Systems

A successful gene therapy system must ensure efficient transfection, target specificity, controlled expression, and minimal cytotoxicity. Delivery systems are categorized into viral and non-viral vectors [59]:

Type	Features	Advantages	Limitations
Adenoviruses	Transient gene expression, high transduction efficiency	Suitable for hard tissues like bone	Immunogenic, transient effect
Lentiviruses	Integrate into host genome, long-term expression	Effective for stable tissue regeneration	Risk of insertional mutagenesis
Adeno-associated viruses (AAVs)	Non-pathogenic, low immunogenicity	Safe and efficient delivery	Limited gene payload

Table 3: Viral Vectors

Non-Viral Vectors

The non-viral gene delivery systems that include plasmid DNA, liposomes, polymeric nanoparticles, hydrogels, and electroporation-based delivery platforms have a variety of advantages such as enhanced safety, simplification of the production steps, and the elimination of the certain risks that come with the viral genome integration. Yet, they cannot be applied clinically as easily because they have relatively less transfection efficiency and do not provide sustained gene expression, like the viral vectors [60]. Very recent developments are overcoming these limitations by incorporating CRISPR-Cas9 gene editing and RNA-based therapies, including siRNA and miRNA delivery to determinately and targeted enhance gene expression within oral tissues in which siRNA and miRNA delivery options are optimizing the therapeutic potential of such non-viral therapies [61].

Genes Involved in Osteogenesis and Angiogenesis

The regenerative process in oral and maxillofacial tissues requires coordination of osteogenic differentiation and angiogenesis. Target genes are selected based on their ability to upregulate these pathways [62].

Gene	Function
------	----------

BMP-2, BMP-7	Induce osteoblast differentiation; key regulators of bone formation
RUNX2	Master transcription factor for osteogenic lineage commitment
Osterix (SP7)	Promotes maturation of pre-osteoblasts
VEGF-A (indirectly related)	Enhances osteogenesis via improved blood supply

Table 4: Genes for Osteogenesis

Gene	Function
VEGF (Vascular Endothelial Growth Factor)	Stimulates endothelial cell proliferation and migration
FGF-2 (Fibroblast Growth Factor-2)	Promotes angiogenesis and soft tissue regeneration
ANGPT1 (Angiopoietin-1)	Stabilizes newly formed blood vessels
HIF-1α (Hypoxia-Inducible Factor 1-alpha)	Activates angiogenesis under hypoxic conditions

Table 5: Genes for Angiogenesis

Combined Gene Delivery

The dual gene-based expression of BMP-2 and VEGF was superior in terms of alveolar grafting and regeneration of periodontium because it may positively influence the regeneration of periodontal diseases because of osteoinduction and angiogenesis. These effects are further optimized through the development of intelligent scaffolds that have been developed to actively liberate gene vectors to tissue in a spatio-temporal manner, resulting in the controlled and sequential delivery of growth factors as natural healing as possible [63].

Smart and Responsive Materials in Oral Surgery

Intelligent responsive materials are the definition of paradigm in oral surgery; as emerging domains of study in bio materials they are attempting to cause the biological environment within which the material is embedded to intermingle with it. Unlike passive scaffolds, such materials are stimuli-sensitive e.g. responding to pH, temperature, enzymes, or inflammation markers etc. They offer certain functions, e.g., withheld drug conveyance, self-healing, and dynamic, which happened in real-time, hence, amplify the post-dissected outcome and reduce complications [64].

Stimuli-Responsive Materials: Mechanism and Triggers

The Smart materials demonstrate the change of their physical, chemical or biological behaviour as the response to the environmental stimuli:

PH-Responsive materials

PH responsive materials are designed such that they can respond to the environment of local pH changes, in particular the acidic environment that is usual at sites of inflammation or infection. The lower PH causes these materials to swell or become a wreck hence enabling the controlled and specific therapies reacts [65]. When incorporated into a clinical application, such as infection control an antimicrobial agent may only be released when and where there is need, in the form of periodontal pockets/surgical wounds where infection is occurring. They also come as resorbable dressings that have a quicker reaction time to hot areas thereby transferring healing agents into the damaged tissues promoting a much quicker and local recovery [66].

Temperature-Responsive Materials

The temperature-sensitive elements respond to the circulation of the body temperature that rises and drops to an average of 37C. One of the most common transformations, sol-gel transition, makes these materials well-suited as minimally invasive applications. As an example, thermoresponsive injectable hydrogel will be formulated so that when injected into the body as liquids they cross-link and form a stable scaffold or drug reservoir on contact [67]. The smart scaffolds may be used as wound sealing and drug delivery system where the therapeutics are deposited in the target site and released in the body system over a time-span once the presence is exposed to the natural body temperature through the same materials [68].

Enzyme- Sensitive or Inflammation-Sensitive Materials

These biomaterials will subsequently be selectively trained to interact with biological triggers that can be related to inflammation or tissue remodeling e.g. enzymes such as e.g. matrix metalloproteinases (MMPs) or even cytokines such as interleukin-1 beta (IL-1b). When these cues are detected the materials may self degrade or cause the release of therapeutic agents in a site specific fashion [69]. Such directed response means that treatment localization process is restricted to the localized area where a problem being treated is found and enables the treatment to become more specific and side effects to reduce. Specifically, the materials are advantageous in a setting where therapeutic scaffold degradation is necessary to stimulate tissue [70].

Self-Healing and Drug-Releasing Materials

Such materials can be self-healing after experiencing minor damage and can controlled or stimuli-responsively release bioactive molecules.

Self-Healing Materials

Self-healing polymers and hydrogels are modelled on a similar healing process in the human body, which self-heals when damaged by microcrack or pressure. They depend on mechanisms like reversible cross-linking, hydrogen bonding or lay in alloys that include microcapsules that can relieve healing solutions when attacked. It is the potential of the vast majority of these new materials to the field of oral surgery; to offer coatings to implants, scaffolds that can resist the mechanical loading present in an oral environment, and wound dressings that not only can maintain a barrier function, but can also promote the most desirable healing process [71].

Controlled Drug Delivery Systems (CDDS)

New oral surgery functions of innovative bio-materials are becoming increasingly developed; these functions are designed to interact with a particular physiological response in order to be precise or focusing and therefore possess a very specific action in therapy. Antibiotics contained in PH-sensitive hydrogel have the ability to target infection site in an acidic microenvironment at the targeted site. The response to activity rendered due to nano loaded membranes responds to enzyme activity, or characterizes an inflammation and secretion in a controlled manner. The uses of such shape-memory polymers that respond to the change in temperature to release drugs in a particular order depending on the different stages of the curing, improve the general treatment rate [72].

Role in Post-Surgical Care and Infection Control

Post-Surgical Applications

Smart oral surgery sutures will respond to signals in the body such as pH levels or temperature changes and can be programmed to either deliver analgesics or growth factors to the site of surgery to maximize healing and enhance comfort. A similar consideration could be applied to the presence of resorbable membranes involved in guided bone regeneration (GBR) procedures, which could be programmed to detect local inflammation of tissues being treated and in turn produce bioactive molecules (e.g. bone morphogenetic proteins (BMPs), components of platelet-rich fibrin (PRF)) and hence facilitate desired tissue regeneration. Smart hemostatic dressings are also helping the post-operative process as they release ingredients or they stimulate the skin wound to seal together in event of active bleeding, hence support surgery results and the general patient safety [73].

Infection Control

New proactive antimicrobial-releasing film and graft material coatings are being developed to combat bacterial foothold to prevent biofilm formation and peri-implantitis or surgical site infection. The potential of smart systems optimised with zinc oxide, silver nanoparticle or chitosan has been noteworthy in the provisioning of slow-release antimicrobial probing devoid of biocompatibility effects. These patents do not only affect infection control during early postoperative period, but also contribute in the long- term implant stability and success [74].

Soft tissue Regeneration

Innovative wound dressings are developed based on oxygen-releasing/Reactive oxygen species (ROS)-scavenging dressing to encourage faster epithelial wound healing in oral and mucosal surgery. They are smart dressings that can enhance the regeneration of soft tissues, lower the ratio of oxidative stress level, slow down the degree of inflammation, and raise the overall recovery rates among patients who have undergone comprehensive surgical procedures, by offering the controlled dressing environment [75].

CLINICAL APPLICATIONS IN ORAL AND MAXILLOFACIAL SURGERY

A combination of regenerative approaches and development of high-tech biomaterials has revolutionized the domain of oral and maxillofacial surgery and provided customized solutions to complex defects, improving both functional and esthetic results. These new products can help guide the restoration of bones and soft tissues across a diverse clinical context- including regular implantology to reconstructive and regenerative nerve surgeries.

Sinus Lift and Maxillary Sinus Augmentation

The main aim of this procedure is to add the vertical bone height in posterior maxilla to place the implants in the cases when the sinus floor has already pneumatized. In the regenerative approach, grafting materials (autografts, xenografts such as bovine bone, and bioactive glass) are applied in combination with resorbable membranes to preserve space and direct development of bone. They use adjunctive procedures such as platelet rich-fibrin (PRF) or bone morphogenetic protein-2 (BMP-2) to prompt faster graft incorporation and bone healing. Some of the newer methods involve using patient-specific 3-D printed scaffolds that complement the individual sinus anatomy of a patient and also entail smart hydrogels to locally inject growth factors and endoscopic-guided sinus lift which allows greater surgical precision [76].

Alveolar Ridge Augmentation

It is competent to overcome horizontal/vertical deficiencies through trauma, and atrophy or pathology before the implant therapy using a variety of materials and techniques. These are block grafts, particulate grafts or composite grafting, usually guided by resorbable membranes including collagen during guided bone regeneration (GBR). In complicated defects, titanium meshes, or 3D scaffolds designed by CAD/CAM, provide the accurate structural support. More recent developments have pushed the results even further with growth factor-loaded scaffolds like that of enamel matrix derivatives (EMD) or platelet-rich plasma (PRP) faster healing time, or 3D bioprinted scaffolds in which the precise volume in the maximum time possible can be restored, among other improvements. Also, there is the development of osteoinductive biomaterials that facilitate endogenous bone growth to make regenerative process more predictable and successful [77].

Cystic cavity Reconstruction

Comprehensive removal of cysts with a huge body can lead to a large osseous defect in oral surgery that needs regeneration during surgery to avoid the collapse of the structure or its deformation. In order to mitigate this, space fillers made out of resorbable biomaterials e.g. hydroxyapatite or 8-tricalcium phosphate (8-TCP) and absorbable forms of collagen matrices have been widely used. There is also the use of autologous plasma products such as platelet rich fibrin (PRF) or platelet rich plasma (PRP) to augment healing. Enhanced regenerative therapies involve injectable bone graft substitutes, scaffold-based drug delivery systems to deliver desired antibiotic or anti-inflammatory treatment of in situ tissue engineering such as mesenchymal stem cell (MSC) seeding on a porous matrix to facilitate functional regeneration of bone [78].

Repair of Mandibular Defects

Segmental resection of bone due to the injury or removal of a tumor and osteomyelitis pose widespread reconstructive difficulties in oral and maxillofacial surgery. The alternatives in the current reconstruction are free fibula with or without osseointegration, 3D-printed patient specific titanium samples, scaffolds made of bioceramics augmented with bone morphogenetic proteins (BMPs) or stem cells. The emerging strategies are stretching the limits of regenerative medicine, which involves bioengineered composite grafts with bone, muscle, and vascular tissues made to work together; strategies to custom regenerate scaffolds that could support loads to restore lost loads; and gene therapy and direct delivery of specific growth factors to stimulate augmented angiogenesis and osteogenesis [79].

Orofacial nerve regeneration

During Monoaugmental procedures, nerve injury including the inferior alveolar nerve can happen in surgery cases, traumatic cases or a pathological situation, which normally results in a sensory and functional loss. Existing approaches to treat this type of injury involve filling the nerve gap using collagen-based nerve guidance conduits (NGCs), nerve growth factor (NGF) and brain-derived neurotrophic factor (BDNF) as neurotrophic factors to help elicit axonal regeneration, and stem cell therapy, particularly the type known as Dental pulp stem cells (DPSCs) to induce the neural differentiation required repairing nerves. Technological developments are also improving results and include technologies like electroconductive biomaterials, like polypyrrole composites that encourage axonal growth, gene-activated scaffolds, and scaffolds engineered to trigger neuroregenerative signaling and 3D-bioprinted nerve templates containing aligned microchannel scaffolding that guides regenerating axons with greater precision and success [80].

Peri-Implant Tissue Regeneration

This is mainly to restore both hard and soft tissue around the implants of the teeth to achieve long term stability and an excellent esthetic. The treatment of hard tissue is commonly guided bone regeneration (GBR) applications in most cases with bone grafts alongside the barrier membranes whereas soft tissues are managed by the use of collagen matrices, connective tissue grafts and restoration of the soft tissues by augmentation kinds of scaffolds. More recent research has focused on creating intelligent coatings on implants that can release antimicrobials or growth factors, laser-based methods of bioactivation to increase interaction between the biomaterials and cell, and two-layer scaffold structures that can facilitate the simultaneous regeneration of both bone and gingival tissues [81].

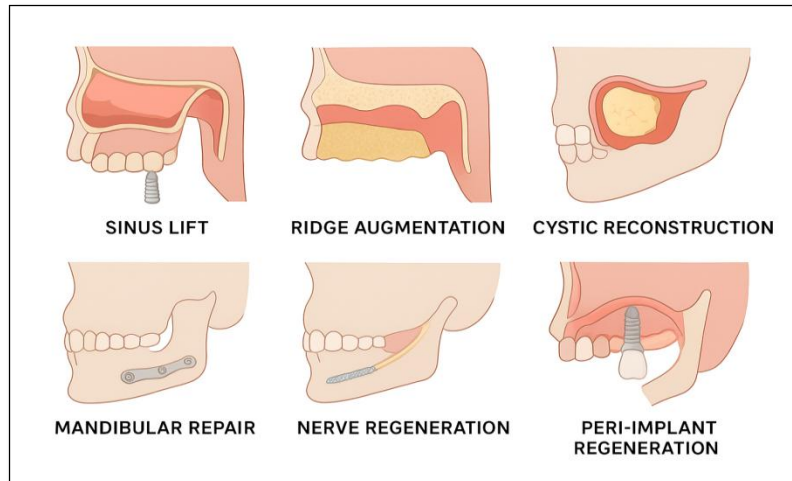


Figure 3: Clinical Applications

Clinical Indication	Common Materials Used	Advanced Technologies
Sinus Lift	β -TCP, PRF, collagen membranes	3D-printed scaffolds, BMPs
Ridge Augmentation	Allografts, titanium mesh	Bioprinting, CAD/CAM guides
Cystic Reconstruction	HA, PRP, collagen foam	Injectable biomaterials
Mandibular Repair	Autografts, PEEK, titanium mesh	Bioengineered composite grafts
Nerve Regeneration	NGCs, DPSCs	Conductive scaffolds, gene therapy
Peri-Implant Regeneration	Grafts, collagen matrix	Drug-eluting implants, laser bioactivation

Table 6: Summary of clinical Applications & Materials

CHALLENGES AND LIMITATIONS IN REGENERATIVE ORAL SURGERY

Despite high promise, advanced materials, and regenerative technologies all have significant potential impact on oral and maxillofacial surgery in the future; many obstacles exist to their acceptance in routine surgery. These are issues that transcend biological, technical, economic and regulatory issues. Such awareness of such limitations is vital to the clinicians, researchers, and the industry partners to guarantee equity and safe and successful practices.

Biocompatibility, Immunological Response

Biomaterials used in bone grafting include xenograft and synthetic scaffolds and have been shown to initiate local immune reaction from mild inflammation up to severe graft rejection, frequently resulting in the deposition of fibrous tissue or chronic reactions that impair the healing process. Although in vitro cytotoxicity assays are critical in evaluating biomaterials safety, they do not reproduce the complexity of in vivo because variables such as long-term degradation and by-products can contribute to tissue healing. These shortcomings underscore the responsibility to conduct longer animal studies in the determination of the genuine biocompatibility and ultimate safety of bone graft materials [82].

Standardization and Reproducibility

Regenerative outcomes are subject to variability of material properties of course, biological factors, manufacturing problems, all the various aspects of that. The variation in degradation rates, porosity and bioactivity between materials can have serious implications on healing and tissue integration whilst patient-specific factors (age, systemic health and vascularity), all contribute to unpredictable outcomes. In addition, the absence of uniform guidelines is a hindrance to comparing studies, and the complex production of smart or bioactive scaffold increases cost and scales of production and wastage, hindering widespread clinical use [83].

Cost and Accessibility in Clinical Practice

The high cost of individualized or intelligent biomaterials should be considered one of their critical issues, because the work involves very expensive raw materials, special technology, and research 3D printing, as well as forced testing of materials on a controlled basis. Such monetary requirements pose challenges to clinical applications ones especially in low-budget centers due to the high prices of grafts, their failure to be reimbursed or insured, posing a barrier to comprehensive applications. As a result, these limitations further increase the disparity in access to regenerative materials globally, whereby the disadvantaged populations can be found in rural and low-income communities with no benefits to the upgraded urban centers [84].

Regulatory Approvals and Ethical Issues

Regenerative medicine combination products, characterized by combination of scaffolds, cells and therapeutics, are subject to extremely dense regulatory frameworks and authorities (FDA, EMA, CDSCO), with distinct safety, efficacy and quality company considerations. These issues are exacerbated by the ethical arguments regarding the use of stem cells and, in particular, stem cells derived from embryonic material or fetuses, which require public, transparent informed consent, a long-term tracking and social acceptability. Moreover, an element of uncertainty regarding responsibility is also brought up by integrating AI-powered, individualized implants, and raising questions of liability, as implying that a manufacturer, developers, and clinicians can each share liability, necessitating the reformulation of current legal frameworks to strike a balance between scientific freedom, patient safety, and public health [85].

Clinical Note: Even commonly used materials like PLA or β -TCP must be evaluated for patient-specific responses, particularly in immunocompromised individuals.

FUTURE DIRECTIONS

The future of advanced regenerative research and material science in oral surgery is quickly maturing with various revolutionary trends that are changing clinical practice. Individualized regeneration with genomic-directed therapeutic and autologous stem cell usage is increasing computerizing treatment predictability decreasing complications. This type of combination of AI and predictive models will enable data-driven clinical decision-making through precise risk analysis and scaffold optimization. In the interim, CAD/CAM, virtual surgical planning (VSP), and augmented reality (AR) tools are augmenting the accuracy and efficiency within the surgical process through digital workflow integration. Also, advances in the nanotechnological field as well as exosome-based regimens are causing the discovery of improved scaffolds and acellular biologics, which have the potential to ensure better healing and minimal risks to the immune response. All these developments together mark a paradigm shift to more personalized, efficient and biologically compatible in oral and maxillofacial regenerative surgery [86].

CONCLUSION

Modern regenerative medicine and materials science in the field of oral surgery comes in as one of the paradigm shifts in the way oral clinicians treat complicated defects and functional rehabilitation. These innovations, through combination of stem cell therapy, growth factors, nanotechnology and bioactive scaffolds have not only increased the predictability of the outcomes but also led to actual tissue regeneration as opposed to repair. Precision and efficiency in clinical practice is being tested and advanced by smart biomaterials that may respond to biological cues and by growth factor delivery systems that provide controlled release. Additionally, it is possible to foresee an enhanced tendency to introduce a patient-tailored solution based on the synergy of 3D bioprinting and tissue engineering to decrease complications and enhance long-term stability. Although this is being embraced, there are the issues of high cost, regulatory barriers, long-term safety worthiness, and ethical issues about stem cells and genetic modification that need to be keenly handled. To make these strategies the regular chairside practice, clinical trials, universal protocols, and international acceptance is needed. Such collaboration among material scientists, biomedical engineers, clinicians and policymakers under an interdisciplinary approach will be key in filling this gap. The future of oral surgery is to explore these regenerative and material science innovations to provide therapies not only advanced but also affordable, safer, and personalized to each patient-a new age of precision oral healthcare.

CHAPTER 7

PERSONALISED PROSTHODONTICS

Dr. Alok Dwivedi, Dr Athira M, Dr. Kanak Pareek, Dr. Shaiq Gajdhar

INTRODUCTION

The prosthodontists fabricate and install the artificial teeth and other teeth-related parts. Previously, the discipline aided patients that required oral reconstruction through some traditional procedures. Things, however, are beginning to change as more and more people are getting prosthodontics that are customized to each person or their needs [1]. This novel way increases the accuracy, functionality, and aesthetics of prosthodontic practices due to the use of the specific patient data regarding their anatomy, physiology, genetics, and habits. Customization is becoming attractive in the medical and healthcare domain. This does not mean that there will be a blanket treatment program of one size-fits-all, but rather an individualized treatment program in relation to the patients [2].

The concept of prosthodontics is very old. Archaeologists have found ancient dentures made out of bone or ivory. Through research on dental anatomy, biomechanics and materials, many advances in dental prosthesis have been realized over the time. All these innovations arose in the 20th century, dental implants that fuse with bone, porcelain-fused-to-metal crowns, and acrylic resins. These developments made dentistry look and operate better [3].

Although these new concepts had been introduced, most of the early prosthodontic treatments did not consider small personal differences. Denture basing was done using standard molders, broad anatomical shapes were used in making crowns and bridges and on simple x-ray information the implants were fitted. Even though such approaches helped to improve the appearance, occlusion, and biomechanics of each patient to a degree but they lacked the accuracy [4].

Custom prosthodontics is a recent speciality that places an emphasis on patient demands with the application of the latest technology advancement. The personalised development of prostheses has been made possible through artificial intelligence, biomaterials, CAD/CAM fabrication, digital dentistry and 3D imaging. Some of the topics of discussion include psychological comfort, occlusion pattern, muscular activity, symmetry, systemic diseases, and even genetics, which make the individual prone to illnesses or tissue sensitivity [5].

Personalised prosthodontics is a catalogue of all latest diagnosis techniques, such as cone-beam computed tomography (CBCT), intraoral scanning seems to improve the way of analysing occlusion and a digital 3D model of the craniofacial structure of the patient. This is not normally the way things work. With software, you are able to modify these models so as to depict the

workings of occlusion, facial expressions and prosthetic functions in reality. The simulation is to plan treatment and ensure that the prosthetic devices are constructed to fit the individuals' biomechanical requirements [6].

Digital workflow is of utmost significance to personalised prosthodontics. There is nothing you could not go wrong with using CAD/CAM (Computer-Aided Design and Manufacturing) tools to combine precision in a virtual world [7]. The 3D printing and machining of these ideas follow so that the end result is a properly fitting and functioning prosthetic. Digitization of impression techniques not only makes patients feel good but also increases the accuracy of the process and accelerates the treatment. The scanning of the face and the design of smiles also help surgeons create a prosthesis that suits the shape of the patient face and their desire regarding cosmetics as this allows them to view aesthetic flaws in a more convenient way [8].

More and more biological technologies also find their use in this sphere. Examples of areas in which scientists are investigating bioactive materials and tissue engineering include developing prosthetics that not only replace the missing part, but also helps tissues around it to repair and become incorporated into the body [9]. Prosthetic devices may one day have biosensors that monitor the status of the health of your teeth at all times. This would allow the doctor and the patient to get informed on what is happening and provide them with an opportunity to act on it before it is too late [10].

Genomics and proteomics are having their effect on prosthodontic care as well. The process of genetic profiling might someday assist physicians in determining how prone a person may be to developing peri-implantitis or identifying individuals whose implants are most prone to fail due to the immune system complications or other conditions. With this, doctors might plan treatment beforehand and select the most effective materials that would operate with the body of the patient [11].

The magnitude of the effect of personalised prosthodontics on treatment of the patients by the doctors cannot be overestimated. Proper-fitting and positioning of prosthetic patients produce easier, steady, and successful chewing. Prostheses may save individuals against acquiring the temporomandibular joint diseases, occlusal trauma and complications with consideration to the specific occlusion of the patient and the neuromuscular lines of motions. Prosthesis invented from modern tooth is able to rectify the teeth and restore balance to the face, self-image, and social existence [12].

The perspective of personalised prosthodontics is wonderful, yet it has some problems. It is not easy to find such expensive diagnostic equipment, digital infrastructure, and training in the regions that lack a substantial amount of money. Understanding the way that digital workflows could be used in a medical setting also would take time. Professionals should also ensure compliance with the norms and standards when they gather genetic information, preserve the privacy of individuals, and invoke the help of AI to frame their diagnosis [13].

A combination of the use of AI and big data analytics and real-time health monitoring may bring predictive prosthodontics in the future. The procedure will entail detecting and mending issues before they destroy the structure. This change would not only alter how we treat dental issues, but also how we view oral care [14].

RATIONALE FOR PERSONALISATION

Individual patients always differ in anatomical, functional, and psychosocial features and thus the personalised prosthodontics was created. Individualized treatment is concerned with tailoring each of these prostheses on individual characteristics, enhancing the level of functionality, comfort, and satisfaction, whereas generic prosthodontics attempted to find a compromise on average needs. The rational use of a personalized strategy is outlined in the subsections presented below [15].

Oral anatomy and physiology variance

The oral architecture is different in each patient and this varies in tongue placement, muscular attachments, ridge formation, and the thickness of the soft tissues. Individual differences in bone density, mucosal resilience and salivary flow affect prosthesis fit, retention and prolonged use [16]. These variations must be recognized and accustomed to in order to ensure maximum prosthodontic effects. In modern practice, these anatomical features can be properly captured with the help of digital imaging and intraoral scanning allowing for the creation of customized prostheses to prepare people toward greater tissue elasticity and a healthy condition [17].

Practical and Appealing Requirements

In order to make prosthodontics a success, restoration of function and reaching the aesthetic aims of patients are required. The type of diet, phonetic demands, and preexisting occlusal systems are influencing factors of the functional needs. There are those who might benefit by improving the clarity of their voices when observing fiber diets, even as there are those who would need improved masticatory efficacy [18]. The unilateral preferences about how teeth are presented, the support of the lips, and the smile line could affect aesthetic choice. Personalizing prosthodontics enables occlusion, articulation and aesthetics to be refined using a blend of smile design software, virtual articulators and digital mock ups to show patient choices [19].

Psychosocial and Expectations of Patients

The mental and emotional effect of edentulism or the deformities on the face are indeed inestimable. Self-perceptions, confidence level, and social networks insert a significant influence on the way patients accept and are satisfied with the treatment [20]. One of the determinants of patient-centered treatment is adjustment of the prosthesis to bring back functionality and self-esteem. Engaging the patient in the decision-making process, giving him or her a foretaste of virtual outcomes, and considering the circumstances of his or her residence may contribute to the development of the trusting relationship and stimulate compliance. Knowledge of motivation and psychological preparation of patients is an important aspect of individualized Prosthodontics [21].

Age- Gender- Ethnicity Influence

Prosthetics have to be designed and made out of a variety of materials to consider changes that come with age-loss of tissue flexibility, reduced salivary flow and resorption of alveolar bone. Gender disparities on occlusal dynamics, the esthetic of the smile and facial morphology also affect prosthodontic planning [22]. Cultural glances at face proportions, tooth color and beauty are also influenced by ethnicity. Having the ability to accommodate the differences in geometrically-based factors that are caused by demographic factors with the use of digital design and by incorporation

of anthropometric information, personalized prosthodontics in effect, recognizes these differences and offers more cosmetically-appealing and culturally-sensitive restorations [23].

Patient-Specific Pathologies

Special problems and unique needs of patients in the light of systemic conditions and oral pathologies require unique solutions. Such conditions as xerostomia, parafunctional habits, burning oral cavity syndrome, diabetes, or mucosal disorders influence the process of choice of materials, type of prosthesis, and maintenance procedures. Resiliency between tissues is different too, so changes are required to pressure areas and how pressure loads are applied. Individualized treatment planning to support such pathologies makes the procedure safe and productive in the long run. Digital technologies and patient health data can have a considerable potential to make such counseling more accurate [24,25].

Factor	Clinical Consideration	Implications for Personalisation
Oral Anatomy & Physiology	Variations in ridge form, mucosal thickness, salivary flow, bone density	Custom impression techniques, digital scanning, selective pressure design
Functional & Aesthetic Demands	Diverse occlusal needs, phonetic patterns, and esthetic preferences	Use of digital articulators, smile design tools, patient-guided esthetic planning
Psychosocial & Patient Expectations	Self-image, anxiety, motivation, social factors	Shared decision-making, mock-ups, counseling, increased patient satisfaction
Age, Gender & Ethnicity	Age-related resorption, gender-specific facial esthetics, ethnic tooth/morphology norms	Demographic-based prosthesis design, personalized shade and shape selection
Patient-Specific Pathologies	Xerostomia, parafunction, diabetes, mucosal fragility	Adjusted materials, load management, specialized maintenance and follow-up strategies

Table 1: Rationale of personalized prosthodontics

DIAGNOSTIC AND PLANNING TOOLS

Proper analysis and thorough, detailed diagnosis constitute the key to individual prosthodontic treatment. Although the traditional models are credible, they often make certain assumptions about homogenous anatomical and functional characteristics [26]. Present-day customized prosthodontics utilizes the patient-reported data and digital technology to enhance the diagnostics accuracy and construct prostheses that are personalized according to the needs of a specific patient. The following are the necessary resources in this shift towards precision dentistry [27].

3D Impressions and 3D Scanning

Digital intraoral scanners have totally changed the way impressions are taken. Compared to older materials, digital scanning can produce in-real-time imaging, better accordance on the outlines of

the dentoalveolar structures, and a more comfortable experience on the part of the patient. These digital impressions can be easily used in CAD programs that allowed custom-prosthetic components to be created to within micron precision [28].

3D images of soft tissues and anatomical markers are used to make complete dentures or implant guides on edentulous persons. The ability to archive, transfer, and overlay these scans will allow patient safety and clinical effectiveness to be vastly improved as it comes to progress monitoring and remakes [29].

CBCT and Facial Scanning Combined

Cone Beam Computed Tomography (CBCT) offers high-resolution 3-dimension image of the craniofacial features of minimal radiation. In personalized prosthodontics, the data of CBCT makes it possible to accurately judge the thickness of the bone, the design of the implant, and the anatomical asymmetry [30].

Compound digitally networked face-dental form is a format concerned with overlaying facial scan with CBCT and intra oral scans to ensure development of prostheses in association with peaceful facial symmetry, interplay of muscles, and beauty. It is of particular importance to the rehabilitation of the mouth cavity and the maxillofacial prosthesis [31].

Dynamic occlusion and Virtual Articulators

Mandibular movement can only be reproduced in a partial manner by conventional articulators. On the other hand, virtual articulators simulate the movement of a jaw of a patient by intraoral scan data and jvaxs monitors. Using these methods, occlusal variations can be made before the manufacture of prosthesis through the use of condylar channels, envelope of motion, as well as functional occlusion [32].

Virtual planning is especially handy when dealing with such conditions as TMD, worn dentitions, or occlusal disharmony as it minimizes chairside adjustments, enhances patient comfort in the long run, and maximizes the severity of the prosthesis [33].

Patients Reported Measures (PROMs)

Personalization needs to be enhanced when the opinion of the patient is not taken into account. At pre-intervention and post-intervention, the perceptions of patients regarding the functions, comfort, appearance, and quality of life are assessed with the help of standardized instruments referred to as PROMs [34]. By using these subjective inputs, the clinicians would have a better understanding of the priorities of the patient and change expectations and can evaluate expected performance with the eyes of the patient. One of the important elements of individualized care, PROMs utilization promotes a shared decision-making model that finds a balance between treatment goals and patient satisfaction [35].

Salivary Biomarkers and Genetic Biomarkers

This is evident in recent research findings which proved how salivary diagnostics and genetic profiling has an effect on prosthodontic outcome and dental health. An example is that hereditary inclinations to inflammation, bone loss, or the failure of the prosthetic would influence the materials and design of the prosthetic. Also, there is a possibility of using salivary signs to discover systemic factors or mucosal issues that impair the efficacies of the prostheses.

Even though currently they are in their infancy, these methods of biomolecular modification can ultimately result in fully tailored prosthodontics through grasping the degree of variation among patients by appreciating the morphological picture at a molecular level instead of simply the morphological level [36].

TECHNOLOGICAL ADVANCEMENTS ENABLING PERSONALISATION

Current trends in rapid technological advancements in prosthodontics are quickly pushing the field of prosthodontics into being a patient-centered discipline. Such technologies can also increase the accuracy of diagnosis, workflow, and it is possible to create curations that fit anatomical, functional, and esthetic peculiarities of an individual patient. In this section, the most common technological tools that accelerate the development of personalised prosthodontics are identified [37].

Prosthodontics CAD/CAM Technology

Computer aided design and computer aided manufacture (CAD/CAM) has transformed the manufacturing of dental prostheses by improving the clinical activities via precision, functionality, and personalization. With digital impressions and sophisticated computer-aided design (CAD) software, clinicians can now manufacture restorations with proper size, structure, occlusal structure, and aesthetics based on information about the patient. These replacements can be manufactured or 3D printed properly using variety of biocompatible materials and CAM technology [38]. Standardized outcomes and provisions of customization, the possibility of chairside restorations that can be finished in one sitting, enhanced fit and fit of the margin, enhanced endurance as the time extends, simplified reproduction, and computerized management of records are some of the numerous key advantages of this computerized method. With respect to the personalized treatment, CAD/CAM contributes enormously in streamlining the techniques of customization and enhancing satisfaction among patients through prototyping and in situ modifications depending on functionality or aesthetic feedback [39].

3D Printing and milling in Custom Prosthesis manufacturing

Due to its high accuracy and versatility, subtractive milling and additive manufacturing (3D printing) have become indispensable steps when performing the customisation of dental prostheses. All hollow objects, interiors scaffolds, or complex geometries that appear virtually identical to those of surgery templates or even soft tissue design are potentially 3D printed. Nonetheless, high-speed milling is already developed to create reliable and strikingly precise repaired parts by using durable materials such as PMMA and zirconia [40]. Application of these technologies encompasses the production of surgery guides, temporary prostheses, denture bases conforming to the contours of the mucosa, individualized implant abutment, and focus prosthesis with fidelity in anatomical form. The accuracy and versatility of both type of addition and subtraction allow doctors to tailor solutions to the patient maximizing the effectiveness and predictability of treatment results [41].

Treatment Planning with the Artificial Intelligence and Machine Learning

Artificial intelligence (AI) and machine learning (ML) have already been changing the way prosthodontic care is delivered by improving diagnostic work, clinical reasoning, and outcome prediction based on analysis of huge amounts of multidimensional data. Such technologies are able to recognize trends and provide personalised suggestions according to the individual characteristics like age, bone density, teeth health, and aesthetic desires [42]. Practical applications in dentistry include the fully automated design of crowns and dentures based solely off a digital scan, occlusal studies based off of data obtained through a jaw tracker, predictive modeling to predict the probability of implant failure or prosthetic success, or virtual aesthetic simulations that can be adjust in real-time. A reduction of subjectivity and clinical variability means a more personalized approach to the treatment planning, which is optimized through data instead of a process that will ultimately enhance precision, effectiveness, and patient satisfaction in prosthodontics [43].

The Responsive Smart Materials to the Oral Conditions

The innovative sphere of customized prosthodontics, intelligent materials offer active reaction to the changeable conditions in the oral cavity such as temperature, pH, mechanical loading, enzyme concentrations, etc. These materials can modify their chemical or physical properties in real time to change stress levels, better distributions or specific therapeutic releases leading to better performance of the prosthetic [44]. The most significant ones are the pH-sensitive and thermosensitive polymer liners that are able to liberate fluoride and adapt gradually to the oral tissues respectively in case the acidic episodes occur and to fit better respectively. Also, antibacterial polymers help in preserving healthy gums by responding in incidences when there is a heightened bacterium onslaught and shape-memory alloys are incorporated in fine-tuning attachment set-ups in order to generate constant flexibility and retention. With the prostheses now being active members of the oral environment of patients rather than the mere passive replacements as before, all these intelligent materials can be seen as the beginning of a revolution in Prosthodontics [45].

Regenerativity and Bio printing

In their present stage of testing, bioprinting and tissue engineering could provide a revolution in terms of dental work in a future. In the future, stem cells that were left out in patients may be used by 3D bioprinters to produce living tissues such as gingiva, bone, or even dentin-pulp complexes which can be attached easily to the design of the prosthetics [46]. Currently, there is also progress in areas of key importance, like the production of biomimetic hydrogels to use as scaffold, the use of customised grafting templates in ridge augmentation and the development of hybrid prostheses which combine living cells with synthetic support. This combination of regenerative medicine and prosthodontics creates the beginning of a new era in bio-personalised rehabilitation where the prosthetics put shape and function back in place and enable the tissues to regenerate [47].

CLINICAL APPLICATIONS

Many prosthetic modes extensively rely on the laws of personalized prosthodontics. Patient-specific customization of planning, selection of material and design alteration towards anatomical, functional, and cosmetic standards is advantageous to all prostheses, including full dentures and craniofacial prosthesis [48].

Complete Dentures

Mapping and Load Distribution

Our contemporary intra oral scanners with pressure mapping technology can determine the compressibility and resilience capabilities of multiple regions of the mucosa with the help of a clinician. To achieve the adequate distribution of loads, the main and secondary points of stress can be found related to the prosthesis. This will reduce uncomfortable points and add comfort to patients [49].

Polished surface and Flange design Customised

When using digital frameworks, the flange contour and rubbed surfaces can be very precisely carved with regards to the oral anatomy and muscle activities. Such features enhance both stability and retention as well as contribute to naturally holding the lips and cheeks; this is especially applicable in older patients with weak muscles around their mouths [50].

Digital Try-ins and Patient-feedback System Integration

The 3D printed try in can be utilized by the patient to access phonetics and aesthetics before the final manufacturing. This makes it possible to make adjustments in real-time and make it more acceptable through involvement by the patient in designing their smile relative to therapeutic limitations [51].

Removable Partial Dentures (RPDs)

Major Connectors Adapted Anatomically

Digital impression can be accurately fit to the lingual topography, or palate of the patient, which may be more tissue tolerant, and comfortable with major connectors. Fewer clinical chairside adjustments need to be made because during design, the tori or undercuts would automatically be avoided [52].

Individualized retention and support design

The location, mobility and occlusal forces of abutment tooth can be altered to alter the kind, site and rigidity of the clasps and rests. Digital RPD planning enables accurate positioning; this decreases the stress levels and increases cosmetic effects [53].

Fixed Partial Denture and Crowns

Personalized Tooth Form and Bite

It is possible to reproduce the natural dentition of the patient with retention of the shape and appearance of occlusion due to artificial intelligence algorithms and digital libraries. Certain functional movements can be simulated that can help in designing a prosthesis to fit in with the dynamic occlusion [54].

Esthetic Design Aided by AI

Facial symmetry and official smile lines and tooth proportions can be opposed by artificial intelligence platforms to provide more customized beauty advice. These resources make more reliable and scientifically supported aesthetic planning [55].

Periodontal Biotype Based Margin Design

The risk of gingival recession and the health prospects of the periodontal tissue in the long term can be reduced by matching the prosthetic margin to the square of the gingival thickness and biotype. One reason is that, thinner biotypes might have an advantage with supragingival margins and thicker biotypes might not have detrimental effects with subgingival implantation [56].

Implant-Supported Prostheses

Patient Specific Abutments and Structures

Individualized CAD/CAM abutments will permit gingival profile, emergence profile and implant-to-implant spacing. This increases the aesthetic, sanitary access and the biomechanical integration, especially in the frontal areas [57].

Digital occlusion and load distribution

In the case of implant-supported prosthesis, the occlusal systems involving the bone density, implant site, and parafunctional behaviors are useful. Optimal load distribution may be achieved together with prevention of peri-implant stress through a dynamic occlusion mapping facilitated by virtual articulators [58].

Templates and surgical guides Personalised Grafting Templates

Patients requiring ridge augmentation are implanted with autograft or bone replacements using 3D printed grafting templates developed out of CBCT scan. Likewise, digitally produced surgical suggestions reduce risks and improve prosthetics outcomes by increasing the correctness of implant installed [59].

Maxillofacial As well As Craniofacial Prostheses

Individually made Orbital, Auricular, Nasal Prostheses

Patients who have facial deformation as a result of trauma, cancer or congenital causes can benefit where custom-fit prostheses may be created with 3D scans of the patients face and the creation of a mirror-side using the good side of the face. It is also possible to restore shape and functioning with striking precision [60].

Facial Scans and silicone pigmentation

After a facial image has been scanned digitally, the contour data is used to design the prostheses. Also, real-life appearances are guaranteed since medical-grade silicone materials have the natural pigmentation and skin color. Certain color schemes are used in order to imitate the texture and see-through quality of skin [61].

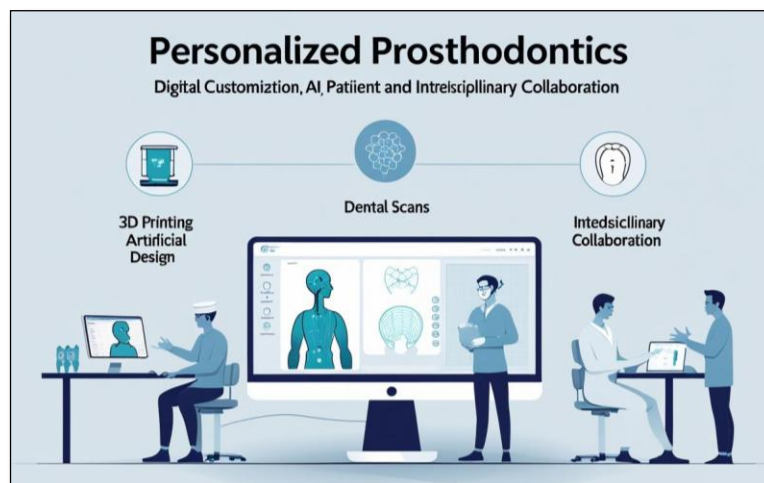


Figure 1: Applications of personalised prosthodontics

MATERIAL SELECTION AND CUSTOMIZATION

In custom prosthodontics, one has to take due consideration in terms of material used and their application. Another factor is that the materials available today are durable, besides being able to be tailored to the individual requirements of each patient. They do not pose danger to living organisms and come in a wide array of beautiful designs. The latest developments of material and technology which enable more personalised prosthetic denture are discussed in this section [62].

Adaptive Bioinspired Materials

Bio-inspired materials reproduce the feel and appearance of dental tissues including the mucosa, dentin, and enamel. This simplifies their collaboration, accomplishment of duties and addressing the needs of all the patients. The values of the modulus of resin composites, which are almost similar to dentin, allow abutments to be supported through reduced mass. This is of enormous assistance to those who do not share anything with other people [63]. Studies also seek out materials that have the same viscoelastic behavior as the periodontal ligament or anisotropic behavior as bone to determine whether they can be used to improve body functions. These are excellent materials to use where the problem is difficult to address, such as implant- supported prosthetics or long-span bridges. They are less vulnerable to stress, have a longer shelf life and better protect the tissues [64].

Thermo-responsive and pH sensitive materials

Smarter materials have been able to alter their shape so as to be compatible with the pH or temperature of the mouth. As an example, thermo-responsive liners can modify a little bit in your mouth. This prevents a slip of dentures and improves overall fit [65]. Depending on the pH, Fluoride or antibiotics materials could be released by pH sensitive polymers. The method is highly appropriate among individuals, who suffer cavities or dry mouth. These innovational materials also help to ensure tooth health besides making them comfortable and useful, particularly, to the aged and medically compromised individual [66].

Hybrid Materials that possess Higher Biocompatibility

Metals or ceramics and robust, compliant polymers constitute hybrid materials employed in prosthodontics, and which can respond to living things. This strategy is more beneficial to an individual and has more outcomes. Polyether ether ketone, or PEEK, reinforced with zirconia forms the ideal material used in implant frameworks and removable partial dentures since it is both strong and flexible [67]. Antibacterial and antifungal nanoparticle-loaded nanocomposite resins prevent the plaque formation on the surfaces of prosthetics. This is one of the ways you can use to clean your mouth. Other potential approaches to increase tissue-implant contact (particularly subgingival) include bioactive coatings, such as hydroxyapatite, and plasma spraying. Put together, these novel concepts lead to a less inflammatory, more resistant, and tailored prosthetic environment to the patient based on his or her specific oral biology [68].

Peer to Peer Shade Differentiated and Layering Methods

Customization mainly deals with aesthetics in prosthodontics. You can customize the texture and color and transparency accurately with new materials and digital technology. Two objects that can objectively identify shade are spectrophotometer and intraoral scanner. The resemblance of the match to the actual teeth of the patient has been enhanced using this process [69]. Moreover, the use of techniques, such as different layering in ceramics and composites, causes teeth to become similar to their initial shape since such methods reproduce such features as the surface roughness, the dentin warmth, and the appearance of translucent enamel. The interior should also be painted or coated in order to make the front restorations even more genuine. This individualized approach considers not only the race of the patient but also any changes related to his age as well as the preferences of the patient. Quality of life may be improved, and the repairs made using this technique look natural [70].

ADVANCED MATERIALS FOR PERSONALISED PROSTHODONTICS

Material Type	Key Features	Clinical Applications	Personalisation Advantage
Bioinspired Materials	Mimic natural tissue properties (elasticity, structure)	Denture bases, occlusal surfaces, implant interfaces	Improves comfort and functional integration
Thermo-responsive Liners	Expand with oral temperature	Removable prostheses for geriatric or resorbed ridges	Better adaptation and retention without relining
pH-sensitive Polymers	Release fluoride/antimicrobials in acidic pH	Denture bases, liners, crown luting agents	Offers caries protection in high-risk patients
Zirconia-reinforced PEEK	High strength + shock absorption	Implant bars, frameworks, RPD components	Customized for patients with bruxism or high occlusal load
Nanocomposite Resins	Embedded with antibacterial/fungal agents	Long-term provisional crowns, RPDs	Reduces biofilm accumulation in susceptible patients
Spectrophotometer-guided Ceramics	Objective shade mapping and internal layering	Anterior crowns, veneers	Accurate esthetic match to individual pigmentation
Hybrid Layered Ceramics	Multilayered translucency and chroma	Esthetic fixed partial dentures, implant crowns	Natural esthetics respecting age and gender variations

Table 2: Advancements in materials

CHALLENGES AND LIMITATIONS

Individualized prosthodontics holds great potential, but a number of technological, ethical, and practical challenges will prevent it from becoming widely used. To ensure safe, fair, and long-lasting advancement in this area, doctors, researchers, and legislators must be completely aware of these difficulties [71,72].

Challenge Area	Description	Impact
Cost & Accessibility	High cost of digital equipment, software, and materials	Limits availability in low-resource settings; increases patient burden
Technical Training & Infrastructure	Need for skilled personnel and modern digital infrastructure	Slows adoption and widens competency gaps
Ethical & Regulatory Concerns	Unclear policies on AI, patient data use, and genetic profiling	Raises trust, safety, and legal issues
Standardization vs Individualization	Difficulty balancing unique customization with reproducible protocols	Hinders scalability and complicates quality assurance

Table 3: Key Challenges and Limitations in Personalised Prosthodontics

Policy & Practice Box: Overcoming Barriers in Personalised Prosthodontics

- **Subsidize Technology Access:** Governments and institutions can incentivize digital adoption through grants, tax breaks, or public-private partnerships.
- **Standardized Training Modules:** Integrate digital prosthodontics into undergraduate and continuing education curricula to ensure clinician readiness.
- **Ethical Oversight Frameworks:** Establish clear protocols for AI use and genomic personalization, with patient consent and data protection at the forefront.
- **Scalable Personalisation Models:** Develop modular digital workflows that allow controlled customization within evidence-based clinical boundaries.
- **Collaborative Ecosystems:** Foster cross-disciplinary teams involving dental technologists, data scientists, and engineers to ensure safe innovation.

Future Perspectives in Personalised Prosthodontics

Personalized prosthodontics keeps growing due both to dependence on rapid development of digital technologies, biology, and artificial intelligence. The radiation free range of preventative, predictive, and precision based care will transform the future scope of prosthodontic therapy radically.

Integration of Genomics and Epigenetics

Some recent studies show that genetic and epigenetic profiles could be used to improve prosthodontic planning, particularly to address patients with systemic diseases or who had defective healing cycles. Genetic markers are being discovered that may indicate the tendency toward delayed mucosal healing, bone loss or peri-implantitis thus enabling early intervention or a change in treatment schedules [73]. Also, epigenetic factors, such as DNA methylation patterns or microRNA activity, can provide effective information which can be used to make some choices concerning the distribution balance of the prosthesis to be utilized, design individualization and selection of materials. On demand genetic and epigenetic salivary biomarker Chairside diagnostic kits are anticipated in the near future to facilitate high-specificity, sensitivity biocompatible Prosthodontics [74].

Prosthodontic Failure Risk Predictive Analytics

Artificial intelligence-based predictive analytics is capable of transforming risk assessment in prosthodontics by providing the doctors with findings concerning the long-term outcomes of a certain treatment course. Occlusal load profiles, functional patterns are used to determine the risk of restorative wear or fracture [75]. The likelihood of failure in implant can be predicted with combination of systemic health, parafunctional patterns, and cone-beam computed tomography (CBCT). Also, more advanced algorithms could predict whether or not the patients will follow maintenance and cleaning instructions. By anticipating such issues, clinicians can enhance the success of the overall treatment process by implementing a preemptive change in prosthesis design, choice of materials, and follow-up regimens [76].

Automated Chairside Customization of Prosthesis

The prosthodontics of the near future is going to be characterized by complete automation, chairside systems with the ability to have its prosthetics customized and delivered on the same day. With artificial intelligence-assisted software and intraoral scans face morphology will be reviewed, and precise and personalized denture design will be created in few minutes [77]. The resulting 3D designs will be printed (milled) in office to make crowns, dentures or temporary prostheses within just a few hours. The integration with virtual articulators and face scanners will allow provision of accurate functional and aesthetic results. Such innovation will significantly increase patient satisfaction since it will lead to less waiting time and fewer visits to the clinic [78].

Tele-prosthodontics Remote Personalization

As telehealth grows, so, is tele- prosthodontics, a collaborative and accessible way to provide care particularly useful to those patients who live in rural regions or with reduced mobility. Patients will be able to send intraoral scans or photo information remotely whether in their home or in related clinics that has scanning equipment in this system [79]. Virtual visits will assist the collaborative approach to treatment planning, design approval, and education. Dentists and labs

have the opportunity to move through cloud-based workflows to coordinate in the generation of high-precision prostheses without the need to visit the laboratories. This model also guarantees continuity, enhanced access and personalized treatment, whether or not there are geographical constraints [80].

CONCLUSION

A paradigm change away from traditional, one-size-fits-all methods and toward one that is more patient-centered and data-driven is represented by personalized prosthodontics. Due to anatomical, functional, aesthetic, and psychological variety, this chapter has examined the need for customized prosthetic solutions backed by smart materials, digital tools, and predictive analytics. Artificial intelligence, genetics, and real-time personalization will revolutionize prosthodontic treatment as the profession develops. Empathy, not simply technology, is the cornerstone of this expansion. In addition to being an expert clinician and digital designer, the prosthodontist of the future will be a team player who is aware of each patient's distinct biology, lifestyle, and background. One technical development and professional obligation that connects prosthodontics to the larger goal of precision dental care is personalization.

Clinical Tips Box: Dos and Don'ts of Personalisation in Prosthodontics

Dos	Don'ts
Always assess individual tissue health, parafunctional habits, and anatomical limitations before prosthesis planning.	Don't rely solely on aesthetic templates or pre-set CAD libraries—personalisation requires deviation from norms.
Use digital scans and facial analysis to guide tooth positioning, midline, and occlusal schemes.	Don't overlook patient-reported outcome measures (PROMs)—subjective comfort and satisfaction matter.
Customize materials and designs based on age, gender, functional load, and esthetic demands.	Don't assume one material fits all—mismatch can cause failure or dissatisfaction.
Involve the patient actively in design decisions using visual simulations or digital mock-ups.	Don't dismiss patient concerns as purely cosmetic—psychosocial factors are integral to treatment success.
Stay updated with training in AI tools, CAD/CAM protocols, and material science.	Don't delegate complex personalization to untrained lab personnel without oversight.

CHAPTER 8

ROBOTICS, AI-GUIDED SURGERY, AND VIRTUAL SURGICAL PLANNING IN ORAL AND MAXILLOFACIAL SURGERY

Dr. Sajjad Salam, Dr. Kanak Pareek, Dr. Ayush Shrivastava, Dr. Sarabpreet Kaur

INTRODUCTION

The integration of advanced technologies such as robotics, artificial intelligence (AI), and virtual surgical planning (VSP) in oral and maxillofacial surgery (OMS) represents one of the most transformative developments in healthcare [1]. Historically, OMS has relied on a blend of surgical skill, anatomical knowledge, and manual dexterity to diagnose and treat complex conditions affecting the oral and facial structures. Today, the field stands on the cusp of a technological revolution, where digital innovations are enhancing precision, improving surgical outcomes, and redefining the standards of care [2]. This chapter explores how robotics, AI, and VSP are reshaping the landscape of OMS, offering a glimpse into the present advancements and future potential of this fascinating intersection between medicine and technology.

Robotics in OMS is a groundbreaking development that takes traditional surgical methods to an entirely new level [3]. Robotic-assisted surgical systems have already revolutionized other specialties, such as urology and general surgery, and are now being adapted for oral and maxillofacial procedures. Systems such as the Da Vinci Surgical System allow surgeons to perform minimally invasive surgeries with improved precision and control [4]. These systems are equipped with robotic arms that replicate the surgeon's movements with enhanced accuracy and tremor filtration, enabling intricate procedures that are otherwise challenging using conventional techniques [6].

Robotic surgery in OMS is particularly significant for operations involving the temporomandibular joint (TMJ), tumor excisions, reconstructive procedures, and orthognathic surgeries. These areas demand high precision due to the anatomical complexity of the maxillofacial region and the proximity to vital structures such as nerves and blood vessels [7]. Robotics can also facilitate transoral approaches to oropharyngeal tumors, offering better access and visualization while minimizing the trauma associated with open surgical techniques [8]. The benefits of robotic-assisted surgeries include smaller incisions, reduced blood loss, shorter hospital stays, and faster recovery. However, challenges such as the high cost of robotic systems, limited surgeon training, and steep learning curves remain significant barriers to widespread adoption [9].

Artificial Intelligence (AI) is another key player in reshaping oral and maxillofacial surgery. AI includes machine learning, deep learning, and computer vision technologies designed to mimic human cognitive functions such as learning and problem-solving. In OMS, AI is redefining preoperative planning, intraoperative navigation, and postoperative monitoring. One of its most notable contributions is in the interpretation and diagnosis of radiological images [10]. AI

algorithms can detect abnormalities in panoramic radiographs, CT scans, and MRIs with remarkable accuracy, often outperforming human clinicians in terms of speed and consistency. This increases the chances of early detection of diseases such as oral cancer, cysts, fractures, and developmental anomalies [11].

AI's role extends to surgical decision-making and precision guidance. For instance, AI-enhanced navigation systems can provide real-time feedback during surgery, helping surgeons avoid critical anatomical structures and improve their operative accuracy [12]. In orthognathic surgery and implantology, AI-driven predictive models can anticipate bone healing patterns and estimate postoperative changes in facial structure. Moreover, AI contributes to personalized treatment by analyzing a patient's genetic, anatomical, and lifestyle factors to recommend optimized treatment plans.

Virtual Surgical Planning (VSP) is increasingly recognized as an indispensable tool in the modern OMS workflow. VSP allows surgeons to simulate surgeries using 3D computer models generated from the patient's imaging data. This virtual environment provides a detailed preview of the patient's anatomy and helps in testing multiple surgical scenarios before the actual procedure. Using VSP, surgeons can accurately position osteotomies, plan resections, and design custom implants and surgical guides with unprecedented precision. It is especially valuable in procedures such as distraction osteogenesis, trauma management, and jaw reconstruction [13].

Custom 3D-printed surgical guides and patient-specific implants have also become byproducts of VSP. These devices assist in translating preoperative virtual plans into real-time surgical execution, minimizing intraoperative guesswork and reducing operative time. For example, in mandibular reconstructions, VSP enables surgeons to reshape bone grafts to fit the defect using precise cutting guides, ensuring better aesthetic and functional outcomes. In cleft palate surgery and facial asymmetry corrections, VSP helps surgeons plan interventions more effectively and increase symmetry and predictability [14].

The combination of robotics, AI, and virtual planning marks a shift toward a fully digitized surgical ecosystem. The future points toward hybrid systems in which AI algorithms analyze 3D surgical plans then guide robotic arms based on those plans, while surgeons supervise and intervene only when necessary. Such synergy between human expertise and machine precision could dramatically enhance surgical safety and outcomes [15].

In addition to surgical benefits, these technologies provide immense value in patient education and consent. Virtual models allow patients to see the anatomical issues affecting them and understand the planned procedures, leading to better cooperation and satisfaction. Digital archiving and case documentation also contribute to education, research, and longitudinal follow-up.

Despite the promise, there are hurdles to overcome. High cost is a major concern, making these advancements unaffordable in many developing regions. The need for specialized training and a shift in the learning curve is also significant, as mastering robotic systems or AI software demands time and regular practice. Ethical concerns relating to data privacy, algorithm bias, and dependency on technology also need careful consideration [16].

In conclusion, the integration of robotics, AI, and virtual surgical planning in oral and maxillofacial surgery represents a leap toward a new era of precision, personalization, and predictive excellence. These technologies are not merely tools; they embody a shift in the surgical mindset from subjective, experience-driven decisions to objective, data-driven, and technology-enhanced interventions. This chapter delves into each technology in depth, explores clinical applications and challenges, and envisions future developments that will continue to shape the profession [17]. As the fusion of human intellect and artificial intelligence evolves, oral and maxillofacial surgeons stand at the forefront of a technological renaissance one that holds the promise of transforming patient care, surgical outcomes, and the very nature of clinical practice.

Historical Background and Technological Evolution: From Conventional Surgery to Digital Innovation in Oral and Maxillofacial Surgery

Oral and Maxillofacial Surgery (OMFS) has undergone a dramatic transformation over the past century, evolving from highly technique-sensitive manual procedures to digitally driven, precision-guided interventions [18]. This evolution has been shaped by innovations in imaging, digital design, and artificial intelligence, all culminating in the current era of robotic surgery and minimally invasive techniques.

Early Foundations: Manual Methods and 2D Imaging

For decades, OMFS was primarily guided by the surgeon’s anatomical knowledge, visual acuity, and tactile skills. Early procedures heavily relied on two-dimensional radiographic techniques such as conventional panoramic radiographs and cephalograms. While these imaging modalities were revolutionary for their time, they offered limited perspectives, often resulting in distortions or superimpositions of structures. Diagnostic accuracy largely depended on the surgeon’s ability to visualize complex three-dimensional anatomy based on flat images. This limitation not only hindered precise planning but also increased the potential risks of surgical errors [19].

Moreover, surgical steps were performed entirely by hand, with intraoperative decision-making often based on experience rather than predictive models or simulations. Consequently, successful outcomes relied heavily on individual expertise, and surgical training was long and demanding. While such methods laid the foundational principles of OMFS, they also underscored the need for technological advancements to increase accuracy, safety, and reproducibility [20].

Aspect	Traditional OMFS Practices	Limitations/Implications
Imaging Techniques	Panoramic radiographs, cephalograms (2D imaging)	Limited perspectives; distortions; superimposition of anatomical structures
Diagnostic Accuracy	Depended on surgeon’s experience in interpreting 2D images	Difficulty visualizing 3D anatomy accurately; increased risk of planning errors
Surgical Execution	Performed manually with reliance on tactile and visual skills	Decisions made intraoperatively based on experience rather than predictive models

Outcome Dependence	Highly reliant on surgeon expertise and long training	Variability in results; lower reproducibility and higher potential for surgical errors
Overall Impact	Established foundational principles of OMFS	Highlighted the need for technological improvements in accuracy, safety, and precision

Table 1: This table summarizes the traditional practices of oral and maxillofacial surgery (OMFS) and highlights their limitations before modern technological advancements.

Advances in Imaging: The Advent of CT and CBCT

The introduction of computed tomography (CT) in maxillofacial imaging marked a watershed moment in the discipline. CT provided cross-sectional images that allowed clinicians to visualize anatomical relationships in three dimensions. Surgeons could now assess bone quality, identify impacted teeth, visualize fractures, and plan reconstructive procedures with far greater precision. However, the initial use of medical-grade CT in dental applications posed challenges such as high cost and radiation exposure [21].

These limitations set the stage for the development of cone-beam computed tomography (CBCT), specifically tailored for dental and maxillofacial use. CBCT offered high-resolution 3D imaging with significantly lower radiation doses, making it suitable for routine clinical use. CBCT enabled detailed assessment of the temporomandibular joint, sinus anatomy, alveolar bone, and the spatial relationships between anatomical landmarks. The ability to manipulate digital datasets in real-time allowed surgeons to visualize surgical sites from multiple angles, understand anatomical variations, and identify potential risks before stepping into the operating room [22].

Digital Renaissance: Introduction of CAD/CAM Systems

Parallel to advancements in imaging, digital technologies further revolutionized the field with the introduction of Computer-Aided Design and Computer-Aided Manufacturing (CAD/CAM) systems. CAD/CAM marked the beginning of digital modeling and fabrication in OMS, facilitating the design and production of custom prosthetics, implants, and surgical guides [23].

In implantology, CAD/CAM enabled the fabrication of patient-specific abutments and crowns that fit precisely onto customized implant positions. In orthognathic surgery, virtual models could simulate jaw movements, predict postoperative occlusion, and design cutting guides for accurate intraoperative execution. CAD/CAM technology also supported the construction of maxillofacial prostheses for reconstructing hard and soft tissues after trauma or tumor resection. These prostheses closely matched patient anatomy due to digital impressions and 3D printing [24].

The impact of CAD/CAM extends beyond fabrication; its integration with 3D imaging allowed for virtual surgical planning (VSP). Surgeons could simulate surgical procedures in a virtual

environment, create cutting templates, and anticipate postoperative outcomes. VSP thus became a routine part of complex OMS procedures, especially in cases involving TMJ replacement, tumor resection, and corrective jaw surgery [25].

The flowchart illustrates the transformative role of CAD/CAM systems in the digital evolution of oral and maxillofacial surgery. It begins by highlighting how CAD/CAM introduced precise digital modeling and fabrication, enabling the creation of customized prosthetics, implants, and surgical guides. It then branches into key clinical applications, including implantology, orthognathic surgery, and maxillofacial reconstruction, where virtual models and digital impressions significantly enhanced accuracy and personalization. The chart concludes with the integration of CAD/CAM and 3D imaging into Virtual Surgical Planning, allowing surgeons to simulate procedures, design cutting guides, and predict outcomes for complex OMS interventions [26].

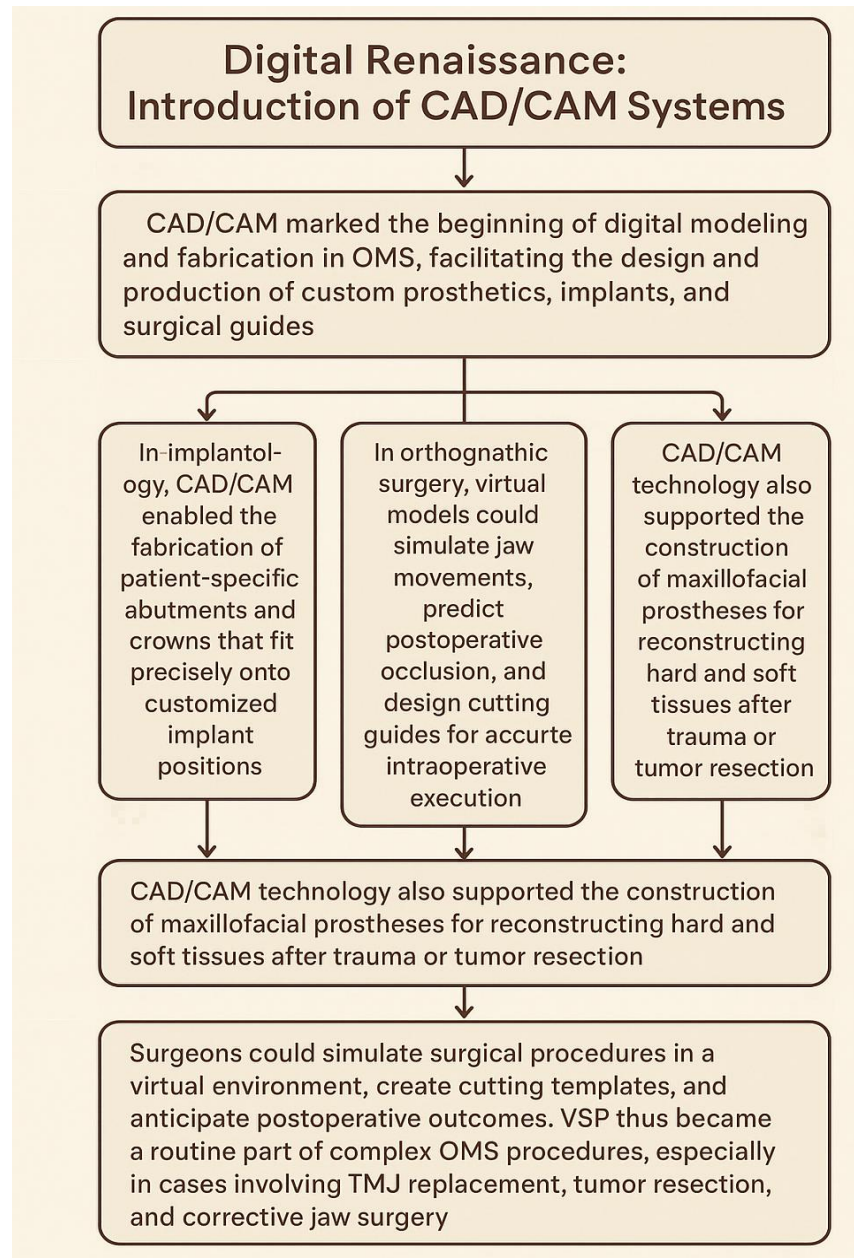


Figure 1: CAD/CAM technology transformed OMS by enabling precise digital modeling, custom fabrication, and virtual surgical planning

Transition to AI and Predictive Systems

Despite the success of CAD/CAM, manual planning and operator experience continue to play substantial roles in outcome predictability. To reduce variability and improve efficiency, artificial intelligence (AI) has emerged as a crucial technological layer. AI-powered systems analyze large datasets to detect anatomical landmarks, predict surgical outcomes, assess surgical risks, and even automate planning pathways [27].

Machine learning algorithms aid in diagnosis and treatment planning by identifying pathologies across CBCT and CT scans instantaneously, enhancing the speed and accuracy of clinical decision-making. AI also powers automated segmentation—an otherwise labor-intensive process where specific structures, such as nerves or lesions, are digitally isolated. In orthodontics, AI-driven aligners optimize tooth movement based on biomechanical modeling and patient-specific variables [28].

AI does not merely support preoperative planning; it is increasingly integrated into intraoperative navigation systems, allowing surgeons real-time guidance. Such integration allows for dynamic adjustments during surgery, reducing the need for repeated imaging and minimizing risk to vital structures. The synergy between AI and digital planning tools is gradually eliminating operator dependency, creating more reproducible and standardized surgical workflows [29].

Aspect	Description
Need for AI Integration	Manual planning and operator experience still influence outcomes, prompting the shift toward AI to improve efficiency and reduce variability.
Role of AI in Data Analysis	AI analyzes large datasets to detect anatomical landmarks, predict outcomes, assess risks, and automate planning workflows.
Machine Learning in Diagnostics	ML algorithms rapidly identify pathologies on CBCT/CT scans, improving diagnostic accuracy and speed.
AI in Automated Segmentation	AI performs segmentation of structures such as nerves and lesions, significantly reducing manual workload.
AI in Orthodontics	AI-driven aligners use biomechanical modeling and patient-specific data to optimize tooth movement.
AI in Intraoperative Navigation	AI enhances real-time surgical navigation, enabling dynamic adjustments and reducing the need for repeat imaging.
Impact on Surgical Workflow	AI improves reproducibility, reduces operator dependency, and supports highly standardized surgical planning and execution.

Table 2: The table shows how AI improves diagnostics, automates planning, guides surgery, and standardizes workflows in OMS.

Robotic-Assisted Surgery: Expanding Precision and Possibilities

In the latest phase of technological evolution, oral and maxillofacial surgery is adapting robotic systems initially designed for fields like urology, gynecology, and general surgery. Robotic-assisted surgery introduces unparalleled accuracy through tremor filtration, real-time stability, and 3D magnified views of surgical sites. These systems are especially valuable for minimally invasive surgeries in anatomically confined spaces such as the temporomandibular joint (TMJ), oropharynx, and skull base [30].

Robotic platforms, such as the da Vinci Surgical System, allow surgeons to perform delicate procedures through small incisions with enhanced dexterity. This reduces intraoperative trauma and promotes faster recovery with superior aesthetic outcomes. In TMJ surgery, robotics can aid

in precise repositioning of joint components, while in tumor excisions within the oropharynx, robotic systems enable access without requiring extensive external incisions [31].

In addition to robotic arms, passive systems like robotic-assisted navigation are becoming popular. These devices do not perform surgery themselves but guide the surgeon's hand with pre-programmed pathways based on virtual designs, significantly reducing human error.

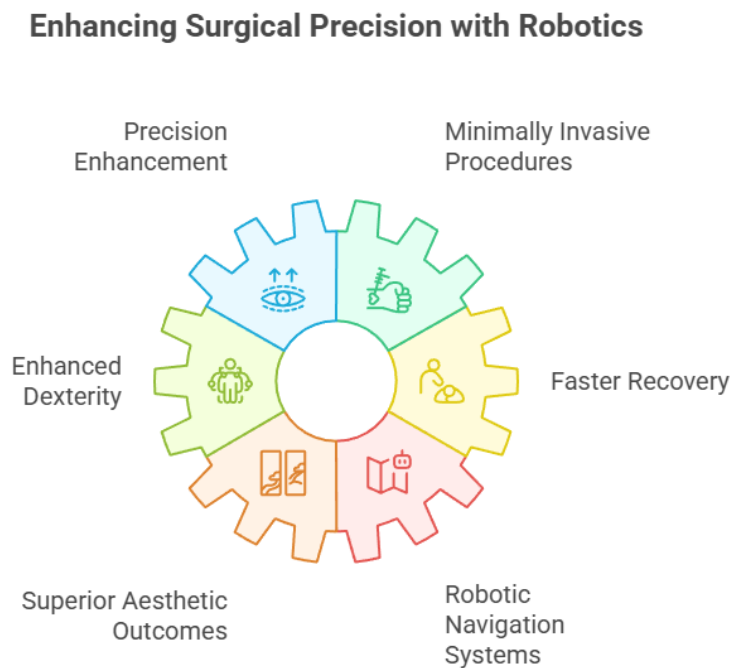


Figure 2: The figure shows how robotic systems enhance precision, reduce invasiveness, and improve surgical performance.

The Integrated Future: A Digitally Driven Surgical Ecosystem

The convergence of 3D imaging, AI, CAD/CAM, and robotics represents the hallmark of 21st-century maxillofacial surgery – precision, personalization, and prediction. Today's OMS workflows incorporate digital records, virtual planning, automated fabrication, and intraoperative robotic assistance. Through each step, digital systems reduce reliance on subjective judgment, allowing for uniformity and validated outcomes [32].

Training paradigms have also shifted. Residents are now exposed to virtual simulators, augmented reality systems, and haptic feedback models, significantly improving their skills before entering the operating room. Such technologies democratize surgical expertise and enhance patient safety [33].

In the coming years, further integration of AI and robotics, alongside advancements in augmented reality and machine vision, will bring OMS even closer to precision surgery. The

ultimate goal is seamless, algorithm-assisted interventions that automatically adapt to each patient’s anatomy and real-time surgical context, ensuring optimal outcomes with minimal invasiveness [34].

Type of Robotic System	Description	Example/Features
Master-Slave Systems	Surgeon controls robotic arms remotely via a console; robot mirrors movements	Example: Da Vinci Surgical System – Provides enhanced precision and dexterity
Robotic Navigation Systems	Guides surgical tools based on preoperative planning and imaging data	Used for implant placement and osteotomy; integrated with CBCT & 3D planning
Autonomous Robotic Tools	In development; capable of performing tasks independently using AI guidance	AI-powered systems executing pre-planned procedures with minimal intervention

Table 3: The table compares robotic systems from master-slave models to AI-driven autonomous tools, highlighting precision control and imaging-guided navigation.

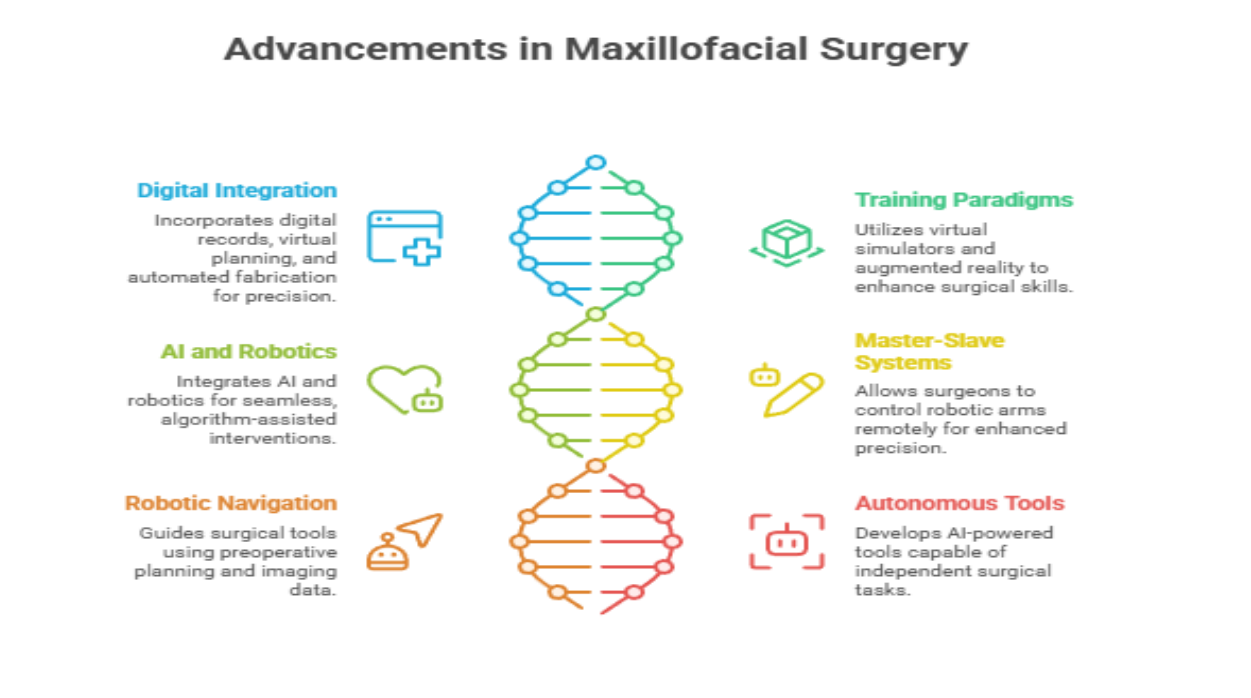


Figure 3: The figure shows how AI-robotics and digital technologies enhance precision and surgical capabilities in maxillofacial surgery.

Applications in Maxillofacial Surgery

1. Tumor Resections:

Transoral robotic surgery (TORS) has become a powerful tool for accessing difficult areas of the oropharynx, base of the tongue, and larynx. Robots allow surgeons to navigate narrow anatomical spaces with precision, reducing surgical morbidity.

2. Orthognathic Surgery:

Robotic systems can be used to perform precise bone cuts, reposition jaws, and ensure symmetry.

3. TMJ Surgery:

Robotic systems aid in the placement of prosthetic joints, combining 3D imaging with navigated robotics.

4. Implant Dentistry:

Robotic assisted implant placement enhances accuracy, especially in anatomically sensitive or compromised regions.

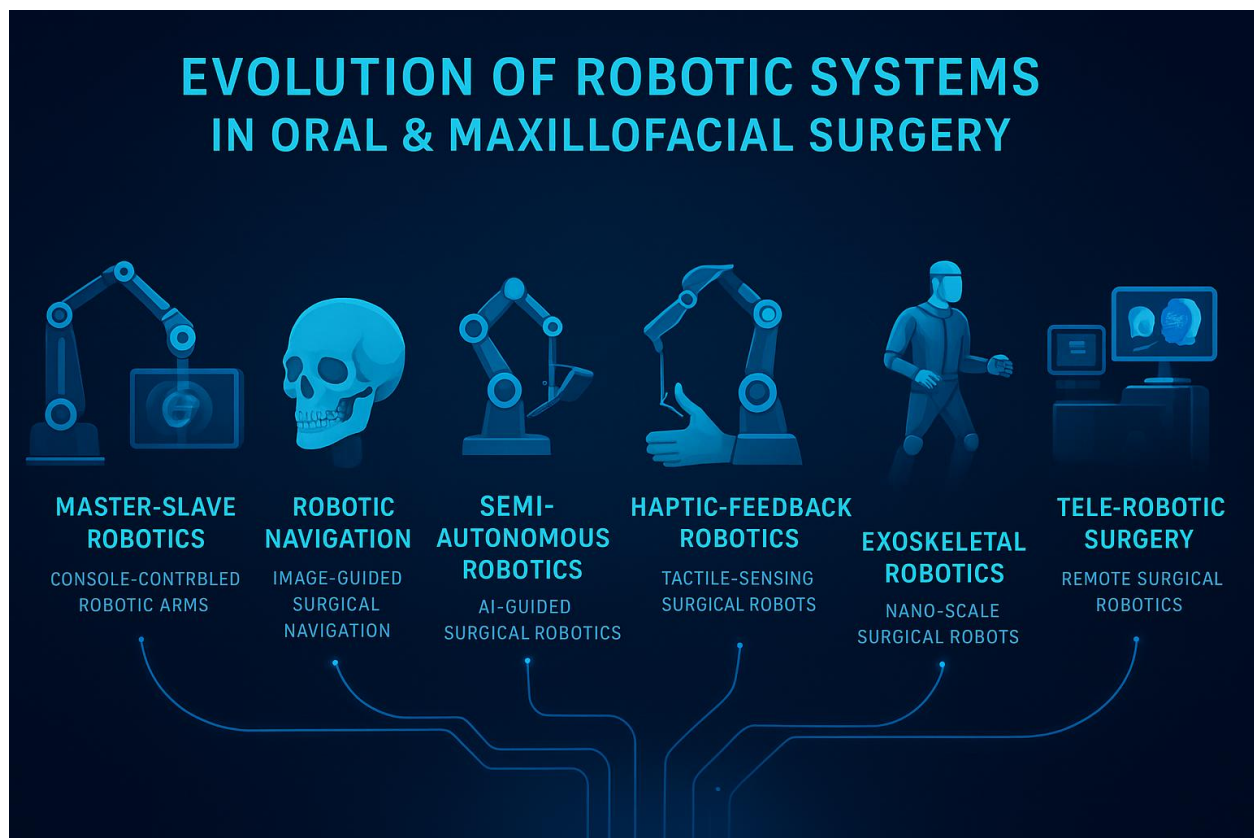


Figure 4: The figure visually represents the progressive evolution of robotic technologies in OMS, from surgeon controlled systems to advanced AI-driven and autonomous platforms.

The figure presents a futuristic overview of the evolution of robotic technologies in Oral and Maxillofacial Surgery. It illustrates the progression from early master slave robotic systems controlled entirely by the surgeon to more advanced navigation integrated platforms that enhance precision through CBCT guided planning. The visual flow then highlights semi autonomous and AI assisted robotic systems capable of executing pre-planned tasks with minimal intervention. At the top, the diagram depicts next generation innovations such as nano-robotics, intelligent assistants, and haptic-feedback microsurgical tools. Overall, the figure captures the technological journey shaping the future of digitally enhanced, precision driven OMS practice [35].

Conclusion

The integration of robotics, artificial intelligence, and virtual surgical planning marks a transformative era in oral and maxillofacial surgery. These technologies collectively address the limitations of traditional manual techniques by enhancing diagnostic accuracy, improving surgical precision, and supporting predictable, patient-specific outcomes. Robotics enables minimally invasive access and refined manipulation in complex anatomical regions, while AI enhances diagnostics, automates planning, and offers real-time intraoperative guidance. Virtual surgical planning further strengthens preoperative preparation through 3D simulations, custom implant design, and precise surgical guides.

Together, these innovations create a digitally driven surgical workflow that reduces operator dependency, minimizes complications, and improves both functional and aesthetic results. Although challenges such as cost, training, and ethical considerations persist, the continuous integration of digital tools ensures that OMS is moving toward a future defined by precision, personalization, and improved patient care. This digital evolution is reshaping the surgeon's role and setting new standards for excellence in the field.

BIBLIOGRAPHY:

CHAPTER 1: ROLE OF IMAGING IN ORAL CANCER DETECTION AND MANAGEMENT

1. Coelho K. R. (2012). Challenges of the oral cancer burden in India. *Journal of cancer epidemiology*, 2012, 701932. <https://doi.org/10.1155/2012/701932>
2. González-Moles, M. Á., Aguilar-Ruiz, M., & Ramos-García, P. (2022). Challenges in the Early Diagnosis of Oral Cancer, Evidence Gaps and Strategies for Improvement: A Scoping Review of Systematic Reviews. *Cancers*, 14(19), 4967. <https://doi.org/10.3390/cancers14194967>
3. Wang, J., Hesketh, R. L., Gore, J. C., & Brindle, K. M. (2025). The need for evidence-based, outcome-focused medical imaging research for cancer management. *npj Imaging*, 3, 6. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s44303-024-00067-7>
4. González-Ruiz, I., Ramos-García, P., Ruiz-Ávila, I., & González-Moles, M. Á. (2023). Early Diagnosis of Oral Cancer: A Complex Polyhedral Problem with a Difficult Solution. *Cancers*, 15(13), 3270. <https://doi.org/10.3390/cancers15133270>
5. Kushwaha, M., Kumar, J., Garg, A., Singh, I., & Khurana, N. (2023). Differentiation of various salivary gland tumours using diffusion-weighted MRI and dynamic contrast-enhanced MRI. *Polish journal of radiology*, 88, e203–e215. <https://doi.org/10.5114/pjr.2023.127058>
6. Fujimoto, J. G., Pitris, C., Boppart, S. A., & Brezinski, M. E. (2000). Optical coherence tomography: an emerging technology for biomedical imaging and optical biopsy. *Neoplasia* (New York, N.Y.), 2(1-2), 9–25. <https://doi.org/10.1038/sj.neo.7900071>
7. Rosen RD, Sapra A. TNM Classification. [Updated 2023 Feb 13]. In: StatPearls [Internet]. Treasure Island (FL): StatPearls Publishing; 2025 Jan-. Available from: <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/books/NBK553187/>
8. Kapoor M, Heston TF, Kasi A. PET Scanning. [Updated 2025 Feb 26]. In: StatPearls [Internet]. Treasure Island (FL): StatPearls Publishing; 2025 Jan-. Available from: <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/books/NBK559089/>
9. Tshering Vogel, D. W., & Thoeny, H. C. (2016). Cross-sectional imaging in cancers of the head and neck: how we review and report. *Cancer imaging : the official publication of the International Cancer Imaging Society*, 16(1), 20. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s40644-016-0075-3>
10. Chakrabarty, N., Mahajan, A., Agrawal, A., Prabhash, K., & D'Cruz, A. K. (2024). Comprehensive review of post-treatment imaging in head and neck cancers: from expected to unexpected and beyond. *The British journal of radiology*, 97(1164), 1898–1914. <https://doi.org/10.1093/bjr/tqae207>
11. Bi, W. L., Hosny, A., Schabath, M. B., Giger, M. L., Birkbak, N. J., Mehrtash, A., Allison, T., Arnaout, O., Abbosh, C., Dunn, I. F., Mak, R. H., Tamimi, R. M., Tempany, C. M., Swanton, C., Hoffmann, U., Schwartz, L. H., Gillies, R. J., Huang, R. Y., & Aerts, H. J. W. L. (2019). Artificial intelligence in cancer imaging: Clinical challenges and applications. *CA: a cancer journal for clinicians*, 69(2), 127–157. <https://doi.org/10.3322/caac.21552>

12. Tranby, E. P., Heaton, L. J., Tomar, S. L., Kelly, A. L., Fager, G. L., Backley, M., & Frantsve-Hawley, J. (2022). Oral Cancer Prevalence, Mortality, and Costs in Medicaid and Commercial Insurance Claims Data. *Cancer epidemiology, biomarkers & prevention : a publication of the American Association for Cancer Research, cosponsored by the American Society of Preventive Oncology*, 31(9), 1849–1857. <https://doi.org/10.1158/1055-9965.EPI-22-0114>
13. Niaz, K., Maqbool, F., Khan, F., Bahadar, H., Ismail Hassan, F., & Abdollahi, M. (2017). Smokeless tobacco (paan and gutkha) consumption, prevalence, and contribution to oral cancer. *Epidemiology and health*, 39, e2017009. <https://doi.org/10.4178/epih.e2017009>
14. Lenoci, D., Moresco, E., Cavalieri, S., Bergamini, C., Torchia, E., Botta, L., Canevari, S., Trama, A., Licitra, L., & De Cecco, L. (2024). Oral cancer in young adults: incidence, risk factors, prognosis, and molecular biomarkers. *Frontiers in oncology*, 14, 1452909. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fonc.2024.1452909>
15. Muthu, K., & Vaishnavi, V. (2018). Warning signs and symptoms of oral cancer and its differential diagnosis. *Journal of Young Pharmacists*, 10(2), 138.
16. Wu, M., & Shu, J. (2018). Multimodal Molecular Imaging: Current Status and Future Directions. *Contrast media & molecular imaging*, 2018, 1382183. <https://doi.org/10.1155/2018/1382183>
17. Kasat, P. R., Parihar, P., Kashikar, S. V., Sachani, P., Shrivastava, P., Pradeep, U., Mapari, S. A., & Bedi, G. N. (2024). A Comprehensive Review of Advancements in Diagnostic Imaging: Unveiling Oral Cavity Malignancies Using Computed Tomography. *Cureus*, 16(7), e64045. <https://doi.org/10.7759/cureus.64045>
18. Gökçe, E., & Beyhan, M. (2022). Advanced magnetic resonance imaging findings in salivary gland tumors. *World journal of radiology*, 14(8), 256–271. <https://doi.org/10.4329/wjr.v14.i8.256>
19. Kawahara, D., & Nagata, Y. (2021). T1-weighted and T2-weighted MRI image synthesis with convolutional generative adversarial networks. *Reports of practical oncology and radiotherapy : journal of Great Poland Cancer Center in Poznan and Polish Society of Radiation Oncology*, 26(1), 35–42. <https://doi.org/10.5603/RPOR.a2021.0005>
20. Marotti, J., Heger, S., Tinschert, J., Tortamano, P., Chuembou, F., Radermacher, K., & Wolfart, S. (2013). Recent advances of ultrasound imaging in dentistry—a review of the literature. *Oral surgery, oral medicine, oral pathology and oral radiology*, 115(6), 819–832.
21. Zhu, A., Lee, D., & Shim, H. (2011). Metabolic positron emission tomography imaging in cancer detection and therapy response. *Seminars in oncology*, 38(1), 55–69. <https://doi.org/10.1053/j.seminoncol.2010.11.012>
22. Venkatesh, E., & Elluru, S. V. (2017). Cone beam computed tomography: basics and applications in dentistry. *Journal of Istanbul University Faculty of Dentistry*, 51(3 Suppl 1), S102–S121. <https://doi.org/10.17096/jiufd.00289>
23. Olivo, M., Bhuvaneswari, R., & Keogh, I. (2011). Advances in bio-optical imaging for the diagnosis of early oral cancer. *Pharmaceutics*, 3(3), 354–378. <https://doi.org/10.3390/pharmaceutics3030354>
24. Uno, K., Koike, T., & Shimosegawa, T. (2015). Recent development of optical coherence tomography for preoperative diagnosis of esophageal malignancies. *World journal of gastrointestinal endoscopy*, 7(9), 872–880. <https://doi.org/10.4253/wjge.v7.i9.872>

25. Umapathy, V. R., Natarajan, P. M., Swamikannu, B., Jaganathan, S., Rajinikanth, S., & Periyasamy, V. (2024). Role of Artificial Intelligence in Oral Cancer. *Advances in Public Health*, 2024(1), 3664408.
26. Loud, J. T., & Murphy, J. (2017). Cancer Screening and Early Detection in the 21st Century. *Seminars in oncology nursing*, 33(2), 121–128. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.soncn.2017.02.002>
27. Kumari, P., Debta, P., & Dixit, A. (2022). Oral Potentially Malignant Disorders: Etiology, Pathogenesis, and Transformation Into Oral Cancer. *Frontiers in pharmacology*, 13, 825266. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fphar.2022.825266>
28. Jung, W., & Boppart, S. A. (2012). Optical coherence tomography for rapid tissue screening and directed histological sectioning. *Analytical cellular pathology (Amsterdam)*, 35(3), 129–143. <https://doi.org/10.3233/ACP-2011-0047>
29. Warnakulasuriya, S., & Chen, T. H. H. (2022). Areca Nut and Oral Cancer: Evidence from Studies Conducted in Humans. *Journal of dental research*, 101(10), 1139–1146. <https://doi.org/10.1177/00220345221092751>
30. Sharma, A., Sharma, A., Bansal, A. K., Goyal, C., Mankotia, S., Parmar, M., & Mahant, S. (2022). To Evaluate the Efficacy of Tissue Autofluorescence (Velscope) in the Visualization of Oral Premalignant and Malignant Lesions among High-Risk Population Aged 18 Years and Above in Haroli Block of Una, Himachal Pradesh. *Journal of International Society of Preventive & Community Dentistry*, 12(3), 365–375. https://doi.org/10.4103/jispcd.JISPCD_22_22
31. Romano, A., Di Stasio, D., Petruzzi, M., Fiori, F., Lajolo, C., Santarelli, A., Lucchese, A., Serpico, R., & Contaldo, M. (2021). Noninvasive Imaging Methods to Improve the Diagnosis of Oral Carcinoma and Its Precursors: State of the Art and Proposal of a Three-Step Diagnostic Process. *Cancers*, 13(12), 2864. <https://doi.org/10.3390/cancers13122864>
32. Croce, A. C., & Bottiroli, G. (2014). Autofluorescence spectroscopy and imaging: a tool for biomedical research and diagnosis. *European journal of histochemistry : EJH*, 58(4), 2461. <https://doi.org/10.4081/ejh.2014.2461>
33. Pfaehler, E., Schindele, A., Dierks, A., Busse, C., Brumberg, J., Kübler, A. C., Buck, A. K., Linz, C., Lapa, C., Brands, R. C., & Kertels, O. (2025). Value of PET radiomic features for diagnosis and recurrence prediction of newly diagnosed oral squamous cell carcinoma. *Scientific reports*, 15(1), 17475. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-025-02305-3>
34. Ilhan, B., Lin, K., Guneri, P., & Wilder-Smith, P. (2020). Improving Oral Cancer Outcomes with Imaging and Artificial Intelligence. *Journal of dental research*, 99(3), 241–248. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0022034520902128>
35. Dikken, J. L., van de Velde, C. J., Gönen, M., Verheij, M., Brennan, M. F., & Coit, D. G. (2012). The New American Joint Committee on Cancer/International Union Against Cancer staging system for adenocarcinoma of the stomach: increased complexity without clear improvement in predictive accuracy. *Annals of surgical oncology*, 19(8), 2443–2451. <https://doi.org/10.1245/s10434-012-2403-6>
36. Mahieu, R., de Maar, J. S., Nieuwenhuis, E. R., Deckers, R., Moonen, C., Alic, L., ... & Bree, R. D. (2020). New developments in imaging for sentinel lymph node biopsy in early-stage oral cavity squamous cell carcinoma. *Cancers*, 12(10), 3055.
37. Tshering Vogel, D. W., Zbaeren, P., & Thoeny, H. C. (2010). Cancer of the oral cavity and oropharynx. *Cancer imaging : the official publication of the International Cancer Imaging Society*, 10(1), 62–72. <https://doi.org/10.1102/1470-7330.2010.0008>

38. Wu, E. H., Chen, Y. L., Toh, C. H., Ko, S. F., Lin, Y. C., & Ng, S. H. (2013). CT-guided core needle biopsy of deep suprahyoid head and neck lesions in untreated patients. *Interventional neuroradiology : journal of peritherapeutic neuroradiology, surgical procedures and related neurosciences*, 19(3), 365–369. <https://doi.org/10.1177/159101991301900315>
39. Al Qout, M. M., Al Hamoud, M., AlQahtani, M. S., Alqahtani, A. Y., Asiri, A. H., & Alshahrani, A. A. (2023). The Diagnostic Value of Fine-Needle Aspiration Cytology in Cervical Lymphadenopathy in Correlation to Postoperative Histopathological Results in a Tertiary Care Center in Saudi Arabia. *Cureus*, 15(9), e46210. <https://doi.org/10.7759/cureus.46210>
40. Liang, S., Han, P., Fei, X., Zhu, L., Peng, L., Xie, F., & Luo, Y. (2025). High-frequency contrast-enhanced ultrasound in discriminating benign and malignant superficial lymph nodes: a diagnostic comparison. *BMC cancer*, 25(1), 961. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12885-025-14238-1>
41. Hecht, N., Czabanka, M., Kendlbacher, P., Raff, J. H., Bohner, G., & Vajkoczy, P. (2020). Intraoperative CT and cone-beam CT imaging for minimally invasive evacuation of spontaneous intracerebral hemorrhage. *Acta neurochirurgica*, 162(12), 3167–3177. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00701-020-04284-y>
42. Pereira, G. C., Traughber, M., & Muzic, R. F., Jr (2014). The role of imaging in radiation therapy planning: past, present, and future. *BioMed research international*, 2014, 231090. <https://doi.org/10.1155/2014/231090>
43. Florkow, M. C., Willemsen, K., Mascarenhas, V. V., Oei, E. H. G., van Stralen, M., & Seevinck, P. R. (2022). Magnetic Resonance Imaging Versus Computed Tomography for Three-Dimensional Bone Imaging of Musculoskeletal Pathologies: A Review. *Journal of magnetic resonance imaging : JMRI*, 56(1), 11–34. <https://doi.org/10.1002/jmri.28067>
44. Efanov, J. I., Roy, A. A., Huang, K. N., & Borsuk, D. E. (2018). Virtual Surgical Planning: The Pearls and Pitfalls. *Plastic and reconstructive surgery. Global open*, 6(1), e1443. <https://doi.org/10.1097/GOX.0000000000001443>
45. Bortot, B., Mangogna, A., Di Lorenzo, G., Stabile, G., Ricci, G., & Biffi, S. (2023). Image-guided cancer surgery: a narrative review on imaging modalities and emerging nanotechnology strategies. *Journal of nanobiotechnology*, 21(1), 155. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12951-023-01926-y>
46. Huang, S. H., & O'Sullivan, B. (2013). Oral cancer: Current role of radiotherapy and chemotherapy. *Medicina oral, patologia oral y cirugia bucal*, 18(2), e233–e240. <https://doi.org/10.4317/medoral.18772>
47. Thariat, J., Carsuzaa, F., Beddok, A., Deneuve, S., Marcy, P. Y., Merlotti, A., Dejean, C., & Devauchelle, B. (2024). Reconstructive flap surgery in head and neck cancer patients: an interdisciplinary view of the challenges encountered by radiation oncologists in postoperative radiotherapy. *Frontiers in oncology*, 14, 1379861. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fonc.2024.1379861>
48. Chen, Y., Zhong, N. N., Cao, L. M., Liu, B., & Bu, L. L. (2024). Surgical margins in head and neck squamous cell carcinoma: A narrative review. *International journal of surgery (London, England)*, 110(6), 3680–3700. <https://doi.org/10.1097/JS9.0000000000001306>
49. Padhani, A. R., Liu, G., Koh, D. M., Chenevert, T. L., Thoeny, H. C., Takahara, T., Dzik-Jurasz, A., Ross, B. D., Van Cauteren, M., Collins, D., Hammoud, D. A., Rustin, G. J., Taouli, B., & Choyke, P. L. (2009). Diffusion-weighted magnetic resonance imaging as a

- cancer biomarker: consensus and recommendations. *Neoplasia* (New York, N.Y.), 11(2), 102–125. <https://doi.org/10.1593/neo.81328>
50. Hermans R. (2004). Post-treatment imaging of head and neck cancer. *Cancer imaging : the official publication of the International Cancer Imaging Society*, 4 Spec No A(Spec No A), S6–S15. <https://doi.org/10.1102/1470-7330.2004.0007>
 51. Sumana, B. S., & Muniyappa, B. (2015). Ultrasonography Guided Fine Needle Aspiration Cytology with Preparation of Cell Blocks in the Diagnosis of Intra- Abdominal Masses. *Journal of clinical and diagnostic research : JCDR*, 9(12), EC08–EC12. <https://doi.org/10.7860/JCDR/2015/16490.6869>
 52. Stieb, S., McDonald, B., Gronberg, M., Engeseth, G. M., He, R., & Fuller, C. D. (2019). Imaging for Target Delineation and Treatment Planning in Radiation Oncology: Current and Emerging Techniques. *Hematology/oncology clinics of North America*, 33(6), 963–975. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.hoc.2019.08.008>
 53. Burnet, N. G., Thomas, S. J., Burton, K. E., & Jefferies, S. J. (2004). Defining the tumour and target volumes for radiotherapy. *Cancer imaging : the official publication of the International Cancer Imaging Society*, 4(2), 153–161. <https://doi.org/10.1102/1470-7330.2004.0054>
 54. Vinay, V., Jodalli, P., Chavan, M. S., Buddhikot, C. S., Luke, A. M., Ingafou, M. S. H., Reda, R., Pawar, A. M., & Testarelli, L. (2025). Artificial Intelligence in Oral Cancer: A Comprehensive Scoping Review of Diagnostic and Prognostic Applications. *Diagnostics* (Basel, Switzerland), 15(3), 280. <https://doi.org/10.3390/diagnostics15030280>
 55. Zoabi, A., Redenski, I., Oren, D., Kasem, A., Zigron, A., Daoud, S., Moskovich, L., Kablan, F., & Srouji, S. (2022). 3D Printing and Virtual Surgical Planning in Oral and Maxillofacial Surgery. *Journal of clinical medicine*, 11(9), 2385. <https://doi.org/10.3390/jcm11092385>
 56. Katsoulakis, E., Yu, Y., Apte, A. P., Leeman, J. E., Katabi, N., Morris, L., Deasy, J. O., Chan, T. A., Lee, N. Y., Riaz, N., Hatzoglou, V., & Oh, J. H. (2020). Radiomic analysis identifies tumor subtypes associated with distinct molecular and microenvironmental factors in head and neck squamous cell carcinoma. *Oral oncology*, 110, 104877. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.oraloncology.2020.104877>
 57. Genden, E. M., Ferlito, A., Silver, C. E., Takes, R. P., Suárez, C., Owen, R. P., Haigentz, M., Jr, Stoeckli, S. J., Shaha, A. R., Rapidis, A. D., Rodrigo, J. P., & Rinaldo, A. (2010). Contemporary management of cancer of the oral cavity. *European archives of oto-rhino-laryngology : official journal of the European Federation of Oto-Rhino-Laryngological Societies (EUFOS) : affiliated with the German Society for Oto-Rhino-Laryngology - Head and Neck Surgery*, 267(7), 1001–1017. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00405-010-1206-2>
 58. Purohit, B. S., Ailianou, A., Dulguerov, N., Becker, C. D., Ratib, O., & Becker, M. (2014). FDG-PET/CT pitfalls in oncological head and neck imaging. *Insights into imaging*, 5(5), 585–602. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s13244-014-0349-x>
 59. Padhani, A. R., Liu, G., Koh, D. M., Chenevert, T. L., Thoeny, H. C., Takahara, T., Dzik-Jurasz, A., Ross, B. D., Van Cauteren, M., Collins, D., Hammoud, D. A., Rustin, G. J., Taouli, B., & Choyke, P. L. (2009). Diffusion-weighted magnetic resonance imaging as a cancer biomarker: consensus and recommendations. *Neoplasia* (New York, N.Y.), 11(2), 102–125. <https://doi.org/10.1593/neo.81328>

60. Wang, L., Chen, X., Zhang, L., Li, L., Huang, Y., Sun, Y., & Yuan, X. (2023). Artificial intelligence in clinical decision support systems for oncology. *International journal of medical sciences*, 20(1), 79–86. <https://doi.org/10.7150/ijms.77205>
61. Takalkar, A. M., El-Haddad, G., & Lilien, D. L. (2008). FDG-PET and PET/CT - Part II. *The Indian Journal of Radiology & Imaging*, 18(1), 17–36. <https://doi.org/10.4103/0971-3026.38504>
62. Pallumeera, M., Giang, J. C., Singh, R., Pracha, N. S., & Makary, M. S. (2025). Evolving and Novel Applications of Artificial Intelligence in Cancer Imaging. *Cancers*, 17(9), 1510. <https://doi.org/10.3390/cancers17091510>
63. Ahuja, A. T., Ying, M., Ho, S. Y., Antonio, G., Lee, Y. P., King, A. D., & Wong, K. T. (2008). Ultrasound of malignant cervical lymph nodes. *Cancer imaging : the official publication of the International Cancer Imaging Society*, 8(1), 48–56. <https://doi.org/10.1102/1470-7330.2008.0006>
64. Adhit, K. K., Wanjari, A., Menon, S., & K, S. (2023). Liquid Biopsy: An Evolving Paradigm for Non-invasive Disease Diagnosis and Monitoring in Medicine. *Cureus*, 15(12), e50176. <https://doi.org/10.7759/cureus.50176>
65. Vinay, V., Jodalli, P., Chavan, M. S., Buddhikot, C. S., Luke, A. M., Ingafou, M. S. H., Reda, R., Pawar, A. M., & Testarelli, L. (2025). Artificial Intelligence in Oral Cancer: A Comprehensive Scoping Review of Diagnostic and Prognostic Applications. *Diagnostics (Basel, Switzerland)*, 15(3), 280. <https://doi.org/10.3390/diagnostics15030280>
66. Bi, W. L., Hosny, A., Schabath, M. B., Giger, M. L., Birkbak, N. J., Mehrtash, A., Allison, T., Arnaout, O., Abbosh, C., Dunn, I. F., Mak, R. H., Tamimi, R. M., Tempany, C. M., Swanton, C., Hoffmann, U., Schwartz, L. H., Gillies, R. J., Huang, R. Y., & Aerts, H. J. W. L. (2019). Artificial intelligence in cancer imaging: Clinical challenges and applications. *CA: a cancer journal for clinicians*, 69(2), 127–157. <https://doi.org/10.3322/caac.21552>
67. Liu, Z., Duan, T., Zhang, Y., Weng, S., Xu, H., Ren, Y., Zhang, Z., & Han, X. (2023). Radiogenomics: a key component of precision cancer medicine. *British journal of cancer*, 129(5), 741–753. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41416-023-02317-8>
68. Mirón Mombiela, R., Arildskov, A. R., Bruun, F. J., Hasselbalch, L. H., Holst, K. B., Rasmussen, S. H., & Borrás, C. (2022). What Genetics Can Do for Oncological Imaging: A Systematic Review of the Genetic Validation Data Used in Radiomics Studies. *International Journal of Molecular Sciences*, 23(12), 6504. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijms23126504>
69. Kolla, L., & Parikh, R. B. (2024). Uses and limitations of artificial intelligence for oncology. *Cancer*, 130(12), 2101–2107. <https://doi.org/10.1002/cncr.35307>
70. Pinto-Coelho L. (2023). How Artificial Intelligence Is Shaping Medical Imaging Technology: A Survey of Innovations and Applications. *Bioengineering (Basel, Switzerland)*, 10(12), 1435. <https://doi.org/10.3390/bioengineering10121435>

CHAPTER 2: ADVANCES IN CLEAR ALIGNERS: THE FUTURE OF ORTHODONTIC TREATMENT

1. Ghodasra R, Brizuela M. Orthodontics, Malocclusion. [Updated 2023 Apr 23]. In: StatPearls [Internet]. Treasure Island (FL): StatPearls Publishing; 2025 Jan-. Available from: <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/books/NBK592395/>
2. Mundhada, V. V., Jadhav, V. V., & Reche, A. (2023). A Review on Orthodontic Brackets and Their Application in Clinical Orthodontics. *Cureus*, 15(10), e46615. <https://doi.org/10.7759/cureus.46615>
3. Putrino, A., Barbato, E., & Galluccio, G. (2021). Clear aligners: Between evolution and efficiency—A scoping review. *International journal of environmental research and public health*, 18(6), 2870.
4. Katib, H. S., Hakami, A. M., Albalawei, M., Alhajri, S. A., Alruwaily, M. S., Almusallam, M. I., & Alqahtani, G. H. (2024). Stability and Success of Clear Aligners in Orthodontics: A Narrative Review. *Cureus*, 16(1), e52038. <https://doi.org/10.7759/cureus.52038>
5. Pandey, R., Kamble, R., & Kanani, H. (2024). Revolutionizing Smiles: Advancing Orthodontics Through Digital Innovation. *Cureus*, 16(7), e64086. <https://doi.org/10.7759/cureus.64086>
6. Mendes Ribeiro, S. M., Aragón, M. L. S. C., Espinosa, D. D. S. G., Shibasaki, W. M. M., & Normando, D. (2024). Orthodontic aligners: between passion and science. *Dental press journal of orthodontics*, 28(6), e23spe6. <https://doi.org/10.1590/2177-6709.28.6.e23spe6>
7. Tamer, İ., Öztaş, E., & Marşan, G. (2019). Orthodontic Treatment with Clear Aligners and The Scientific Reality Behind Their Marketing: A Literature Review. *Turkish journal of orthodontics*, 32(4), 241–246. <https://doi.org/10.5152/TurkJOrthod.2019.18083>
8. Narongdej, P., Hassanpour, M., Alterman, N., Rawlins-Buchanan, F., & Barjasteh, E. (2024). Advancements in Clear Aligner Fabrication: A Comprehensive Review of Direct-3D Printing Technologies. *Polymers*, 16(3), 371. <https://doi.org/10.3390/polym16030371>
9. Aksoy, U., Aksoy, S., Kırmızı, D., & Orhan, K. (2024). Pierre Fauchard (1678-1761): Pioneering Dental Surgeon of the Enlightenment Age. *Cureus*, 16(9), e69563. <https://doi.org/10.7759/cureus.69563>
10. Asbell, M. B. (1990). A brief history of orthodontics. *Am J Orthod Dentofacial Orthop*, 98(3), 206-13.
11. AlMogbel A. (2023). Clear Aligner Therapy: Up to date review article. *Journal of orthodontic science*, 12, 37. https://doi.org/10.4103/jos.jos_30_23
12. Nakornnoi, T., Srirodjanakul, W., Chintavalakorn, R., Santiwong, P., & Sipiyaruk, K. (2024). The biomechanical effects of clear aligner trimline designs and extensions on orthodontic tooth movement: a systematic review. *BMC oral health*, 24(1), 1523. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12903-024-05274-7>
13. Jian, F., Lai, W., Furness, S., McIntyre, G. T., Millett, D. T., Hickman, J., & Wang, Y. (2013). Initial arch wires for tooth alignment during orthodontic treatment with fixed appliances. *The Cochrane database of systematic reviews*, 2013(4), CD007859. <https://doi.org/10.1002/14651858.CD007859.pub3>
14. Al-Nadawi, M., Kravitz, N. D., Hansa, I., Makki, L., Ferguson, D. J., & Vaid, N. R. (2021). Effect of clear aligner wear protocol on the efficacy of tooth movement. *The Angle orthodontist*, 91(2), 157–163. <https://doi.org/10.2319/071520-630.1>

15. Katib, H. S., Hakami, A. M., Albalawei, M., Alhajri, S. A., Alruwaily, M. S., Almusallam, M. I., & Alqahtani, G. H. (2024). Stability and Success of Clear Aligners in Orthodontics: A Narrative Review. *Cureus*, 16(1), e52038. <https://doi.org/10.7759/cureus.52038>
16. Bichu, Y. M., Alwafi, A., Liu, X., Andrews, J., Ludwig, B., Bichu, A. Y., & Zou, B. (2022). Advances in orthodontic clear aligner materials. *Bioactive materials*, 22, 384–403. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bioactmat.2022.10.006>
17. Thurzo, A., Kurilová, V., & Varga, I. (2021). Artificial Intelligence in Orthodontic Smart Application for Treatment Coaching and Its Impact on Clinical Performance of Patients Monitored with AI-TeleHealth System. *Healthcare (Basel, Switzerland)*, 9(12), 1695. <https://doi.org/10.3390/healthcare9121695>
18. Jedliński, M., Mazur, M., Greco, M., Belfus, J., Grocholewicz, K., & Janiszewska-Olszowska, J. (2023). Attachments for the Orthodontic Aligner Treatment-State of the Art-A Comprehensive Systematic Review. *International journal of environmental research and public health*, 20(5), 4481. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph20054481>
19. Farret M. M. (2023). Orthodontic biomechanics with intermaxillary elastics. *Dental press journal of orthodontics*, 28(3), e23spe3. <https://doi.org/10.1590/2177-6709.28.3.e23spe3>
20. Alogaibi, Y. A., Al-Fraidi, A. A., Alhajrasi, M. K., Alkhathami, S. S., Hatrom, A., & Afify, A. R. (2021). Distalization in Orthodontics: A Review and Case Series. *Case reports in dentistry*, 2021, 8843959. <https://doi.org/10.1155/2021/8843959>
21. Husain, F., Warunek, S., Gurav, A., Giangreco, T., Tanberg, W., & Al-Jewair, T. (2024). Influence of Invisalign precision bite ramp utilization on deep bite correction and root length in adults. *The Angle orthodontist*, 94(5), 488–495. <https://doi.org/10.2319/012724-70.1>
22. Thimmaiah, C., Tomer, G., Devanna, R., Sharma, A., Sharma, T., Majumdar, A., & Das, A. C. (2024). Comparison of orthodontic clear aligners and fixed appliances for anterior teeth retraction using finite element analysis. *Bioinformation*, 20(9), 1187–1190. <https://doi.org/10.6026/9732063002001187>
23. Hartshorne, J., & Wertheimer, M. B. (2022). Emerging insights and new developments in clear aligner therapy: a review of the literature. *AJO-DO Clinical Companion*, 2(4), 311–324.
24. Xiang, B., Wang, X., Wu, G., Xu, Y., Wang, M., Yang, Y., & Wang, Q. (2021). The force effects of two types of polyethylene terephthalate glyc-olmodified clear aligners immersed in artificial saliva. *Scientific reports*, 11(1), 10052. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-021-89425-8>
25. Bräscher, A. K., Zuran, D., Feldmann, R. E., Jr, & Benrath, J. (2016). Patient survey on Invisalign® treatment comparing [corrected] the SmartTrack® material to the previously used [corrected] aligner material. *Patientenbefragung zur Einschätzung unterschiedlicher Schienenmaterialien bei der Therapie mit Invisalign®-Schienen. Journal of orofacial orthopedics = Fortschritte der Kieferorthopädie : Organ/official journal Deutsche Gesellschaft für Kieferorthopädie*, 77(6), 432–438. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00056-016-0051-3>
26. Siotou, K., Chountalas, T., Katsavrias, A., Siotos, C., Mpalias, K., Semitekolos, D., Charitidis, C., & Tsolakis, A. I. (2025). The Mechanical Properties of Orthodontic Aligners of Clear Aligner After Intraoral Use in Different Time Periods. *Orthodontics & craniofacial research*, 28(2), 253–260. <https://doi.org/10.1111/ocr.12867>

27. Bichu, Y. M., Alwafi, A., Liu, X., Andrews, J., Ludwig, B., Bichu, A. Y., & Zou, B. (2022). Advances in orthodontic clear aligner materials. *Bioactive materials*, 22, 384–403. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bioactmat.2022.10.006>
28. AlMogbel A. (2023). Clear Aligner Therapy: Up to date review article. *Journal of orthodontic science*, 12, 37. https://doi.org/10.4103/jos.jos_30_23
29. Jain, S., Sayed, M. E., Khawaji, R. A. A., Hakami, G. A. J., Solan, E. H. M., Daish, M. A., Jokhadar, H. F., AlResayes, S. S., Altoman, M. S., Alshehri, A. H., Alqahtani, S. M., Alamri, M., Alshahrani, A. A., Al-Najjar, H. Z., & Mattoo, K. (2024). Accuracy of 3 Intraoral Scanners in Recording Impressions for Full Arch Dental Implant-Supported Prosthesis: An In Vitro Study. *Medical science monitor : international medical journal of experimental and clinical research*, 30, e946624. <https://doi.org/10.12659/MSM.946624>
30. El-Refay, H. M., Abdelaziz, M. S., Cheta, N. M., & Abdallah, M. F. (2025). The accuracy of digital impression with different intraoral scanners on maxillary all on four implants: an in vitro study. *BMC research notes*, 18(1), 186. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s13104-025-07235-x>
31. Castroflorio, T., Sedran, A., Parrini, S., Garino, F., Reverdito, M., Capuozzo, R., Mutinelli, S., Grybauskas, S., Vaitiekūnas, M., & Deregibus, A. (2023). Predictability of orthodontic tooth movement with aligners: effect of treatment design. *Progress in orthodontics*, 24(1), 2. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s40510-022-00453-0>
32. Wang, Y., Long, H., Zhao, Z., Bai, D., Han, X., Wang, J., Fang, B., Jin, Z., He, H., Bai, Y., Li, W., Hu, M., Zhou, Y., Ai, H., Liu, Y., Cao, Y., Lin, J., Li, H., Guo, J., & Lai, W. (2025). Expert consensus on the clinical strategies for orthodontic treatment with clear aligners. *International journal of oral science*, 17(1), 19. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41368-025-00350-2>
33. Kau, C. H., Soh, J., Christou, T., & Mangal, A. (2023). Orthodontic Aligners: Current Perspectives for the Modern Orthodontic Office. *Medicina (Kaunas, Lithuania)*, 59(10), 1773. <https://doi.org/10.3390/medicina59101773>
34. Olawade, D. B., Leena, N., Egbon, E., Rai, J., Mohammed, A. P. E. K., Oladapo, B. I., & Boussios, S. (2025). AI-Driven Advancements in Orthodontics for Precision and Patient Outcomes. *Dentistry journal*, 13(5), 198. <https://doi.org/10.3390/dj13050198>
35. Surdu, A., Budala, D. G., Luchian, I., Foia, L. G., Botnariu, G. E., & Scutariu, M. M. (2024). Using AI in Optimizing Oral and Dental Diagnoses-A Narrative Review. *Diagnostics* (Basel, Switzerland), 14(24), 2804. <https://doi.org/10.3390/diagnostics14242804>
36. Kumar, Y., Koul, A., Singla, R., & Ijaz, M. F. (2023). Artificial intelligence in disease diagnosis: a systematic literature review, synthesizing framework and future research agenda. *Journal of ambient intelligence and humanized computing*, 14(7), 8459–8486. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12652-021-03612-z>
37. Pouliezou, I., Gravia, A. P., & Vasoglou, M. (2024). Digital Model in Orthodontics: Is It Really Necessary for Every Treatment Procedure? A Scoping Review. *Oral*, 4(2), 243-262. <https://doi.org/10.3390/oral4020020>
38. Caruso, S., Caruso, S., Pellegrino, M., Skafi, R., Nota, A., & Tecco, S. (2021). A Knowledge-Based Algorithm for Automatic Monitoring of Orthodontic Treatment: The Dental Monitoring System. Two Cases. *Sensors*, 21(5), 1856. <https://doi.org/10.3390/s21051856>

39. Logan, S., Riedy, C. A., Hargett, K., & Katebi, N. (2024). Orthodontists' use of remote monitoring platforms pre-, amid, and post-COVID-19: a survey study. *BMC oral health*, 24(1), 480. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12903-024-04245-2>
40. Tolu-Akinawo, O., Ezekwueme, F., & Awoyemi, T. (2024). Telemedicine in Cardiology: Enhancing Access to Care and Improving Patient Outcomes. *Cureus*, 16(6), e62852. <https://doi.org/10.7759/cureus.62852>
41. Bonny, T., Al Nassan, W., Obaideen, K., Rabie, T., AlMallahi, M. N., & Gupta, S. (2024). Primary Methods and Algorithms in Artificial-Intelligence-Based Dental Image Analysis: A Systematic Review. *Algorithms*, 17(12), 567. <https://doi.org/10.3390/a17120567>
42. Hartogsohn, C. R., & Sonnesen, L. (2025). Clear Aligner Treatment: Indications, Advantages, and Adverse Effects—A Systematic Review. *Dentistry Journal*, 13(1), 40. <https://doi.org/10.3390/dj13010040>
43. Dahhas, F. Y., Almutairi, N. S., Almutairi, R. S., Alshamrani, H. A., Alshyai, H. S., Almazyad, R. K., Alsanouni, M. S., & Gadi, S. A. (2024). The Role of Interproximal Reduction (IPR) in Clear Aligner Therapy: A Critical Analysis of Indications, Techniques, and Outcomes. *Cureus*, 16(3), e56644. <https://doi.org/10.7759/cureus.56644>
44. Dianiskova, S., Rongo, R., Buono, R., Franchi, L., Michelotti, A., & D'Antò, V. (2022). Treatment of mild Class II malocclusion in growing patients with clear aligners versus fixed multibracket therapy: A retrospective study. *Orthodontics & craniofacial research*, 25(1), 96–102. <https://doi.org/10.1111/ocr.12500>
45. Inchingolo, A. D., Patano, A., Coloccia, G., Ceci, S., Inchingolo, A. M., Marinelli, G., Malcangi, G., Di Pede, C., Garibaldi, M., Ciocia, A. M., Mancini, A., Palmieri, G., Rapone, B., Piras, F., Cardarelli, F., Nucci, L., Bordea, I. R., Scarano, A., Lorusso, F., Giovanniello, D., ... Inchingolo, F. (2022). Treatment of Class III Malocclusion and Anterior Crossbite with Aligners: A Case Report. *Medicina (Kaunas, Lithuania)*, 58(5), 603. <https://doi.org/10.3390/medicina58050603>
46. Macrì, M., Medori, S., & Festa, F. (2025). Evaluation of Maxillary Dentoalveolar Expansion with Clear Aligners: A Retrospective CBCT Study. *Diagnostics (Basel, Switzerland)*, 15(13), 1586. <https://doi.org/10.3390/diagnostics15131586>
47. Suh, H., Garnett, B. S., Mahood, K., Mahjoub, N., Boyd, R. L., & Oh, H. (2022). Treatment of anterior open bites using non-extraction clear aligner therapy in adult patients. *Korean journal of orthodontics*, 52(3), 210–219. <https://doi.org/10.4041/kjod21.180>
48. Olteanu, N. D., Romanec, C., Cernei, E. R., Karvelas, N., Nastri, L., & Zetu, I. N. (2025). Scoping Review-The Effectiveness of Clear Aligners in the Management of Anterior Open Bite in Adult Patients. *Medicina (Kaunas, Lithuania)*, 61(6), 1113. <https://doi.org/10.3390/medicina61061113>
49. Parthiban, R., Kailasam, V., & Venkatasamy, N. S. (2024). Rotations of teeth-a systematic review. *Frontiers in oral health*, 5, 1484020. <https://doi.org/10.3389/froh.2024.1484020>
50. Ronchi Lemos, C., Ventura Fadel, M. A., Polmann, H., Meller Dias de Oliveira, J., Pauletto, P., Miron Stefani, C., Flores-Mir, C., & De Luca Canto, G. (2024). Clear aligner's adverse effects: A systematic review protocol. *PloS one*, 19(5), e0302049. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0302049>
51. Kazimierczak, N., Kazimierczak, W., Serafin, Z., Nowicki, P., Nożewski, J., & Janiszewska-Olszowska, J. (2024). AI in Orthodontics: Revolutionizing Diagnostics and Treatment Planning—A Comprehensive Review. *Journal of Clinical Medicine*, 13(2), 344. <https://doi.org/10.3390/jcm13020344>

52. Sereewisai, B., Chintavalakorn, R., Santiwong, P., Nakornnoi, T., Neoh, S. P., & Sipiyaruk, K. (2023). The accuracy of virtual setup in simulating treatment outcomes in orthodontic practice: a systematic review. *BDJ open*, 9(1), 41. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41405-023-00167-3>
53. Tartaglia, G. M., Mapelli, A., Maspero, C., Santaniello, T., Serafin, M., Farronato, M., & Caprioglio, A. (2021). Direct 3D Printing of Clear Orthodontic Aligners: Current State and Future Possibilities. *Materials*, 14(7), 1799. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ma14071799>
54. Andanje, M. N., Mwangi, J. W., Mose, B. R., & Carrara, S. (2023). Biocompatible and Biodegradable 3D Printing from Bioplastics: A Review. *Polymers*, 15(10), 2355. <https://doi.org/10.3390/polym15102355>
55. Prasad, S., Arunachalam, S., Boillat, T., Ghoneima, A., Gandedkar, N., & Diar-Bakirly, S. (2023). Wearable Orofacial Technology and Orthodontics. *Dentistry journal*, 11(1), 24. <https://doi.org/10.3390/dj11010024>
56. Nahajowski, M., Lis, J., & Sarul, M. (2022). The Use of Microsensors to Assess the Daily Wear Time of Removable Orthodontic Appliances: A Prospective Cohort Study. *Sensors (Basel, Switzerland)*, 22(7), 2435. <https://doi.org/10.3390/s22072435>
57. Dinh, A., Yin, A. L., Estrin, D., Greenwald, P., & Fortenko, A. (2023). Augmented Reality in Real-time Telemedicine and Telementoring: Scoping Review. *JMIR mHealth and uHealth*, 11, e45464. <https://doi.org/10.2196/45464>
58. Polizzi, A., Serra, S., Leonardi, R., & Isola, G. (2025). Clinical Applications of Artificial Intelligence in Teleorthodontics: A Scoping Review. *Medicina (Kaunas, Lithuania)*, 61(7), 1141. <https://doi.org/10.3390/medicina61071141>
59. Aiyar, A., Scuzzo, G., Scuzzo, G., & Verna, C. (2024). Hybrid Orthodontics for Aesthetic Deep Bite Correction—Case Series and General Clinical Considerations. *Oral*, 4(2), 126-147. <https://doi.org/10.3390/oral4020011>
60. Inchingolo, A. M., Inchingolo, A. D., Carpentiere, V., Del Vecchio, G., Ferrante, L., Di Noia, A., Palermo, A., Di Venere, D., Dipalma, G., & Inchingolo, F. (2023). Predictability of Dental Distalization with Clear Aligners: A Systematic Review. *Bioengineering*, 10(12), 1390. <https://doi.org/10.3390/bioengineering10121390>
61. Inchingolo, A. D., Dipalma, G., Ferrara, I., Viapiano, F., Netti, A., Ciocia, A. M., Mancini, A., Malcangi, G., Palermo, A., Inchingolo, A. M., & Inchingolo, F. (2024). Clear Aligners in the Growing Patient: A Systematic Review. *Children*, 11(4), 385. <https://doi.org/10.3390/children11040385>
62. Torsello, F., D'Amico, G., Staderini, E., Marigo, L., Cordaro, M., & Castagnola, R. (2022). Factors Influencing Appliance Wearing Time during Orthodontic Treatments: A Literature Review. *Applied Sciences*, 12(15), 7807. <https://doi.org/10.3390/app12157807>
63. Chaluparambil, M., Abu Arqub, S., Kuo, C. L., Godoy, L. D. C., Upadhyay, M., & Yadav, S. (2024). Age-stratified assessment of orthodontic tooth movement outcomes with clear aligners. *Progress in orthodontics*, 25(1), 43. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s40510-024-00542-2>
64. Timm, L. H., Farrag, G., Wolf, D., Baxmann, M., & Schwendicke, F. (2022). Effect of electronic reminders on patients' compliance during clear aligner treatment: an interrupted time series study. *Scientific reports*, 12(1), 16652. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-022-20820-5>
65. Abel, J., Ranjitha, G., Lingesh Kumar, N., Balikai, M. F., Singh, A., & Jayavarma, A. (2025). In vitro Analysis of Tooth Movement Using Clear Aligners versus Traditional

- Brackets. *Journal of pharmacy & bioallied sciences*, 17(Suppl 1), S507–S509. https://doi.org/10.4103/jpbs.jpbs_464_25
66. Papageorgiou, S. N., Sifakakis, I., Doulis, I., Eliades, T., & Bourauel, C. (2016). Torque efficiency of square and rectangular archwires into 0.018 and 0.022 in. conventional brackets. *Progress in orthodontics*, 17, 5. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s40510-016-0118-0>
 67. Jedliński, M., Mazur, M., Greco, M., Belfus, J., Grocholewicz, K., & Janiszewska-Olszowska, J. (2023). Attachments for the Orthodontic Aligner Treatment—State of the Art—A Comprehensive Systematic Review. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, 20(5), 4481. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph20054481>
 68. Machado R. M. (2020). Space closure using aligners. *Dental press journal of orthodontics*, 25(4), 85–100. <https://doi.org/10.1590/2177-6709.25.4.085-100.sar>
 69. Wolf, D., Farrag, G., Flügge, T., & Timm, L. H. (2024). Predicting Outcome in Clear Aligner Treatment: A Machine Learning Analysis. *Journal of Clinical Medicine*, 13(13), 3672. <https://doi.org/10.3390/jcm13133672>
 70. Zhou, C., Duan, P., He, H., Song, J., Hu, M., Liu, Y., Liu, Y., Guo, J., Jin, F., Cao, Y., Jiang, L., Ye, Q., Zhu, M., Jiang, B., Ruan, W., Yuan, X., Li, H., Zou, R., Tian, Y., Gao, L., ... Li, X. (2024). Expert consensus on pediatric orthodontic therapies of malocclusions in children. *International journal of oral science*, 16(1), 32. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41368-024-00299-8>
 71. Koukou, M., Damanakis, G., & Tsolakis, A. I. (2022). Orthodontic Management of Skeletal Class II Malocclusion with the Invisalign Mandibular Advancement Feature Appliance: A Case Report and Review of the Literature. *Case reports in dentistry*, 2022, 7095467. <https://doi.org/10.1155/2022/7095467>
 72. Schneider-Moser, U. E. M., & Moser, L. (2022). Very early orthodontic treatment: when, why and how?. *Dental press journal of orthodontics*, 27(2), e22spe2. <https://doi.org/10.1590/2177-6709.27.2.e22spe2>
 73. Hennessy, J., Garvey, T., & Al-Awadhi, E. A. (2016). A randomized clinical trial comparing mandibular incisor proclination produced by fixed labial appliances and clear aligners. *The Angle orthodontist*, 86(5), 706–712. <https://doi.org/10.2319/101415-686.1>
 74. Kalaoglu, E. E., & Dumanli Gok, G. (2024). Comparison of acceptability of orthodontic appliances in children in mixed dentition treated with removable acrylic appliances and Invisalign first: a cross-sectional study. *BMC oral health*, 24(1), 1270. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12903-024-05059-y>
 75. Lichnawska, A., & Kozakiewicz, M. (2021). Speech Disorders in Dysgnathic Adult Patients in the Field of Severity of Primary Dysfunction. *Applied Sciences*, 11(24), 12084. <https://doi.org/10.3390/app112412084>
 76. Almalki, S. A., Al Jameel, A. H., Gowdar, I. M., Langaliya, A., Vaddamanu, S. K., Di Blasio, M., Cervino, G., & Minervini, G. (2024). Impact of clear aligner therapy on masticatory musculature and stomatognathic system: a systematic review conducted according to PRISMA guidelines and the Cochrane handbook for systematic reviews of interventions. *BMC oral health*, 24(1), 350. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12903-024-04029-8>
 77. Stefani, C. M., de Lima, A. A., Stefani, F. M., Kung, J. Y., Compton, S., & Flores-Mir, C. (2025). Impact of myofunctional therapy on orthodontic management and orthognathic surgery outcomes: a scoping review. *European journal of orthodontics*, 47(3), cjaf024. <https://doi.org/10.1093/ejo/cjaf024>

78. Kielczykowski, M., Kamiński, K., Perkowski, K., Zadurska, M., & Czochrowska, E. (2023). Application of Artificial Intelligence (AI) in a Cephalometric Analysis: A Narrative Review. *Diagnostics* (Basel, Switzerland), 13(16), 2640. <https://doi.org/10.3390/diagnostics13162640>
79. Dayyoub, T., Maksimkin, A. V., Filippova, O. V., Tcherdyntsev, V. V., & Telyshev, D. V. (2022). Shape Memory Polymers as Smart Materials: A Review. *Polymers*, 14(17), 3511. <https://doi.org/10.3390/polym14173511>
80. Bajwa, J., Munir, U., Nori, A., & Williams, B. (2021). Artificial intelligence in healthcare: transforming the practice of medicine. *Future healthcare journal*, 8(2), e188–e194. <https://doi.org/10.7861/fhj.2021-0095>
81. Feher, B., Tussie, C., & Giannobile, W. V. (2024). Applied artificial intelligence in dentistry: emerging data modalities and modeling approaches. *Frontiers in artificial intelligence*, 7, 1427517. <https://doi.org/10.3389/frai.2024.1427517>
82. Lo Giudice, A., Ronsivalle, V., Venezia, P., Ragusa, R., Palazzo, G., Leonardi, R., & Lazzara, A. (2022). Teleorthodontics: Where Are We Going? From Skepticism to the Clinical Applications of a New Medical Communication and Management System. *International journal of dentistry*, 2022, 7301576. <https://doi.org/10.1155/2022/7301576>
83. Alahi, M. E. E., Sukkuea, A., Tina, F. W., Nag, A., Kurdthongmee, W., Suwannarat, K., & Mukhopadhyay, S. C. (2023). Integration of IoT-Enabled Technologies and Artificial Intelligence (AI) for Smart City Scenario: Recent Advancements and Future Trends. *Sensors*, 23(11), 5206. <https://doi.org/10.3390/s23115206>
84. Venezia, P., Ronsivalle, V., Isola, G., Ruiz, F., Casiello, E., Leonardi, R., & Lo Giudice, A. (2022). Prosthetically Guided Orthodontics (PGO): A Personalized Clinical Approach for Aesthetic Solutions Using Digital Technology. *Journal of personalized medicine*, 12(10), 1716. <https://doi.org/10.3390/jpm12101716>
85. D'Antò, V., De Simone, V., Caruso, S., Bucci, P., Valletta, R., Rongo, R., & Bucci, R. (2025). Effects of clear aligners treatment in growing patients: a systematic review. *Frontiers in oral health*, 5, 1512838. <https://doi.org/10.3389/froh.2024.1512838>

CHAPTER 3: PERIODONTAL REGENERATION: CURRENT ADVANCES IN TISSUE ENGINEERING

1. Gasner NS, Schure RS. Periodontal Disease. [Updated 2025 May 12]. In: StatPearls [Internet]. Treasure Island (FL): StatPearls Publishing; 2025 Jan-. Available from: <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/books/NBK554590/>
2. Angjelova, A., Jovanova, E., Polizzi, A., Annunziata, M., Laganà, L., Santonocito, S., & Isola, G. (2024). Insights and Advancements in Periodontal Tissue Engineering and Bone Regeneration. *Medicina* (Kaunas, Lithuania), 60(5), 773. <https://doi.org/10.3390/medicina60050773>
3. Rosa, V., Della Bona, A., Cavalcanti, B. N., & Nör, J. E. (2012). Tissue engineering: from research to dental clinics. *Dental materials : official publication of the Academy of Dental Materials*, 28(4), 341–348. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.dental.2011.11.025>
4. Ramseier, C. A., Rasperini, G., Batia, S., & Giannobile, W. V. (2012). Advanced reconstructive technologies for periodontal tissue repair. *Periodontology 2000*, 59(1), 185–202. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1600-0757.2011.00432.x>
5. Chen, H., Wang, Y., Lai, Y., Meng, C., Ning, X., Xu, T., Song, G., Zhang, Y., Lin, Y., & Han, B. (2025). Advances of 3D bioprinting technology for periodontal tissue regeneration. *iScience*, 28(6), 112532. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.isci.2025.112532>
6. Li, B., Wang, H., Qiu, G., Su, X., & Wu, Z. (2016). Synergistic Effects of Vascular Endothelial Growth Factor on Bone Morphogenetic Proteins Induced Bone Formation In Vivo: Influencing Factors and Future Research Directions. *BioMed research international*, 2016, 2869572. <https://doi.org/10.1155/2016/2869572>
7. Deckers, M. M., van Bezooijen, R. L., van der Horst, G., Hoogendam, J., van Der Bent, C., Papapoulos, S. E., & Löwik, C. W. (2002). Bone morphogenetic proteins stimulate angiogenesis through osteoblast-derived vascular endothelial growth factor A. *Endocrinology*, 143(4), 1545–1553. <https://doi.org/10.1210/endo.143.4.8719>
8. Thang, N. H., Chien, T. B., & Cuong, D. X. (2023). Polymer-Based Hydrogels Applied in Drug Delivery: An Overview. *Gels* (Basel, Switzerland), 9(7), 523. <https://doi.org/10.3390/gels9070523>
9. Chatterjee, A., Singh, N., & Saluja, M. (2013). Gene therapy in periodontics. *Journal of Indian Society of Periodontology*, 17(2), 156–161. <https://doi.org/10.4103/0972-124X.113062>
10. Angjelova, A., Jovanova, E., Polizzi, A., Annunziata, M., Laganà, L., Santonocito, S., & Isola, G. (2024). Insights and Advancements in Periodontal Tissue Engineering and Bone Regeneration. *Medicina* (Kaunas, Lithuania), 60(5), 773. <https://doi.org/10.3390/medicina60050773>
11. Sun, L., Du, X., Kuang, H., Sun, H., Luo, W., & Yang, C. (2023). Stem cell-based therapy in periodontal regeneration: a systematic review and meta-analysis of clinical studies. *BMC oral health*, 23(1), 492. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12903-023-03186-6>
12. Haque, M. M., Yereks, K., Kelekis-Cholakakis, A., & Duan, K. (2022). Advances in novel therapeutic approaches for periodontal diseases. *BMC oral health*, 22(1), 492. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12903-022-02530-6>

13. Yamamoto, T., Hasegawa, T., Yamamoto, T., Hongo, H., & Amizuka, N. (2016). Histology of human cementum: Its structure, function, and development. *The Japanese dental science review*, 52(3), 63–74. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jdsr.2016.04.002>
14. Jiang, N., Guo, W., Chen, M., Zheng, Y., Zhou, J., Kim, S. G., Embree, M. C., Songhee Song, K., Marao, H. F., & Mao, J. J. (2016). Periodontal Ligament and Alveolar Bone in Health and Adaptation: Tooth Movement. *Frontiers of oral biology*, 18, 1–8. <https://doi.org/10.1159/000351894>
15. Usui, M., Onizuka, S., Sato, T., Kokabu, S., Ariyoshi, W., & Nakashima, K. (2021). Mechanism of alveolar bone destruction in periodontitis - Periodontal bacteria and inflammation. *The Japanese dental science review*, 57, 201–208. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jdsr.2021.09.005>
16. Koller A, Sapra A. Anatomy, Head and Neck, Oral Gingiva. [Updated 2023 Aug 14]. In: StatPearls [Internet]. Treasure Island (FL): StatPearls Publishing; 2025 Jan-. Available from: <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/books/NBK560662/>
17. Wallace HA, Basehore BM, Zito PM. Wound Healing Phases. [Updated 2023 Jun 12]. In: StatPearls [Internet]. Treasure Island (FL): StatPearls Publishing; 2025 Jan-. Available from: <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/books/NBK470443/>
18. Cho, Y. D., Kim, K. H., Lee, Y. M., Ku, Y., & Seol, Y. J. (2021). Periodontal Wound Healing and Tissue Regeneration: A Narrative Review. *Pharmaceuticals (Basel, Switzerland)*, 14(5), 456. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ph14050456>
19. Daghrery, A., & Bottino, M. C. (2022). Advanced biomaterials for periodontal tissue regeneration. *Genesis (New York, N.Y. : 2000)*, 60(8-9), e23501. <https://doi.org/10.1002/dvg.23501>
20. Kim, M. G., Kim, D. Y., Ko, H. G., Byun, J. S., Kim, J. H., & Park, C. H. (2025). Spatial Platform for Periodontal Ligament Angulation and Regeneration: In Vivo Pilot Study. *Journal of functional biomaterials*, 16(3), 99. <https://doi.org/10.3390/jfb16030099>
21. Stains, J. P., & Civitelli, R. (2005). Cell-cell interactions in regulating osteogenesis and osteoblast function. *Birth Defects Research Part C: Embryo Today: Reviews*, 75(1), 72-80.
22. Alqahtani A. M. (2023). Guided Tissue and Bone Regeneration Membranes: A Review of Biomaterials and Techniques for Periodontal Treatments. *Polymers*, 15(16), 3355. <https://doi.org/10.3390/polym15163355>
23. Hajishengallis G. (2015). Periodontitis: from microbial immune subversion to systemic inflammation. *Nature reviews. Immunology*, 15(1), 30–44. <https://doi.org/10.1038/nri3785>
24. García, J. R., & García, A. J. (2016). Biomaterial-mediated strategies targeting vascularization for bone repair. *Drug delivery and translational research*, 6(2), 77–95. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s13346-015-0236-0>
25. Wiles, K., Fishman, J. M., De Coppi, P., & Birchall, M. A. (2016). The host immune response to tissue-engineered organs: current problems and future directions. *Tissue Engineering Part B: Reviews*, 22(3), 208-219.
26. Galli, M., Yao, Y., Giannobile, W. V., & Wang, H. L. (2021). Current and future trends in periodontal tissue engineering and bone regeneration. *Plastic and aesthetic research*, 8, 3. <https://doi.org/10.20517/2347-9264.2020.176>
27. Woo, H. N., Cho, Y. J., Tarafder, S., & Lee, C. H. (2021). The recent advances in scaffolds for integrated periodontal regeneration. *Bioactive materials*, 6(10), 3328–3342. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bioactmat.2021.03.012>

28. Acharya, J. R., Kumar, S., Girdhar, G. A., Patel, S., Parekh, N. H., Patadiya, H. H., Zinjala, A. N., & Haque, M. (2025). 3D Bioprinting: Shaping the Future of Periodontal Tissue Regeneration and Disease Management. *Cureus*, 17(4), e82432. <https://doi.org/10.7759/cureus.82432>
29. Iwayama, T., Sakashita, H., Takedachi, M., & Murakami, S. (2022). Periodontal tissue stem cells and mesenchymal stem cells in the periodontal ligament. *The Japanese dental science review*, 58, 172–178. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jdsr.2022.04.001>
30. Liu, J., Ruan, J., Weir, M. D., Ren, K., Schneider, A., Wang, P., Oates, T. W., Chang, X., & Xu, H. H. K. (2019). Periodontal Bone-Ligament-Cementum Regeneration via Scaffolds and Stem Cells. *Cells*, 8(6), 537. <https://doi.org/10.3390/cells8060537>
31. Kaigler, D., Cirelli, J. A., & Giannobile, W. V. (2006). Growth factor delivery for oral and periodontal tissue engineering. *Expert opinion on drug delivery*, 3(5), 647–662. <https://doi.org/10.1517/17425247.3.5.647>
32. Bordbar-Khiabani, A., & Gasik, M. (2022). Smart Hydrogels for Advanced Drug Delivery Systems. *International journal of molecular sciences*, 23(7), 3665. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijms23073665>
33. Raveau, S., & Jordana, F. (2020). Tissue Engineering and Three-Dimensional Printing in Periodontal Regeneration: A Literature Review. *Journal of clinical medicine*, 9(12), 4008. <https://doi.org/10.3390/jcm9124008>
34. Fan, J., Abedi-Dorcheh, K., Sadat Vaziri, A., Kazemi-Aghdam, F., Rafieyan, S., Sohrabinejad, M., Ghorbani, M., Rastegar Adib, F., Ghasemi, Z., Klavins, K., & Jahed, V. (2022). A Review of Recent Advances in Natural Polymer-Based Scaffolds for Musculoskeletal Tissue Engineering. *Polymers*, 14(10), 2097. <https://doi.org/10.3390/polym14102097>
35. Krishani, M., Shin, W. Y., Suhaimi, H., & Sambudi, N. S. (2023). Development of Scaffolds from Bio-Based Natural Materials for Tissue Regeneration Applications: A Review. *Gels* (Basel, Switzerland), 9(2), 100. <https://doi.org/10.3390/gels9020100>
36. Coelho, J. F., Ferreira, P. C., Alves, P., Cordeiro, R., Fonseca, A. C., Góis, J. R., & Gil, M. H. (2010). Drug delivery systems: Advanced technologies potentially applicable in personalized treatments. *The EPMA journal*, 1(1), 164–209. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s13167-010-0001-x>
37. Zhao, X., Hu, D. A., Wu, D., He, F., Wang, H., Huang, L., Shi, D., Liu, Q., Ni, N., Pakvasa, M., Zhang, Y., Fu, K., Qin, K. H., Li, A. J., Hagag, O., Wang, E. J., Sabharwal, M., Wagstaff, W., Reid, R. R., Lee, M. J., ... Athiviraham, A. (2021). Applications of Biocompatible Scaffold Materials in Stem Cell-Based Cartilage Tissue Engineering. *Frontiers in bioengineering and biotechnology*, 9, 603444. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fbioe.2021.603444>
38. Kiani, A. K., Pheby, D., Henahan, G., Brown, R., Sieving, P., Sykora, P., Marks, R., Falsini, B., Capodicasa, N., Miertus, S., Lorusso, L., Dondossola, D., Tartaglia, G. M., Ergoren, M. C., Dundar, M., Michelini, S., Malacarne, D., Bonetti, G., Dautaj, A., Donato, K., ... INTERNATIONAL BIOETHICS STUDY GROUP (2022). Ethical considerations regarding animal experimentation. *Journal of preventive medicine and hygiene*, 63(2 Suppl 3), E255–E266. <https://doi.org/10.15167/2421-4248/jpmh2022.63.2S3.2768>
39. Xu, X. Y., Li, X., Wang, J., He, X. T., Sun, H. H., & Chen, F. M. (2019). Concise Review: Periodontal Tissue Regeneration Using Stem Cells: Strategies and Translational

- Considerations. *Stem cells translational medicine*, 8(4), 392–403. <https://doi.org/10.1002/sctm.18-0181>
40. Nguyen-Thi, T. D., Nguyen-Huynh, B. H., Vo-Hoang, T. T., & Nguyen-Thanh, T. (2023). Stem cell therapies for periodontal tissue regeneration: A meta-analysis of clinical trials. *Journal of oral biology and craniofacial research*, 13(5), 589–597. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jobcr.2023.07.001>
 41. Alarcón-Apablaza, J., Prieto, R., Rojas, M., & Fuentes, R. (2023). Potential of Oral Cavity Stem Cells for Bone Regeneration: A Scoping Review. *Cells*, 12(10), 1392. <https://doi.org/10.3390/cells12101392>
 42. Grawish M. E. (2018). Gingival-derived mesenchymal stem cells: An endless resource for regenerative dentistry. *World journal of stem cells*, 10(9), 116–118. <https://doi.org/10.4252/wjsc.v10.i9.116>
 43. Bi, R., Lyu, P., Song, Y., Li, P., Song, D., Cui, C., & Fan, Y. (2021). Function of Dental Follicle Progenitor/Stem Cells and Their Potential in Regenerative Medicine: From Mechanisms to Applications. *Biomolecules*, 11(7), 997. <https://doi.org/10.3390/biom11070997>
 44. Raspini, G., Wolff, J., Helminen, M., Raspini, G., Raspini, M., & Sándor, G. K. (2018). Dental Stem Cells Harvested from Third Molars Combined with Bioactive Glass Can Induce Signs of Bone Formation In Vitro. *Journal of oral & maxillofacial research*, 9(1), e2. <https://doi.org/10.5037/jomr.2018.9102>
 45. Huang, G. T., Gronthos, S., & Shi, S. (2009). Mesenchymal stem cells derived from dental tissues vs. those from other sources: their biology and role in regenerative medicine. *Journal of dental research*, 88(9), 792–806. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0022034509340867>
 46. Mas-Bargues, C., Sanz-Ros, J., Román-Domínguez, A., Inglés, M., Gimeno-Mallench, L., El Alami, M., Viña-Almunia, J., Gambini, J., Viña, J., & Borrás, C. (2019). Relevance of Oxygen Concentration in Stem Cell Culture for Regenerative Medicine. *International journal of molecular sciences*, 20(5), 1195. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijms20051195>
 47. Langenbach, F., & Handschel, J. (2013). Effects of dexamethasone, ascorbic acid and β -glycerophosphate on the osteogenic differentiation of stem cells in vitro. *Stem cell research & therapy*, 4(5), 117. <https://doi.org/10.1186/scrt328>
 48. Baldari, S., Di Rocco, G., Piccoli, M., Pozzobon, M., Muraca, M., & Toietta, G. (2017). Challenges and Strategies for Improving the Regenerative Effects of Mesenchymal Stromal Cell-Based Therapies. *International journal of molecular sciences*, 18(10), 2087. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijms18102087>
 49. Leisi Mehrabani, F., Alibeigian, Y., Baghaban Eslaminejad, M., & Hosseini, S. (2025). Mechanical harvesting of cell sheets: an efficient approach for bone and cartilage tissue engineering. *Stem cell research & therapy*, 16(1), 310. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s13287-025-04411-5>
 50. Moschouris, K., Firoozi, N., & Kang, Y. (2016). The application of cell sheet engineering in the vascularization of tissue regeneration. *Regenerative medicine*, 11(6), 559–570. <https://doi.org/10.2217/rme-2016-0059>
 51. Edmondson, R., Broglie, J. J., Adcock, A. F., & Yang, L. (2014). Three-dimensional cell culture systems and their applications in drug discovery and cell-based biosensors. *Assay and drug development technologies*, 12(4), 207–218. <https://doi.org/10.1089/adt.2014.573>

52. Brown, B. N., & Badylak, S. F. (2014). Extracellular matrix as an inductive scaffold for functional tissue reconstruction. *Translational research : the journal of laboratory and clinical medicine*, 163(4), 268–285. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.trsl.2013.11.003>
53. Chen, S., & Huang, X. (2022). Nanomaterials in Scaffolds for Periodontal Tissue Engineering: Frontiers and Prospects. *Bioengineering* (Basel, Switzerland), 9(9), 431. <https://doi.org/10.3390/bioengineering9090431>
54. Perán, M., García, M. A., López-Ruiz, E., Bustamante, M., Jiménez, G., Madeddu, R., & Marchal, J. A. (2012). Functionalized nanostructures with application in regenerative medicine. *International journal of molecular sciences*, 13(3), 3847–3886. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijms13033847>
55. Gul, M., Arif, A., & Ghafoor, R. (2019). Role of three-dimensional printing in periodontal regeneration and repair: Literature review. *Journal of Indian Society of Periodontology*, 23(6), 504–510. https://doi.org/10.4103/jisp.jisp_46_19
56. Zhang, J., Wehrle, E., Rubert, M., & Müller, R. (2021). 3D Bioprinting of Human Tissues: Biofabrication, Bioinks, and Bioreactors. *International journal of molecular sciences*, 22(8), 3971. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijms22083971>
57. Woo, H. N., Cho, Y. J., Tarafder, S., & Lee, C. H. (2021). The recent advances in scaffolds for integrated periodontal regeneration. *Bioactive materials*, 6(10), 3328–3342. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bioactmat.2021.03.012>
58. Dabra, S., Chhina, K., Soni, N., & Bhatnagar, R. (2012). Tissue engineering in periodontal regeneration: A brief review. *Dental research journal*, 9(6), 671–680.
59. Tavelli, L., Ravidà, A., Barootchi, S., Chambrone, L., & Giannobile, W. V. (2021). Recombinant Human Platelet-Derived Growth Factor: A Systematic Review of Clinical Findings in Oral Regenerative Procedures. *JDR clinical and translational research*, 6(2), 161–173. <https://doi.org/10.1177/2380084420921353>
60. Kim, H. K., Lee, J. S., Kim, J. H., Seon, J. K., Park, K. S., Jeong, M. H., & Yoon, T. R. (2017). Bone-forming peptide-2 derived from BMP-7 enhances osteoblast differentiation from multipotent bone marrow stromal cells and bone formation. *Experimental & molecular medicine*, 49(5), e328. <https://doi.org/10.1038/emm.2017.40>
61. Fan, C., Ji, Q., Zhang, C., Xu, S., Sun, H., & Li, Z. (2019). TGF- β induces periodontal ligament stem cell senescence through increase of ROS production. *Molecular medicine reports*, 20(4), 3123–3130. <https://doi.org/10.3892/mmr.2019.10580>
62. An, S., Huang, X., Gao, Y., Ling, J., Huang, Y., & Xiao, Y. (2015). FGF-2 induces the proliferation of human periodontal ligament cells and modulates their osteoblast phenotype by affecting Runx2 expression in the presence and absence of osteogenic inducers. *International journal of molecular medicine*, 36(3), 705–711. <https://doi.org/10.3892/ijmm.2015.2271>
63. Duffy AM, Bouchier-Hayes DJ, Harmey JH. Vascular Endothelial Growth Factor (VEGF) and Its Role in Non-Endothelial Cells: Autocrine Signaling by VEGF. In: Madame Curie Bioscience Database [Internet]. Austin (TX): Landes Bioscience; 2000-2013. Available from: <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/books/NBK6482/>
64. Cui, Q., Dighe, A. S., & Irvine, J. N., Jr (2013). Combined angiogenic and osteogenic factor delivery for bone regenerative engineering. *Current pharmaceutical design*, 19(19), 3374–3383. <https://doi.org/10.2174/1381612811319190004>
65. Esposito, M., Grusovin, M. G., Papanikolaou, N., Coulthard, P., & Worthington, H. V. (2009). Enamel matrix derivative (Emdogain(R)) for periodontal tissue regeneration in

- intrabony defects. The Cochrane database of systematic reviews, 2009(4), CD003875. <https://doi.org/10.1002/14651858.CD003875.pub3>
66. Lin, C. H., Srioudom, J. R., Sun, W., Xing, M., Yan, S., Yu, L., & Yang, J. (2024). The use of hydrogel microspheres as cell and drug delivery carriers for bone, cartilage, and soft tissue regeneration. *Biomaterials translational*, 5(3), 236–256. <https://doi.org/10.12336/biomatertransl.2024.03.003>
 67. Goker, F., Larsson, L., Del Fabbro, M., & Asa'ad, F. (2019). Gene Delivery Therapeutics in the Treatment of Periodontitis and Peri-Implantitis: A State of the Art Review. *International journal of molecular sciences*, 20(14), 3551. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijms20143551>
 68. Jain, N. K., & Gulati, M. (2016). Platelet-rich plasma: a healing virtuoso. *Blood research*, 51(1), 3–5. <https://doi.org/10.5045/br.2016.51.1.3>
 69. Kaigler, D., Avila, G., Wisner-Lynch, L., Nevins, M. L., Nevins, M., Rasperini, G., Lynch, S. E., & Giannobile, W. V. (2011). Platelet-derived growth factor applications in periodontal and peri-implant bone regeneration. *Expert opinion on biological therapy*, 11(3), 375–385. <https://doi.org/10.1517/14712598.2011.554814>
 70. Grecu, A. F., Reclaru, L., Ardelean, L. C., Nica, O., Ciucă, E. M., & Ciurea, M. E. (2019). Platelet-Rich Fibrin and its Emerging Therapeutic Benefits for Musculoskeletal Injury Treatment. *Medicina* (Kaunas, Lithuania), 55(5), 141. <https://doi.org/10.3390/medicina55050141>
 71. Alshirah, A. A., Elnaem, M. H., Al-Ani, Z., Alzahrani, F., Almasri, M., & McCarron, P. A. (2025). Effect of Autologous Concentrated Growth Factor in Regenerative Dentistry: A Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis. *JDR clinical and translational research*, 23800844251325532. Advance online publication. <https://doi.org/10.1177/23800844251325532>
 72. Guo, H., & Huang, X. (2022). Engineered exosomes for future gene-editing therapy. *Biomaterials translational*, 3(4), 240–242. <https://doi.org/10.12336/biomatertransl.2022.04.003>
 73. Aly R. M. (2020). Current state of stem cell-based therapies: an overview. *Stem cell investigation*, 7, 8. <https://doi.org/10.21037/sci-2020-001>
 74. Do, A. V., Khorsand, B., Geary, S. M., & Salem, A. K. (2015). 3D Printing of Scaffolds for Tissue Regeneration Applications. *Advanced healthcare materials*, 4(12), 1742–1762. <https://doi.org/10.1002/adhm.201500168>
 75. Li G. (2023). Editorial: Functional and smart biomaterials: Development and application in regenerative medicine-Volume II. *Frontiers in bioengineering and biotechnology*, 10, 1120438. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fbioe.2022.1120438>
 76. Su, G. L., Peng, Y. J., Ruan, H. Z., Cheng, J., Deng, T., & Zhang, Y. F. (2025). Regulating periodontal disease with smart stimuli-responsive systems: Antimicrobial activity, immunomodulation, periodontium regeneration. *Materials today. Bio*, 32, 101863. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.mtbio.2025.101863>
 77. Ahadian, S., & Khademhosseini, A. (2018). Smart scaffolds in tissue regeneration. *Regenerative biomaterials*, 5(3), 125–128. <https://doi.org/10.1093/rb/rby007>
 78. Ismail, I. N., Subramaniam, P. K., Chi Adam, K. B., & Ghazali, A. B. (2024). Application of Artificial Intelligence in Cone-Beam Computed Tomography for Airway Analysis: A Narrative Review. *Diagnostics* (Basel, Switzerland), 14(17), 1917. <https://doi.org/10.3390/diagnostics14171917>

79. Do, A. V., Khorsand, B., Geary, S. M., & Salem, A. K. (2015). 3D Printing of Scaffolds for Tissue Regeneration Applications. *Advanced healthcare materials*, 4(12), 1742–1762. <https://doi.org/10.1002/adhm.201500168>
80. Chatzopoulos, G. S., Doufexi, A. E., Zarenti, S., Anastasopoulos, M., & Kouvatsi, A. (2020). Interleukin-6 and Interleukin-10 Gene Polymorphisms in Patients with Chronic Periodontitis and Response to Treatment after 3 Years. *Acta stomatologica Croatica*, 54(3), 238–249. <https://doi.org/10.15644/asc54/3/2>
81. Cafiero, C., Spagnuolo, G., Marenzi, G., Martuscelli, R., Colamaio, M., & Leuci, S. (2021). Predictive Periodontitis: The Most Promising Salivary Biomarkers for Early Diagnosis of Periodontitis. *Journal of clinical medicine*, 10(7), 1488. <https://doi.org/10.3390/jcm10071488>
82. Hemeryck, L., Hermans, F., Chappell, J., Kobayashi, H., Lambrechts, D., Lambrichts, I., Bronckaers, A., & Vankelecom, H. (2022). Organoids from human tooth showing epithelial stemness phenotype and differentiation potential. *Cellular and molecular life sciences : CMLS*, 79(3), 153. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00018-022-04183-8>

CHAPTER 4: SMART MATERIALS IN DENTISTRY: RESPONDING TO ENVIRONMENTAL STIMULI FOR IMPROVED LONGEVITY

1. McCabe, J. F., Yan, Z., Al Naimi, O. T., Mahmoud, G., & Rolland, S. L. (2011). Smart materials in dentistry. *Australian dental journal*, 56 Suppl 1, 3–10. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1834-7819.2010.01291.x>
2. Gupta, V. (2018). Smart materials in dentistry: A review. *International Journal for Advance Research and Development*, 3(6), 89-96.
3. Worthington, H. V., Khangura, S., Seal, K., Mierzwinski-Urban, M., Veitz-Keenan, A., Sahrman, P., Schmidlin, P. R., Davis, D., Iheozor-Ejiofor, Z., & Rasines Alcaraz, M. G. (2021). Direct composite resin fillings versus amalgam fillings for permanent posterior teeth. *The Cochrane database of systematic reviews*, 8(8), CD005620. <https://doi.org/10.1002/14651858.CD005620.pub3>
4. Rajasekaran, J. J., Krishnamurthy, H. K., Bosco, J., Jayaraman, V., Krishna, K., Wang, T., & Bei, K. (2024). Oral Microbiome: A Review of Its Impact on Oral and Systemic Health. *Microorganisms*, 12(9), 1797. <https://doi.org/10.3390/microorganisms12091797>
5. Yu, K., Zhang, Q., Dai, Z., Zhu, M., Xiao, L., Zhao, Z., Bai, Y., & Zhang, K. (2023). Smart Dental Materials Intelligently Responding to Oral pH to Combat Caries: A Literature Review. *Polymers*, 15(12), 2611. <https://doi.org/10.3390/polym15122611>
6. Bruni, A., Serra, F. G., Deregibus, A., & Castroflorio, T. (2019). Shape-Memory Polymers in Dentistry: Systematic Review and Patent Landscape Report. *Materials (Basel, Switzerland)*, 12(14), 2216. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ma12142216>
7. Fernandes, D. J., Peres, R. V., Mendes, A. M., & Elias, C. N. (2011). Understanding the shape-memory alloys used in orthodontics. *ISRN dentistry*, 2011, 132408. <https://doi.org/10.5402/2011/132408>

8. Prasad Kumara, P. A. A. S., Cooper, P. R., Cathro, P., Gould, M., Dias, G., & Ratnayake, J. (2025). Bioceramics in Endodontics: Limitations and Future Innovations-A Review. *Dentistry journal*, 13(4), 157. <https://doi.org/10.3390/dj13040157>
9. Durão, M. L., Nobre, L., Mota, C., Bessa, J., Cunha, F., & Fangueiro, R. (2024). Self-Healing Composites: A Path to Redefining Material Resilience-A Comprehensive Recent Review. *Materials* (Basel, Switzerland), 17(19), 4681. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ma17194681>
10. Busscher, H. J., Rinastiti, M., Siswomihardjo, W., & van der Mei, H. C. (2010). Biofilm formation on dental restorative and implant materials. *Journal of dental research*, 89(7), 657–665. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0022034510368644>
11. Yang, T., Sa, R., Wang, F., Chen, C., & Zheng, L. (2024). Research progress of piezoelectric materials in protecting oral health and treating oral diseases: a mini-review. *Frontiers in bioengineering and biotechnology*, 12, 1473126. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fbioe.2024.1473126>
12. Vasiliu, S., Racovita, S., Gugoasa, I. A., Lungan, M. A., Popa, M., & Desbrieres, J. (2021). The Benefits of Smart Nanoparticles in Dental Applications. *International journal of molecular sciences*, 22(5), 2585. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijms22052585>
13. Kandárová, H., & Pôbiš, P. (2024). The "Big Three" in biocompatibility testing of medical devices: implementation of alternatives to animal experimentation-are we there yet?. *Frontiers in toxicology*, 5, 1337468. <https://doi.org/10.3389/ftox.2023.1337468>
14. Maloo, L. M., Patel, A., Toshniwal, S. H., & Bagde, A. D. (2022). Smart Materials Leading to Restorative Dentistry: An Overview. *Cureus*, 14(10), e30789. <https://doi.org/10.7759/cureus.30789>
15. Rathi, H. P., Chandak, M., Reche, A., Dass, A., Sarangi, S., & Thawri, S. R. (2023). Smart Biomaterials: An Evolving Paradigm in Dentistry. *Cureus*, 15(10), e47265. <https://doi.org/10.7759/cureus.47265>
16. Bayne, S. C., Ferracane, J. L., Marshall, G. W., Marshall, S. J., & Van Noort, R. (2019). The evolution of dental materials over the past century: silver and gold to tooth color and beyond. *Journal of dental research*, 98(3), 257-265.
17. Subramanian, P., Dutta, B., Arya, A., Azeem, M., Pavithra, B. N., & Balaji, D. L. (2024). Smart Material for Smarter Dentistry. *Journal of pharmacy & bioallied sciences*, 16(Suppl 1), S17–S19. https://doi.org/10.4103/jpbs.jpbs_550_23
18. Badami, V., & Ahuja, B. (2014). Biosmart materials: breaking new ground in dentistry. *TheScientificWorldJournal*, 2014, 986912. <https://doi.org/10.1155/2014/986912>
19. Loya, P. R., Nikhade, P. P., Paul, P., & Reche, A. (2023). Be Smart and Active in Conservative Dentistry and Endodontics. *Cureus*, 15(10), e47185. <https://doi.org/10.7759/cureus.47185>
20. Shanthi, M., Sekhar, E. S., Ankireddy, S., Shah, S. G., Bhaskar, V., Chawla, S., & Trivedi, K. (2014). Smart materials in dentistry: Think smart. *Journal of Pediatric Dentistry/Jan-Apr*, 2(1).
21. Maloo, L. M., Patel, A., Toshniwal, S. H., & Bagde, A. D. (2022). Smart Materials Leading to Restorative Dentistry: An Overview. *Cureus*, 14(10), e30789. <https://doi.org/10.7759/cureus.30789>
22. Oral Health in America: Advances and Challenges [Internet]. Bethesda (MD): National Institute of Dental and Craniofacial Research(US); 2021 Dec. Section 6, Emerging Science

- and Promising Technologies to Transform Oral Health. Available from: <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/books/NBK578292/>
23. Abou Neel, E. A., Aljabo, A., Strange, A., Ibrahim, S., Coathup, M., Young, A. M., Bozec, L., & Mudera, V. (2016). Demineralization-remineralization dynamics in teeth and bone. *International journal of nanomedicine*, 11, 4743–4763. <https://doi.org/10.2147/IJN.S107624>
 24. Farooq, I., & Bugshan, A. (2020). The role of salivary contents and modern technologies in the remineralization of dental enamel: a narrative review. *F1000Research*, 9, 171. <https://doi.org/10.12688/f1000research.22499.3>
 25. Wu, J., Weir, M. D., Zhang, Q., Zhou, C., Melo, M. A., & Xu, H. H. (2016). Novel self-healing dental resin with microcapsules of polymerizable triethylene glycol dimethacrylate and N,N-dihydroxyethyl-p-toluidine. *Dental materials : official publication of the Academy of Dental Materials*, 32(2), 294–304. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.dental.2015.11.014>
 26. Paladugu, S. R. M., Sreekanth, P. S. R., Sahu, S. K., Naresh, K., Karthick, S. A., Venkateshwaran, N., Ramoni, M., Mensah, R. A., Das, O., & Shanmugam, R. (2022). A Comprehensive Review of Self-Healing Polymer, Metal, and Ceramic Matrix Composites and Their Modeling Aspects for Aerospace Applications. *Materials (Basel, Switzerland)*, 15(23), 8521. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ma15238521>
 27. Sfeir, G., Zogheib, C., Patel, S., Giraud, T., Nagendrababu, V., & Bukiet, F. (2021). Calcium Silicate-Based Root Canal Sealers: A Narrative Review and Clinical Perspectives. *Materials (Basel, Switzerland)*, 14(14), 3965. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ma14143965>
 28. Lim, M., Jung, C., Shin, D. H., Cho, Y. B., & Song, M. (2020). Calcium silicate-based root canal sealers: a literature review. *Restorative dentistry & endodontics*, 45(3), e35. <https://doi.org/10.5395/rde.2020.45.e35>
 29. McDonnell, G., & Russell, A. D. (1999). Antiseptics and disinfectants: activity, action, and resistance. *Clinical microbiology reviews*, 12(1), 147–179. <https://doi.org/10.1128/CMR.12.1.147>
 30. Rahimi, S., Janani, M., Lotfi, M., Shahi, S., Aghbali, A., Vahid Pakdel, M., Salem Milani, A., & Ghasemi, N. (2014). A review of antibacterial agents in endodontic treatment. *Iranian endodontic journal*, 9(3), 161–168.
 31. Alqutaibi, A. Y., Baik, A., Almuzaini, S. A., Farghal, A. E., Alnazzawi, A. A., Borzangy, S., Aboalrejal, A. N., AbdElaziz, M. H., Mahmoud, I. I., & Zafar, M. S. (2023). Polymeric Denture Base Materials: A Review. *Polymers*, 15(15), 3258. <https://doi.org/10.3390/polym15153258>
 32. Rodrigues, S., Shenoy, V., & Shetty, T. (2013). Resilient liners: a review. *Journal of Indian Prosthodontic Society*, 13(3), 155–164. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s13191-012-0143-8>
 33. Kusy, R. P., & Wilson, T. W. (1990). Dynamic mechanical properties of straight titanium alloy arch wires. *Dental materials : official publication of the Academy of Dental Materials*, 6(4), 228–236. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0109-5641\(05\)80003-X](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0109-5641(05)80003-X)
 34. Wang, Y., Xu, J., Yu, C., Zhou, X., Chang, L., Liu, J., & Peng, Q. (2023). Prevention of bacterial biofilm formation on orthodontic brackets by non-crosslinked chitosan coating. *International journal of biological macromolecules*, 251, 126283. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijbiomac.2023.126283>

35. More, P. R., Pandit, S., Filippis, A., Franci, G., Mijakovic, I., & Galdiero, M. (2023). Silver Nanoparticles: Bactericidal and Mechanistic Approach against Drug Resistant Pathogens. *Microorganisms*, 11(2), 369. <https://doi.org/10.3390/microorganisms11020369>
36. Chen, A., Deng, S., Lai, J., Li, J., Chen, W., Varma, S. N., Zhang, J., Lei, C., Liu, C., & Huang, L. (2023). Hydrogels for Oral Tissue Engineering: Challenges and Opportunities. *Molecules* (Basel, Switzerland), 28(9), 3946. <https://doi.org/10.3390/molecules28093946>
37. Aliakbar Ahovan, Z., Esmaeili, Z., Eftekhari, B. S., Khosravimelal, S., Alehosseini, M., Orive, G., Dolatshahi-Pirouz, A., Pal Singh Chauhan, N., Janmey, P. A., Hashemi, A., Kundu, S. C., & Gholipourmalekabadi, M. (2022). Antibacterial smart hydrogels: New hope for infectious wound management. *Materials today. Bio*, 17, 100499. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.mtbio.2022.100499>
38. Yang, Z., Wu, C., Shi, H., Luo, X., Sun, H., Wang, Q., & Zhang, D. (2022). Advances in Barrier Membranes for Guided Bone Regeneration Techniques. *Frontiers in bioengineering and biotechnology*, 10, 921576. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fbioe.2022.921576>
39. Montoya, C., Roldan, L., Yu, M., Valliani, S., Ta, C., Yang, M., & Orrego, S. (2022). Smart dental materials for antimicrobial applications. *Bioactive materials*, 24, 1–19. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bioactmat.2022.12.002>
40. Dhir S. (2013). Biofilm and dental implant: The microbial link. *Journal of Indian Society of Periodontology*, 17(1), 5–11. <https://doi.org/10.4103/0972-124X.107466>
41. Sarvaiya, B. B., Kumar, S., Pathan, M. S. H., Patel, S., Gupta, V., & Haque, M. (2025). The Impact of Implant Surface Modifications on the Osseointegration Process: An Overview. *Cureus*, 17(4), e81576. <https://doi.org/10.7759/cureus.81576>
42. Qader, I. N., K  k, M., Dagdelen, F., & Aydođdu, Y. (2019). A review of smart materials: researches and applications. *El-Cezeri*, 6(3), 755-788.
43. Bonilla-Represa, V., Abalos-Labruzzi, C., Herrera-Martinez, M., & Guerrero-P  rez, M. O. (2020). Nanomaterials in dentistry: state of the art and future challenges. *Nanomaterials*, 10(9), 1770.
44. Fatima, A., Shafi, I., Afzal, H., D  ez, I. T., Lourdes, D. R. M., Bre  nosa, J., Espinosa, J. C. M., & Ashraf, I. (2022). Advancements in Dentistry with Artificial Intelligence: Current Clinical Applications and Future Perspectives. *Healthcare* (Basel, Switzerland), 10(11), 2188. <https://doi.org/10.3390/healthcare10112188>
45. Melo, M. A., Guedes, S. F., Xu, H. H., & Rodrigues, L. K. (2013). Nanotechnology-based restorative materials for dental caries management. *Trends in biotechnology*, 31(8), 459–467. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tibtech.2013.05.010>
46. Wang, L., Hu, C., & Shao, L. (2017). The antimicrobial activity of nanoparticles: present situation and prospects for the future. *International journal of nanomedicine*, 12, 1227–1249. <https://doi.org/10.2147/IJN.S121956>
47. Ved, M., Kinariwala, N., Singh, A., Bhatia, D., Shaikh, H., Padmani, Z., Raja, T., & Panchal, N. (2025). The Impact of Smart Materials in Restorative Dentistry and Endodontics From Innovation to Application: A Narrative Review. *Cureus*, 17(4), e82858. <https://doi.org/10.7759/cureus.82858>
48. Kau, C. H., Soh, J., Christou, T., & Mangal, A. (2023). Orthodontic Aligners: Current Perspectives for the Modern Orthodontic Office. *Medicina* (Kaunas, Lithuania), 59(10), 1773. <https://doi.org/10.3390/medicina59101773>

49. Gomez, A., Espinoza, J. L., Harkins, D. M., Leong, P., Saffery, R., Bockmann, M., Torralba, M., Kuelbs, C., Kodukula, R., Inman, J., Hughes, T., Craig, J. M., Highlander, S. K., Jones, M. B., Dupont, C. L., & Nelson, K. E. (2017). Host Genetic Control of the Oral Microbiome in Health and Disease. *Cell host & microbe*, 22(3), 269–278.e3. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chom.2017.08.013>
50. Hosseini Hooshir, M., Badkoobeh, A., Kolahdouz, S., Tadayonfard, A., Mozaffari, A., Nasiri, K., Salari, S., Safaralizadeh, R., & Yasamineh, S. (2024). The potential use of nanozymes as an antibacterial agents in oral infection, periodontitis, and peri-implantitis. *Journal of nanobiotechnology*, 22(1), 207. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12951-024-02472-x>
51. Pratap, B., Gupta, R. K., Bhardwaj, B., & Nag, M. (2019). Resin based restorative dental materials: characteristics and future perspectives. *The Japanese dental science review*, 55(1), 126–138. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jdsr.2019.09.004>
52. Nagay, B. E., Malheiros, S. S., Borges, M. H. R., Aparicio, C., van den Beucken, J. J. J. P., & Barão, V. A. R. (2025). Progress in visible-light-activated photocatalytic coatings to combat implant-related infections: From mechanistic to translational roadmap. *Bioactive materials*, 51, 83–137. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bioactmat.2025.04.037>

CHAPTER 5: ORAL HEALTH OF UNDERSERVED AND VULNERABLE POPULATIONS

1. Oral Health in America: Advances and Challenges [Internet]. Bethesda (MD): National Institute of Dental and Craniofacial Research(US); 2021 Dec. Section 1, Effect of Oral Health on the Community, Overall Well-Being, and the Economy. Available from: <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/books/NBK578297/>
2. Guay, A. H. (2004). Access to dental care: solving the problem for underserved populations. *The Journal of the American Dental Association*, 135(11), 1599-1605.
3. Duangthip, D., & Chu, C. H. (2020). Challenges in Oral Hygiene and Oral Health Policy. *Frontiers in oral health*, 1, 575428. <https://doi.org/10.3389/froh.2020.575428>
4. Northridge, M. E., Kumar, A., & Kaur, R. (2020). Disparities in Access to Oral Health Care. *Annual review of public health*, 41, 513–535. <https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-publhealth-040119-094318>
5. Patrick, D. L., Lee, R. S., Nucci, M., Grembowski, D., Jolles, C. Z., & Milgrom, P. (2006). Reducing oral health disparities: a focus on social and cultural determinants. *BMC oral health*, 6 Suppl 1(Suppl 1), S4. <https://doi.org/10.1186/1472-6831-6-S1-S4>
6. Lee, J. N., Scott, J. M., & Chi, D. L. (2020). Oral health behaviours and dental caries in low-income children with special healthcare needs: A prospective observational study. *International journal of paediatric dentistry*, 30(6), 749–757. <https://doi.org/10.1111/ipd.12656>
7. Singhal, A., & Jackson, J. W. (2022). Perceived racial discrimination partially mediates racial-ethnic disparities in dental utilization and oral health. *Journal of public health dentistry*, 82 Suppl 1(Suppl 1), 63–72. <https://doi.org/10.1111/jphd.12515>
8. Kandelman, D., Arpin, S., Baez, R. J., Baehni, P. C., & Petersen, P. E. (2012). Oral health care systems in developing and developed countries. *Periodontology 2000*, 60(1), 98-109.

9. Kim, J., Roy, I., Martinez-Mier, E. A., Shukla, A., & Weir, P. (2024). Impact of lack of transportation on access to dental care. *Heliyon*, 10(23), e40657. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.heliyon.2024.e40657>
10. Patidar, D., Sogi, S., & Patidar, D. C. (2022). Oral Health Status of Children with Special Healthcare Need: A Retrospective Analysis. *International journal of clinical pediatric dentistry*, 15(4), 433–437. <https://doi.org/10.5005/jp-journals-10005-2419>
11. Khan, A. J., Md Sabri, B. A., & Ahmad, M. S. (2022). Factors affecting provision of oral health care for people with special health care needs: A systematic review. *The Saudi dental journal*, 34(7), 527–537. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sdentj.2022.08.008>
12. Shetty, S. R., Bhowmick, S., Castelino, R., & Babu, S. (2012). Drug induced xerostomia in elderly individuals: An institutional study. *Contemporary clinical dentistry*, 3(2), 173–175. <https://doi.org/10.4103/0976-237X.96821>
13. Institute of Medicine (US) Committee on Medicare Coverage Extensions; Field MJ, Lawrence RL, Zwanziger L, editors. *Extending Medicare Coverage for Preventive and Other Services*. Washington (DC): National Academies Press (US); 2000. 4, Medically Necessary Dental Services. Available from: <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/books/NBK225261/>
14. Freitas, D. J., Kaplan, L. M., Tieu, L., Ponath, C., Guzman, D., & Kushel, M. (2019). Oral health and access to dental care among older homeless adults: results from the HOPE HOME study. *Journal of public health dentistry*, 79(1), 3–9. <https://doi.org/10.1111/jphd.12288>
15. Listl, S., Baltussen, R., Carrasco-Labra, A., Carrer, F. C., & Lavis, J. N. (2023). Evidence-Informed Oral Health Policy Making: Opportunities and Challenges. *Journal of dental research*, 102(12), 1293–1302. <https://doi.org/10.1177/00220345231187828>
16. Anyikwa, C. L., & Ogwo, C. E. (2025). Enhancing oral health outcomes through public health policy reform. *Frontiers in oral health*, 6, 1604465. <https://doi.org/10.3389/froh.2025.1604465>
17. Fu, D., Shu, X., Zhou, G., Ji, M., Liao, G., & Zou, L. (2025). Connection between oral health and chronic diseases. *MedComm*, 6(1), e70052. <https://doi.org/10.1002/mco2.70052>
18. Barranca-Enríquez, A., & Romo-González, T. (2022). Your health is in your mouth: A comprehensive view to promote general wellness. *Frontiers in oral health*, 3, 971223. <https://doi.org/10.3389/froh.2022.971223>
19. Baskaradoss J. K. (2018). Relationship between oral health literacy and oral health status. *BMC oral health*, 18(1), 172. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12903-018-0640-1>
20. Vela, M. B., Erondy, A. I., Smith, N. A., Peek, M. E., Woodruff, J. N., & Chin, M. H. (2022). Eliminating Explicit and Implicit Biases in Health Care: Evidence and Research Needs. *Annual review of public health*, 43, 477–501. <https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-publhealth-052620-103528>
21. Asiri, F. Y. I., Tennant, M., & Kruger, E. (2024). Oral Health Behaviour, Care Utilisation, and Barriers among Students with Disabilities: A Parental Perspective. *Healthcare*, 12(19), 1955. <https://doi.org/10.3390/healthcare12191955>
22. Lee, H., Kim, D., Lee, S., & Fawcett, J. (2020). The concepts of health inequality, disparities and equity in the era of population health. *Applied nursing research : ANR*, 56, 151367. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apnr.2020.151367>

23. Wehby G. L. (2022). Oral Health and Academic Achievement of Children in Low-Income Families. *Journal of dental research*, 101(11), 1314–1320. <https://doi.org/10.1177/00220345221089602>
24. Brünig, L., Kahrass, H., & Salloch, S. (2024). The concept of intersectionality in bioethics: a systematic review. *BMC medical ethics*, 25(1), 64. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12910-024-01057-5>
25. Anil, S., & Anand, P. S. (2017). Early Childhood Caries: Prevalence, Risk Factors, and Prevention. *Frontiers in pediatrics*, 5, 157. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fped.2017.00157>
26. Nazir M. A. (2017). Prevalence of periodontal disease, its association with systemic diseases and prevention. *International journal of health sciences*, 11(2), 72–80.
27. King, S., Thaliph, A., Laranjo, L., Smith, B. J., & Eberhard, J. (2023). Oral health literacy, knowledge and perceptions in a socially and culturally diverse population: a mixed methods study. *BMC public health*, 23(1), 1446.
28. Asfari, E., Rodriguez, A., Dakessian, A., & Yuan, S. (2024). Exploring refugees' experience of accessing dental health services in host countries: a scoping review. *Frontiers in oral health*, 5, 1328862. <https://doi.org/10.3389/froh.2024.1328862>
29. Freitas, D. J., Kaplan, L. M., Tieu, L., Ponath, C., Guzman, D., & Kushel, M. (2019). Oral health and access to dental care among older homeless adults: results from the HOPE HOME study. *Journal of public health dentistry*, 79(1), 3–9. <https://doi.org/10.1111/jphd.12288>
30. da Rosa, S. V., Moysés, S. J., Theis, L. C., Soares, R. C., Moysés, S. T., Werneck, R. I., & Rocha, J. S. (2020). Barriers in Access to Dental Services Hindering the Treatment of People with Disabilities: A Systematic Review. *International journal of dentistry*, 2020, 9074618. <https://doi.org/10.1155/2020/9074618>
31. Karnaki, P., Katsas, K., Diamantis, D. V., Riza, E., Rosen, M. S., Antoniadou, M., Gil-Salmerón, A., Grabovac, I., & Linou, A. (2022). Dental Health, Caries Perception and Sense of Discrimination among Migrants and Refugees in Europe: Results from the Mig-HealthCare Project. *Applied Sciences*, 12(18), 9294. <https://doi.org/10.3390/app12189294>
32. Haq, Z. U., Nawaz, K., Alam, S., Khattak, F. A., Ullah, N., Ahmed, Anwar, S., Rahim, A., Afaq, S., & Shah, S. N. (2023). Oral health behind the bars: oral health seeking behavior among jail prisoners at central jail of Peshawar, Pakistan: a cross-sectional study. *BMC oral health*, 23(1), 979. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12903-023-03705-5>
33. Lomeli-Martínez, S. M., González-Hernández, L. A., Ruiz-Anaya, A. J., Lomeli-Martínez, M. A., Martínez-Salazar, S. Y., Mercado González, A. E., Andrade-Villanueva, J. F., & Varela-Hernández, J. J. (2022). Oral Manifestations Associated with HIV/AIDS Patients. *Medicina* (Kaunas, Lithuania), 58(9), 1214. <https://doi.org/10.3390/medicina58091214>
34. Heilmann A, Tsakos G, Watt RG. Oral Health Over the Life Course. In: Burton-Jeangros C, Cullati S, Sacker A, et al., editors. *A Life Course Perspective on Health Trajectories and Transitions* [Internet]. Cham (CH): Springer; 2015. Chapter 3. Available from: <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/books/NBK385369/> doi: 10.1007/978-3-319-20484-0_3
35. Anil, S., & Anand, P. S. (2017). Early Childhood Caries: Prevalence, Risk Factors, and Prevention. *Frontiers in pediatrics*, 5, 157. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fped.2017.00157>
36. Gajendra, S., McIntosh, S., & Ghosh, S. (2023). Effects of tobacco product use on oral health and the role of oral healthcare providers in cessation: A narrative review. *Tobacco induced diseases*, 21, 12. <https://doi.org/10.18332/tid/157203>

37. Gargano, L., Mason, M. K., & Northridge, M. E. (2019). Advancing Oral Health Equity Through School-Based Oral Health Programs: An Ecological Model and Review. *Frontiers in public health*, 7, 359. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpubh.2019.00359>
38. González-Moles, M. Á., Aguilar-Ruiz, M., & Ramos-García, P. (2022). Challenges in the Early Diagnosis of Oral Cancer, Evidence Gaps and Strategies for Improvement: A Scoping Review of Systematic Reviews. *Cancers*, 14(19), 4967. <https://doi.org/10.3390/cancers14194967>
39. Skallevold, H. E., Rokaya, N., Wongsirichat, N., & Rokaya, D. (2023). Importance of oral health in mental health disorders: An updated review. *Journal of oral biology and craniofacial research*, 13(5), 544–552. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jobcr.2023.06.003>
40. Fdi World Dental Federation (2020). Access to oral healthcare for vulnerable and underserved populations: Adopted by the General Assembly: September 2019, San Francisco, United States of America. *International dental journal*, 70(1), 15–16. <https://doi.org/10.1111/idj.12556>
41. Singh, A., & Purohit, B. M. (2013). Addressing oral health disparities, inequity in access and workforce issues in a developing country. *International dental journal*, 63(5), 225–229. <https://doi.org/10.1111/idj.12035>
42. Ghonge, S., Borkar, P. K., Shinde, P., & Gawarle, N. (2024). Dental dilemma: escalating out-of-pocket expenditure trends. *International Journal Of Community Medicine And Public Health*, 11(8), 3340–3341. <https://doi.org/10.18203/2394-6040.ijcmph20242201>
43. Valdez, R., Spinler, K., Kofahl, C., Seedorf, U., Heydecke, G., Reissmann, D. R., ... & Aarabi, G. (2022). Oral health literacy in migrant and ethnic minority populations: a systematic review. *Journal of Immigrant and Minority Health*, 24(4), 1061–1080.
44. Lee, A., Lomazzi, M., Lee, H., & Bedi, R. (2019). Integrating oral health with public health systems under the framework of the Global Charter for the Public's Health. *International dental journal*, 69(3), 167–170. <https://doi.org/10.1111/idj.12448>
45. Bogale, B., Scambler, S., Mohd Khairuddin, A. N., & Gallagher, J. E. (2024). Oral health system strengthening in fragile and conflict-affected states: A systematic review. *Journal of global health*, 14, 04132. <https://doi.org/10.7189/jogh-14-04132>
46. Bhattacharya, S., Gopal, K. M., & Garg, S. (2024). Sustaining Current Policies and Introducing New Initiatives: Strategic Five-year Plan for the Government of India. *Journal of the Epidemiology Foundation of India*, 2(3), 134–143.
47. Cruz, S., Chi, D. L., & Huebner, C. E. (2016). Oral health services within community-based organizations for young children with special health care needs. *Special care in dentistry : official publication of the American Association of Hospital Dentists, the Academy of Dentistry for the Handicapped, and the American Society for Geriatric Dentistry*, 36(5), 243–253. <https://doi.org/10.1111/scd.12174>
48. Bala, R., Sargaiyan, V., Rathi, S. A., Mankar, S. S., Jaiswal, A. K., & Mankar, S. A. (2023). Mobile dental clinic for oral health services to underserved rural Indian communities. *Bioinformation*, 19(13), 1383–1387. <https://doi.org/10.6026/973206300191383>
49. Khanna, S. R., Rao, D., Panwar, S., & Ameen, S. (2021). Impact of oral hygiene training to Anganwadi and Accredited Social Health Activist workers on oral health of young children in tribal regions of Rajasthan State, India. *Journal of the Indian Society of Pedodontics and Preventive Dentistry*, 39(4), 429–435. https://doi.org/10.4103/jisppd.jisppd_93_21

50. Glick, M., Monteiro da Silva, O., Seeberger, G. K., Xu, T., Pucca, G., Williams, D. M., Kess, S., Eiselé, J. L., & Séverin, T. (2012). FDI Vision 2020: shaping the future of oral health. *International dental journal*, 62(6), 278–291. <https://doi.org/10.1111/idj.12009>
51. Muhammad Shaikh, G., Baseer, S., Shahzad, M. A., Ali, A., Umair Piracha, M., Nazir, A., & Naveed, H. (2024). Cultural Competency in Dental Practice: Navigating the Experiences and Perspectives of Dentists in South Punjab, Pakistan. *Cureus*, 16(10), e71322. <https://doi.org/10.7759/cureus.71322>
52. Al Shamsi, H., Almutairi, A. G., Al Mashrafi, S., & Al Kalbani, T. (2020). Implications of Language Barriers for Healthcare: A Systematic Review. *Oman medical journal*, 35(2), e122. <https://doi.org/10.5001/omj.2020.40>
53. Nghayo, H. A., Palanyandi, C. E., Ramphoma, K. J., & Maart, R. (2024). Oral health community engagement programs for rural communities: A scoping review. *PloS one*, 19(2), e0297546. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0297546>
54. Coe, J. M., Best, A. M., Warren, J. J., McQuistan, M. R., Kolker, J. L., & Isringhausen, K. T. (2015). Service-learning's impact on dental students' attitude towards community service. *European journal of dental education : official journal of the Association for Dental Education in Europe*, 19(3), 131–139. <https://doi.org/10.1111/eje.12113>
55. Prasad, M., Manjunath, C., Murthy, A. K., Sampath, A., Jaiswal, S., & Mohapatra, A. (2019). Integration of oral health into primary health care: A systematic review. *Journal of family medicine and primary care*, 8(6), 1838–1845. https://doi.org/10.4103/jfmprc.jfmprc_286_19
56. Watt, R. G., Daly, B., Allison, P., Macpherson, L. M., Venturelli, R., Listl, S., ... & Benzian, H. (2019). Ending the neglect of global oral health: time for radical action. *The Lancet*, 394(10194), 261–272.
57. Gaffar, B., Schroth, R. J., Foláyan, M. O., Ramos-Gomez, F., & Virtanen, J. I. (2024). A global survey of national oral health policies and its coverage for young children. *Frontiers in oral health*, 5, 1362647. <https://doi.org/10.3389/froh.2024.1362647>
58. Listl, S., Baltussen, R., Carrasco-Labra, A., Carrer, F. C., & Lavis, J. N. (2023). Evidence-Informed Oral Health Policy Making: Opportunities and Challenges. *Journal of dental research*, 102(12), 1293–1302. <https://doi.org/10.1177/00220345231187828>
59. Gostin, L. O., Monahan, J. T., Kaldor, J., DeBartolo, M., Friedman, E. A., Gottschalk, K., Kim, S. C., Alwan, A., Binagwaho, A., Burci, G. L., Cabal, L., DeLand, K., Evans, T. G., Goosby, E., Hossain, S., Koh, H., Ooms, G., Roses Periago, M., Uprimny, R., & Yamin, A. E. (2019). The legal determinants of health: harnessing the power of law for global health and sustainable development. *Lancet (London, England)*, 393(10183), 1857–1910. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736\(19\)30233-8](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(19)30233-8)
60. Wang, T. T., Mathur, M. R., & Schmidt, H. (2020). Universal health coverage, oral health, equity and personal responsibility. *Bulletin of the World Health Organization*, 98(10), 719–721. <https://doi.org/10.2471/BLT.19.247288>
61. Marques Dos Santos, S. Q., Andrade, R. V. S., Galvão, M. H. R., & da Costa Oliveira, A. G. R. (2024). Oral health approach in universal health coverage. *BMC public health*, 24(1), 2633. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12889-024-19874-z>
62. Bhat, B., Vasthare, R., Singla, N., Nayak, P. P., Kumar, A., & Singla, R. (2023). Utilization of health insurance by patients admitted for dental surgical procedures at a tertiary care hospital in Coastal Karnataka: a retrospective study. *F1000Research*, 12, 959. <https://doi.org/10.12688/f1000research.139841.2>

63. Kamalov, F., Santandreu Calonge, D., & Gurrib, I. (2023). New Era of Artificial Intelligence in Education: Towards a Sustainable Multifaceted Revolution. *Sustainability*, 15(16), 12451. <https://doi.org/10.3390/su151612451>
64. Surdu, A., Foia, C. I., Luchian, I., Trifan, D., Budala, D. G., Scutariu, M. M., Ciupilan, C., Puha, B., & Tatarciuc, D. (2025). Telemedicine and Digital Tools in Dentistry: Enhancing Diagnosis and Remote Patient Care. *Medicina* (Kaunas, Lithuania), 61(5), 826. <https://doi.org/10.3390/medicina61050826>
65. Pisano, M., Bramanti, A., Menditti, D., Sangiovanni, G., Santoro, R., & Amato, A. (2023). Modern Approaches to Providing Telematics Oral Health Services in Pediatric Dentistry: A Narrative Review. *Applied Sciences*, 13(14), 8331. <https://doi.org/10.3390/app13148331>
66. Nakre, P. D., & Harikiran, A. G. (2013). Effectiveness of oral health education programs: A systematic review. *Journal of International Society of Preventive & Community Dentistry*, 3(2), 103–115. <https://doi.org/10.4103/2231-0762.127810>
67. Frencken, J. E., Peters, M. C., Manton, D. J., Leal, S. C., Gordan, V. V., & Eden, E. (2012). Minimal intervention dentistry for managing dental caries - a review: report of a FDI task group. *International dental journal*, 62(5), 223–243. <https://doi.org/10.1111/idj.12007>
68. Dorri, M., Martinez-Zapata, M. J., Walsh, T., Marinho, V. C., Sheiham Deceased, A., & Zaror, C. (2017). Atraumatic restorative treatment versus conventional restorative treatment for managing dental caries. *The Cochrane database of systematic reviews*, 12(12), CD008072. <https://doi.org/10.1002/14651858.CD008072.pub2>
69. Khanday, Z. A., & Akram, M. (2012). Health status of marginalized groups in India. *International journal of applied sociology*, 2(6), 60-70.
70. Mehta, V., Karobari, M. I., & Fiorillo, L. (2025). Editorial: Oral health and quality of life in vulnerable populations. *Frontiers in oral health*, 6, 1581194. <https://doi.org/10.3389/froh.2025.1581194>
71. Horowitz, C. R., Robinson, M., & Seifer, S. (2009). Community-based participatory research from the margin to the mainstream: are researchers prepared?. *Circulation*, 119(19), 2633–2642. <https://doi.org/10.1161/CIRCULATIONAHA.107.729863>
72. Thomson, W. M., Williams, S. M., Broadbent, J. M., Poulton, R., & Locker, D. (2010). Long-term dental visiting patterns and adult oral health. *Journal of dental research*, 89(3), 307–311. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0022034509356779>
73. Nakre, P. D., & Harikiran, A. G. (2013). Effectiveness of oral health education programs: A systematic review. *Journal of International Society of Preventive & Community Dentistry*, 3(2), 103–115. <https://doi.org/10.4103/2231-0762.127810>

CHAPTER 6: ADVANCED REGENERATIVE STRATEGIES & MATERIAL SCIENCE

1. Oral Health in America: Advances and Challenges [Internet]. Bethesda (MD): National Institute of Dental and Craniofacial Research(US); 2021 Dec. Section 6, Emerging Science and Promising Technologies to Transform Oral Health. Available from: <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/books/NBK578292/>
2. Thalakiriyawa, D. S., & Dissanayaka, W. L. (2024). Advances in Regenerative Dentistry Approaches: An Update. *International dental journal*, 74(1), 25–34. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.identj.2023.07.008>
3. Tatullo, M., Marrelli, M., & Paduano, F. (2015). The regenerative medicine in oral and maxillofacial surgery: the most important innovations in the clinical application of mesenchymal stem cells. *International journal of medical sciences*, 12(1), 72–77. <https://doi.org/10.7150/ijms.10706>
4. Chen, F. M., & Liu, X. (2016). Advancing biomaterials of human origin for tissue engineering. *Progress in polymer science*, 53, 86–168. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.progpolymsci.2015.02.004>
5. Kharbikar, B. N., Mohindra, P., & Desai, T. A. (2022). Biomaterials to enhance stem cell transplantation. *Cell stem cell*, 29(5), 692–721. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.stem.2022.04.002>
6. Krishani, M., Shin, W. Y., Suhaimi, H., & Sambudi, N. S. (2023). Development of Scaffolds from Bio-Based Natural Materials for Tissue Regeneration Applications: A Review. *Gels* (Basel, Switzerland), 9(2), 100. <https://doi.org/10.3390/gels9020100>
7. Yoshida, S., Tomokiyo, A., Hasegawa, D., Hamano, S., Sugii, H., & Maeda, H. (2020). Insight into the Role of Dental Pulp Stem Cells in Regenerative Therapy. *Biology*, 9(7), 160. <https://doi.org/10.3390/biology9070160>
8. Jia, K., You, J., Zhu, Y., Li, M., Chen, S., Ren, S., Chen, S., Zhang, J., Wang, H., & Zhou, Y. (2024). Platelet-rich fibrin as an autologous biomaterial for bone regeneration: mechanisms, applications, optimization. *Frontiers in bioengineering and biotechnology*, 12, 1286035. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fbioe.2024.1286035>
9. Hakim, L. K., Yari, A., Nikparto, N., Mehraban, S. H., Cheperli, S., Asadi, A., Darehdor, A. A., Nezaminia, S., Dortaj, D., Nazari, Y., Dehghan, M., Hojjat, P., Mohajeri, M., & Hasani Jebelli, M. S. (2024). The current applications of nano and biomaterials in drug delivery of dental implant. *BMC oral health*, 24(1), 126. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12903-024-03911-9>
10. Saini, M., Singh, Y., Arora, P., Arora, V., & Jain, K. (2015). Implant biomaterials: A comprehensive review. *World journal of clinical cases*, 3(1), 52–57. <https://doi.org/10.12998/wjcc.v3.i1.52>
11. Dabra, S., Chhina, K., Soni, N., & Bhatnagar, R. (2012). Tissue engineering in periodontal regeneration: A brief review. *Dental research journal*, 9(6), 671–680.
12. Sedghi, L., DiMassa, V., Harrington, A., Lynch, S. V., & Kapila, Y. L. (2021). The oral microbiome: Role of key organisms and complex networks in oral health and disease. *Periodontology 2000*, 87(1), 107–131. <https://doi.org/10.1111/prd.12393>
13. Volarevic, V., Markovic, B. S., Gazdic, M., Volarevic, A., Jovicic, N., Arsenijevic, N., Armstrong, L., Djonov, V., Lako, M., & Stojkovic, M. (2018). Ethical and Safety Issues of Stem Cell-Based Therapy. *International journal of medical sciences*, 15(1), 36–45. <https://doi.org/10.7150/ijms.21666>

14. Miserez, A., Yu, J., & Mohammadi, P. (2023). Protein-Based Biological Materials: Molecular Design and Artificial Production. *Chemical reviews*, 123(5), 2049–2111. <https://doi.org/10.1021/acs.chemrev.2c00621>
15. Nosrati, H., & Nosrati, M. (2023). Artificial Intelligence in Regenerative Medicine: Applications and Implications. *Biomimetics* (Basel, Switzerland), 8(5), 442. <https://doi.org/10.3390/biomimetics8050442>
16. Alavi, S. E., Gholami, M., Shahmabadi, H. E., & Reher, P. (2023). Resorbable GBR Scaffolds in Oral and Maxillofacial Tissue Engineering: Design, Fabrication, and Applications. *Journal of Clinical Medicine*, 12(22), 6962. <https://doi.org/10.3390/jcm12226962>
17. Rai, R., Raval, R., Khandeparker, R. V., Chidrawar, S. K., Khan, A. A., & Ganpat, M. S. (2015). Tissue Engineering: Step Ahead in Maxillofacial Reconstruction. *Journal of international oral health : JIOH*, 7(9), 138–142.
18. Krafts K. P. (2010). Tissue repair: The hidden drama. *Organogenesis*, 6(4), 225–233. <https://doi.org/10.4161/org.6.4.12555>
19. Facchin, F., Bianconi, E., Canaider, S., Basoli, V., Biava, P. M., & Ventura, C. (2018). Tissue Regeneration without Stem Cell Transplantation: Self-Healing Potential from Ancestral Chemistry and Physical Energies. *Stem cells international*, 2018, 7412035. <https://doi.org/10.1155/2018/7412035>
20. Gilbert SF. *Developmental Biology*. 6th edition. Sunderland (MA): Sinauer Associates; 2000. Osteogenesis: The Development of Bones. Available from: <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/books/NBK10056/>
21. Carrascal-Hernández, D. C., Martínez-Cano, J. P., Rodríguez Macías, J. D., & Grande-Tovar, C. D. (2025). Evolution in Bone Tissue Regeneration: From Grafts to Innovative Biomaterials. *International Journal of Molecular Sciences*, 26(9), 4242. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijms26094242>
22. Inchingolo, A. M., Inchingolo, A. D., Nardelli, P., Latini, G., Trilli, I., Ferrante, L., Malcangi, G., Palermo, A., Inchingolo, F., & Dipalma, G. (2024). Stem Cells: Present Understanding and Prospects for Regenerative Dentistry. *Journal of functional biomaterials*, 15(10), 308. <https://doi.org/10.3390/jfb15100308>
23. Adel, I. M., ElMeligy, M. F., & Elkasabgy, N. A. (2022). Conventional and Recent Trends of Scaffolds Fabrication: A Superior Mode for Tissue Engineering. *Pharmaceutics*, 14(2), 306. <https://doi.org/10.3390/pharmaceutics14020306>
24. Aryal, R., Chen, X. P., Fang, C., & Hu, Y. C. (2014). Bone morphogenetic protein-2 and vascular endothelial growth factor in bone tissue regeneration: new insight and perspectives. *Orthopaedic surgery*, 6(3), 171–178. <https://doi.org/10.1111/os.12112>
25. Tan, B., Tang, Q., Zhong, Y., Wei, Y., He, L., Wu, Y., Wu, J., & Liao, J. (2021). Biomaterial-based strategies for maxillofacial tumour therapy and bone defect regeneration. *International journal of oral science*, 13(1), 9. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41368-021-00113-9>
26. Chan, B. P., & Leong, K. W. (2008). Scaffolding in tissue engineering: general approaches and tissue-specific considerations. *European spine journal : official publication of the European Spine Society, the European Spinal Deformity Society, and the European Section of the Cervical Spine Research Society*, 17 Suppl 4(Suppl 4), 467–479. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00586-008-0745-3>

27. Ielo, I., Calabrese, G., De Luca, G., & Conoci, S. (2022). Recent Advances in Hydroxyapatite-Based Biocomposites for Bone Tissue Regeneration in Orthopedics. *International journal of molecular sciences*, 23(17), 9721. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijms23179721>
28. Wang, W., & Yeung, K. W. K. (2017). Bone grafts and biomaterials substitutes for bone defect repair: A review. *Bioactive materials*, 2(4), 224–247. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bioactmat.2017.05.007>
29. Ashfaq, R., Kovács, A., Berkó, S., & Budai-Szűcs, M. (2024). Developments in Alloplastic Bone Grafts and Barrier Membrane Biomaterials for Periodontal Guided Tissue and Bone Regeneration Therapy. *International journal of molecular sciences*, 25(14), 7746. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijms25147746>
30. Movaniya, P. N., Makwana, T. R., Desai, N. N., Makwana, K. G., & Patel, H. B. (2021). Efficacy of Collagen Membrane Graft in Intraoral Surgery - An Evaluative Study. *Annals of maxillofacial surgery*, 11(1), 42–48. https://doi.org/10.4103/ams.ams_192_20
31. Firdaus Hussin, M. S., Abdullah, H. Z., Idris, M. I., & Abdul Wahap, M. A. (2022). Extraction of natural hydroxyapatite for biomedical applications-A review. *Heliyon*, 8(8), e10356. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.heliyon.2022.e10356>
32. Mishchenko, O., Yanovska, A., Kosinov, O., Maksymov, D., Moskalenko, R., Ramanavicius, A., & Pogorielov, M. (2023). Synthetic Calcium-Phosphate Materials for Bone Grafting. *Polymers*, 15(18), 3822. <https://doi.org/10.3390/polym15183822>
33. Jafari, N., Habashi, M. S., Hashemi, A., Shirazi, R., Tanideh, N., & Tamadon, A. (2022). Application of bioactive glasses in various dental fields. *Biomaterials research*, 26(1), 31. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s40824-022-00274-6>
34. Xie, Y., Li, S., Zhang, T., Wang, C., & Cai, X. (2020). Titanium mesh for bone augmentation in oral implantology: current application and progress. *International journal of oral science*, 12(1), 37. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41368-020-00107-z>
35. Sun, C., Kang, J., Yang, C., Zheng, J., Su, Y., Dong, E., Liu, Y., Yao, S., Shi, C., Pang, H., He, J., Wang, L., Liu, C., Peng, J., Liu, L., Jiang, Y., & Li, D. (2022). Additive manufactured polyether-ether-ketone implants for orthopaedic applications: a narrative review. *Biomaterials translational*, 3(2), 116–133. <https://doi.org/10.12336/biomatertransl.2022.02.001>
36. Silva, M., Ferreira, F. N., Alves, N. M., & Paiva, M. C. (2020). Biodegradable polymer nanocomposites for ligament/tendon tissue engineering. *Journal of nanobiotechnology*, 18(1), 23. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12951-019-0556-1>
37. Ren, Y., Fan, L., Alkildani, S., Liu, L., Emmert, S., Najman, S., Rimashevskiy, D., Schnettler, R., Jung, O., Xiong, X., & Barbeck, M. (2022). Barrier Membranes for Guided Bone Regeneration (GBR): A Focus on Recent Advances in Collagen Membranes. *International journal of molecular sciences*, 23(23), 14987. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijms232314987>
38. Pellegrini, G., Pagni, G., & Rasperini, G. (2013). Surgical Approaches Based on Biological Objectives: GTR versus GBR Techniques. *International journal of dentistry*, 2013, 521547. <https://doi.org/10.1155/2013/521547>
39. Lima-Sánchez, B., Baus-Domínguez, M., Serrera-Figallo, M.-A., & Torres-Lagares, D. (2025). Advances in Synthetic Polymer Membranes for Guided Bone Regeneration in Dental Implants: A Scoping Review. *Journal of Functional Biomaterials*, 16(5), 149. <https://doi.org/10.3390/jfb16050149>

40. Janjua, O. S., Qureshi, S. M., Shaikh, M. S., Alnazzawi, A., Rodriguez-Lozano, F. J., Pecci-Lloret, M. P., & Zafar, M. S. (2022). Autogenous Tooth Bone Grafts for Repair and Regeneration of Maxillofacial Defects: A Narrative Review. *International journal of environmental research and public health*, 19(6), 3690. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph19063690>
41. Zhang, J., Wang, J., You, J., Qin, X., Chen, H., Hu, X., Zhao, Y., & Xia, Y. (2023). Surface demineralized freeze-dried bone allograft followed by reimplantation in a failed mandibular dental implant. *Regenerative biomaterials*, 11, rbad102. <https://doi.org/10.1093/rb/rbad102>
42. Li, X., Lin, S. C., & Duan, S. Y. (2023). The impact of deproteinized bovine bone particle size on histological outcomes in sinus floor elevation: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *International journal of implant dentistry*, 9(1), 35. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s40729-023-00502-1>
43. Mishchenko, O., Yanovska, A., Kosinov, O., Maksymov, D., Moskalenko, R., Ramanavicius, A., & Pogorielov, M. (2023). Synthetic Calcium–Phosphate Materials for Bone Grafting. *Polymers*, 15(18), 3822. <https://doi.org/10.3390/polym15183822>
44. Pavlovic, V., Ciric, M., Jovanovic, V., Trandafilovic, M., & Stojanovic, P. (2021). Platelet-rich fibrin: Basics of biological actions and protocol modifications. *Open medicine (Warsaw, Poland)*, 16(1), 446–454. <https://doi.org/10.1515/med-2021-0259>
45. Everts, P., Onishi, K., Jayaram, P., Lana, J. F., & Mautner, K. (2020). Platelet-Rich Plasma: New Performance Understandings and Therapeutic Considerations in 2020. *International journal of molecular sciences*, 21(20), 7794. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijms21207794>
46. Halloran, D., Durbano, H. W., & Nohe, A. (2020). Bone Morphogenetic Protein-2 in Development and Bone Homeostasis. *Journal of developmental biology*, 8(3), 19. <https://doi.org/10.3390/jdb8030019>
47. Rathva V. J. (2011). Enamel matrix protein derivatives: role in periodontal regeneration. *Clinical, cosmetic and investigational dentistry*, 3, 79–92. <https://doi.org/10.2147/CCIDEN.S25347>
48. Sunil, P., Manikandhan, R., Muthu, M., & Abraham, S. (2012). Stem cell therapy in oral and maxillofacial region: An overview. *Journal of oral and maxillofacial pathology : JOMFP*, 16(1), 58–63. <https://doi.org/10.4103/0973-029X.92975>
49. Marion, N. W., & Mao, J. J. (2006). Mesenchymal stem cells and tissue engineering. *Methods in enzymology*, 420, 339–361. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0076-6879\(06\)20016-8](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0076-6879(06)20016-8)
50. Huang, G. T., Gronthos, S., & Shi, S. (2009). Mesenchymal stem cells derived from dental tissues vs. those from other sources: their biology and role in regenerative medicine. *Journal of dental research*, 88(9), 792–806. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0022034509340867>
51. Palumbo, P., Lombardi, F., Siragusa, G., Cifone, M. G., Cinque, B., & Giuliani, M. (2018). Methods of Isolation, Characterization and Expansion of Human Adipose-Derived Stem Cells (ASCs): An Overview. *International journal of molecular sciences*, 19(7), 1897. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijms19071897>
52. Urzì, O., Gasparro, R., Costanzo, E., De Luca, A., Giavaresi, G., Fontana, S., & Alessandro, R. (2023). Three-Dimensional Cell Cultures: The Bridge between In Vitro and In Vivo Models. *International journal of molecular sciences*, 24(15), 12046. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijms241512046>

53. Alagesan, S., Brady, J., Byrnes, D., Fandiño, J., Masterson, C., McCarthy, S., Laffey, J., & O'Toole, D. (2022). Enhancement strategies for mesenchymal stem cells and related therapies. *Stem cell research & therapy*, 13(1), 75. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s13287-022-02747-w>
54. Soudi, A., Yazdanian, M., Ranjbar, R., Tebyanian, H., Yazdanian, A., Tahmasebi, E., Keshvad, A., & Seifalian, A. (2021). Role and application of stem cells in dental regeneration: A comprehensive overview. *EXCLI journal*, 20, 454–489. <https://doi.org/10.17179/excli2021-3335>
55. Nguyen-Thi, T. D., Nguyen-Huynh, B. H., Vo-Hoang, T. T., & Nguyen-Thanh, T. (2023). Stem cell therapies for periodontal tissue regeneration: A meta-analysis of clinical trials. *Journal of oral biology and craniofacial research*, 13(5), 589–597. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jobcr.2023.07.001>
56. Li, X. L., Fan, W., & Fan, B. (2024). Dental pulp regeneration strategies: A review of status quo and recent advances. *Bioactive materials*, 38, 258–275. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bioactmat.2024.04.031>
57. Mohammad Mirzapour, S., & Jalali, F. (2025). Stem cell therapy for regenerating periodontal bony defects: A narrative review. *Journal of advanced periodontology & implant dentistry*, 17(1), 1–14. <https://doi.org/10.34172/japid.025.3749>
58. Barhate, A., Bajaj, P., Shirbhate, U., Reche, A., Pahade, A., & Agrawal, R. (2023). Implications of Gene Therapy in Dentistry and Periodontics: A Narrative Review. *Cureus*, 15(11), e49437. <https://doi.org/10.7759/cureus.49437>
59. Ghosh, S., Brown, A. M., Jenkins, C., & Campbell, K. (2020). Viral Vector Systems for Gene Therapy: A Comprehensive Literature Review of Progress and Biosafety Challenges. *Applied biosafety : journal of the American Biological Safety Association*, 25(1), 7–18. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1535676019899502>
60. Nayerossadat, N., Maedeh, T., & Ali, P. A. (2012). Viral and nonviral delivery systems for gene delivery. *Advanced biomedical research*, 1, 27. <https://doi.org/10.4103/2277-9175.98152>
61. Sioson, V. A., Kim, M., & Joo, J. (2021). Challenges in delivery systems for CRISPR-based genome editing and opportunities of nanomedicine. *Biomedical engineering letters*, 11(3), 217–233. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s13534-021-00199-4>
62. Diomede, F., Marconi, G. D., Fonticoli, L., Pizzicanella, J., Merciaro, I., Bramanti, P., Mazzon, E., & Trubiani, O. (2020). Functional Relationship between Osteogenesis and Angiogenesis in Tissue Regeneration. *International journal of molecular sciences*, 21(9), 3242. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijms21093242>
63. Park, S. Y., Kim, K. H., Kim, S., Lee, Y. M., & Seol, Y. J. (2019). BMP-2 Gene Delivery-Based Bone Regeneration in Dentistry. *Pharmaceutics*, 11(8), 393. <https://doi.org/10.3390/pharmaceutics11080393>
64. Rathi, H. P., Chandak, M., Reche, A., Dass, A., Sarangi, S., & Thawri, S. R. (2023). Smart Biomaterials: An Evolving Paradigm in Dentistry. *Cureus*, 15(10), e47265. <https://doi.org/10.7759/cureus.47265>
65. Gao, W., Chan, J. M., & Farokhzad, O. C. (2010). pH-Responsive nanoparticles for drug delivery. *Molecular pharmaceutics*, 7(6), 1913–1920. <https://doi.org/10.1021/mp100253e>
66. Luan, J., Li, R., Xu, W., Sun, H., Li, Q., Wang, D., Dong, S., & Ding, J. (2023). Functional biomaterials for comprehensive periodontitis therapy. *Acta pharmaceutica Sinica B*, 13(6), 2310–2333. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apsb.2022.10.026>

67. Fan, R., Cheng, Y., Wang, R., Zhang, T., Zhang, H., Li, J., Song, S., & Zheng, A. (2022). Thermosensitive Hydrogels and Advances in Their Application in Disease Therapy. *Polymers*, 14(12), 2379. <https://doi.org/10.3390/polym14122379>
68. Saghazadeh, S., Rinoldi, C., Schot, M., Kashaf, S. S., Sharifi, F., Jalilian, E., Nuutila, K., Giatsidis, G., Mostafalu, P., Derakhshandeh, H., Yue, K., Swieszkowski, W., Memic, A., Tamayol, A., & Khademhosseini, A. (2018). Drug delivery systems and materials for wound healing applications. *Advanced drug delivery reviews*, 127, 138–166. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.addr.2018.04.008>
69. Brouns, J. E. P., & Dankers, P. Y. W. (2021). Introduction of Enzyme-Responsivity in Biomaterials to Achieve Dynamic Reciprocity in Cell-Material Interactions. *Biomacromolecules*, 22(1), 4–23. <https://doi.org/10.1021/acs.biomac.0c00930>
70. Lu, P., Ruan, D., Huang, M., Tian, M., Zhu, K., Gan, Z., & Xiao, Z. (2024). Harnessing the potential of hydrogels for advanced therapeutic applications: current achievements and future directions. *Signal transduction and targeted therapy*, 9(1), 166. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41392-024-01852-x>
71. Dallaev R. (2024). Advances in Materials with Self-Healing Properties: A Brief Review. *Materials* (Basel, Switzerland), 17(10), 2464. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ma17102464>
72. Dongwen, L., Dapeng, M., Jiazhi, Y., & Xiaoguang, L. (2025). Hydrogels in Oral Disease Management: A Review of Innovations in Drug Delivery and Tissue Regeneration. *Medical science monitor : international medical journal of experimental and clinical research*, 31, e946122. <https://doi.org/10.12659/MSM.946122>
73. Phan, P. T., Hoang, T. T., Thai, M. T., Low, H., Davies, J., Lovell, N. H., & Do, T. N. (2021). Smart surgical sutures using soft artificial muscles. *Scientific reports*, 11(1), 22420. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-021-01910-2>
74. Teixeira-Santos, R., Lima, M., Gomes, L. C., & Mergulhão, F. J. (2021). Antimicrobial coatings based on chitosan to prevent implant-associated infections: A systematic review. *iScience*, 24(12), 103480. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.isci.2021.103480>
75. Hao, M., Wang, D., Duan, M., Kan, S., Li, S., Wu, H., Xiang, J., & Liu, W. (2023). Functional drug-delivery hydrogels for oral and maxillofacial wound healing. *Frontiers in bioengineering and biotechnology*, 11, 1241660. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fbioe.2023.1241660>
76. Alsharekh, M. S., Almutairi, A. A., Jahlan, A. S., Alhazani, A. S., Almohaimeed, S. M., Aljnoubi, L. A., AlGhamdi, G. A., AlBenyan, T. T., Alduhyaman, S. F., Alnaffaie, N. M., & Altalhi, A. M. (2024). Evolving Techniques and Trends in Maxillary Sinus Lift Procedures in Implant Dentistry: A Review of Contemporary Advances. *Cureus*, 16(10), e71424. <https://doi.org/10.7759/cureus.71424>
77. Ferraz M. P. (2023). Bone Grafts in Dental Medicine: An Overview of Autografts, Allografts and Synthetic Materials. *Materials* (Basel, Switzerland), 16(11), 4117. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ma16114117>
78. Muhammad, J. K., Akhtar, S., Abu Al Nassar, H., & Al Khoury, N. (2016). Regeneration of a Compromized Masticatory Unit in a Large Mandibular Defect Caused by a Huge Solitary Bone Cyst: A Case Report and Review of the Regenerative Literature. *Journal of maxillofacial and oral surgery*, 15(Suppl 2), 295–305. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12663-015-0828-8>

79. Paré, A., Bossard, A., Laure, B., Weiss, P., Gauthier, O., & Corre, P. (2019). Reconstruction of segmental mandibular defects: Current procedures and perspectives. *Laryngoscope investigative otolaryngology*, 4(6), 587–596. <https://doi.org/10.1002/lio2.325>
80. Crabtree, J. R., Mulenga, C. M., Tran, K., Feinberg, K., Santerre, J. P., & Borschel, G. H. (2024). Biohacking Nerve Repair: Novel Biomaterials, Local Drug Delivery, Electrical Stimulation, and Allografts to Aid Surgical Repair. *Bioengineering* (Basel, Switzerland), 11(8), 776. <https://doi.org/10.3390/bioengineering11080776>
81. Liu, J., & Kerns, D. G. (2014). Mechanisms of guided bone regeneration: a review. *The open dentistry journal*, 8, 56–65. <https://doi.org/10.2174/1874210601408010056>
82. De Pace, R., Molinari, S., Mazzoni, E., & Perale, G. (2025). Bone Regeneration: A Review of Current Treatment Strategies. *Journal of clinical medicine*, 14(6), 1838. <https://doi.org/10.3390/jcm14061838>
83. Cao, D., & Ding, J. (2022). Recent advances in regenerative biomaterials. *Regenerative biomaterials*, 9, rbac098. <https://doi.org/10.1093/rb/rbac098>
84. Cui, M., Pan, H., Su, Y., Fang, D., Qiao, S., Ding, P., & Pan, W. (2021). Opportunities and challenges of three-dimensional printing technology in pharmaceutical formulation development. *Acta pharmaceutica Sinica*. B, 11(8), 2488–2504. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apsb.2021.03.015>
85. Beetler, D. J., Di Florio, D. N., Law, E. W., Groen, C. M., Windebank, A. J., Peterson, Q. P., & Fairweather, D. (2023). The evolving regulatory landscape in regenerative medicine. *Molecular aspects of medicine*, 91, 101138. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.mam.2022.101138>
86. Zoabi, A., Redenski, I., Oren, D., Kasem, A., Zigron, A., Daoud, S., Moskovich, L., Kablan, F., & Srouji, S. (2022). 3D Printing and Virtual Surgical Planning in Oral and Maxillofacial Surgery. *Journal of Clinical Medicine*, 11(9), 2385. <https://doi.org/10.3390/jcm11092385>

CHAPTER 7: PERSONALISED PROSTHODONTICS

1. Tribst, J. P. M., Pereira, G. K. R., & Kleverlaan, C. J. (2024). Advancements in Dental Care: The Evolving Landscape of Prosthetic Dentistry. *Journal of clinical medicine*, 13(5), 1225. <https://doi.org/10.3390/jcm13051225>
2. Heboyan, A., Yazdanie, N., & Ahmed, N. (2023). Glimpse into the future of prosthodontics: The synergy of artificial intelligence. *World journal of clinical cases*, 11(33), 7940–7942. <https://doi.org/10.12998/wjcc.v11.i33.7940>
3. Abraham C. M. (2014). A brief historical perspective on dental implants, their surface coatings and treatments. *The open dentistry journal*, 8, 50–55. <https://doi.org/10.2174/1874210601408010050>
4. Alyami M. H. (2024). The Applications of 3D-Printing Technology in Prosthodontics: A Review of the Current Literature. *Cureus*, 16(9), e68501. <https://doi.org/10.7759/cureus.68501>
5. Al Hendi, K. D., Alyami, M. H., Alkahtany, M., Dwivedi, A., & Alsaqour, H. G. (2024). Artificial intelligence in prosthodontics. *Bioinformation*, 20(3), 238–242. <https://doi.org/10.6026/973206300200238>

6. John, G. P., Joy, T. E., Mathew, J., & Kumar, V. R. (2016). Applications of cone beam computed tomography for a prosthodontist. *Journal of Indian Prosthodontic Society*, 16(1), 3–7. <https://doi.org/10.4103/0972-4052.161574>
7. Soni, M., Soni, P., Soni, P., Chokhandre, S., Moni, M., & Gupta, S. (2025). The Role of Digital Workflow in Customizing the Prosthetic Solutions: A Literature Review. *Journal of pharmacy & bioallied sciences*, 17(Suppl 2), S1095–S1097. https://doi.org/10.4103/jpbs.jpbs_1700_24
8. Kharat, S., Dudhani, S. I., Kouser, A., Subramanian, P., Bhattacharjee, D., & Jhamb, V. (2024). Exploring the Impact of 3D Printing Technology on Patient-Specific Prosthodontic Rehabilitation: A Comparative Study. *Journal of pharmacy & bioallied sciences*, 16(Suppl 1), S423–S426. https://doi.org/10.4103/jpbs.jpbs_643_23
9. Dzobo, K., Thomford, N. E., Senthebane, D. A., Shipanga, H., Rowe, A., Dandara, C., Pillay, M., & Motaung, K. S. C. M. (2018). Advances in Regenerative Medicine and Tissue Engineering: Innovation and Transformation of Medicine. *Stem cells international*, 2018, 2495848. <https://doi.org/10.1155/2018/2495848>
10. Heboyani, A., Yazdanie, N., & Ahmed, N. (2023). Glimpse into the future of prosthodontics: The synergy of artificial intelligence. *World journal of clinical cases*, 11(33), 7940–7942. <https://doi.org/10.12998/wjcc.v11.i33.7940>
11. Sharma, M., Solanki, S., Razdan, R. A., Bhargava, A., Srivastava, A., & Menon, I. (2025). Linking prosthodontics and periodontics: An implant success rate. *Bioinformation*, 21(3), 447–451. <https://doi.org/10.6026/973206300210447>
12. Ghimire, P., Suwal, P., & Basnet, B. B. (2022). Management of Medically Compromised Prosthodontic Patients. *International journal of dentistry*, 2022, 7510578. <https://doi.org/10.1155/2022/7510578>
13. Oral Health in America: Advances and Challenges [Internet]. Bethesda (MD): National Institute of Dental and Craniofacial Research(US); 2021 Dec. Section 6, Emerging Science and Promising Technologies to Transform Oral Health. Available from: <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/books/NBK578292/>
14. Mallineni, S. K., Sethi, M., Punugoti, D., Kotha, S. B., Alkhalayal, Z., Mubarak, S., Almotawah, F. N., Kotha, S. L., Sajja, R., Nettam, V., Thakare, A. A., & Sakhamuri, S. (2024). Artificial Intelligence in Dentistry: A Descriptive Review. *Bioengineering (Basel, Switzerland)*, 11(12), 1267. <https://doi.org/10.3390/bioengineering11121267>
15. Joda, T., & Zitzmann, N. U. (2022). Personalized workflows in reconstructive dentistry-current possibilities and future opportunities. *Clinical oral investigations*, 26(6), 4283–4290. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00784-022-04475-0>
16. Stone, M., Woo, J., Lee, J., Poole, T., Seagraves, A., Chung, M., Kim, E., Murano, E. Z., Prince, J. L., & Blemker, S. S. (2018). Structure and variability in human tongue muscle anatomy. *Computer methods in biomechanics and biomedical engineering. Imaging & visualization*, 6(5), 499–507. <https://doi.org/10.1080/21681163.2016.1162752>
17. Eggmann, F., & Blatz, M. B. (2024). Recent Advances in Intraoral Scanners. *Journal of dental research*, 103(13), 1349–1357. <https://doi.org/10.1177/00220345241271937>
18. Nazeer, M. R., Ghafoor, R., Zafar, K., & Khan, F. R. (2020). Full mouth functional and aesthetic rehabilitation of a patient affected with hypoplastic type of amelogenesis imperfecta. *Journal of clinical and experimental dentistry*, 12(3), e310–e316. <https://doi.org/10.4317/jced.56217>

19. Lobo, S., Argolinha, I., Machado, V., Botelho, J., Rua, J., Li, J., & Mendes, J. J. (2025). Advances in Digital Technologies in Dental Medicine: Enhancing Precision in Virtual Articulators. *Journal of clinical medicine*, 14(5), 1495. <https://doi.org/10.3390/jcm14051495>
20. Paul, N. (2017). *The Orthognathic Surgery Patient's Experience—a Grounded Theory study* (Doctoral dissertation, University of Sheffield).
21. Greene, S. M., Tuzzio, L., & Cherkin, D. (2012). A framework for making patient-centered care front and center. *The Permanente journal*, 16(3), 49–53. <https://doi.org/10.7812/TPP/12-025>
22. Sabău, D. T., Juncar, R. I., Moca, A. E., Bota, T., Moca, R. T., & Juncar, M. (2024). Impact of Prosthetic Material and Restoration Type on Peri-Implant Bone Resorption: A Retrospective Analysis in a Romanian Sample. *Journal of clinical medicine*, 13(6), 1794. <https://doi.org/10.3390/jcm13061794>
23. Mazur, M., Jedliński, M., Westland, S., Piroli, M., Luperini, M., Ndokaj, A., Janiszewska-Olszowska, J., & Nardi, G. M. (2024). Tooth Colour and Facial Attractiveness: Study Protocol for Self-Perception with a Gender-Based Approach. *Journal of personalized medicine*, 14(4), 374. <https://doi.org/10.3390/jpm14040374>
24. Mortazavi, H., Baharvand, M., Movahhedian, A., Mohammadi, M., & Khodadoust, A. (2014). Xerostomia due to systemic disease: a review of 20 conditions and mechanisms. *Annals of medical and health sciences research*, 4(4), 503–510. <https://doi.org/10.4103/2141-9248.139284>
25. Aldowish, A. F., Alsubaie, M. N., Alabdulrazzaq, S. S., Alsaykhan, D. B., Alamri, A. K., Alhatem, L. M., Algoufi, J. F., Alayed, S. S., Aljadani, S. S., Alashjai, A. M., & Alamari, A. S. (2024). Occlusion and Its Role in the Long-Term Success of Dental Restorations: A Literature Review. *Cureus*, 16(11), e73195. <https://doi.org/10.7759/cureus.73195>
26. Ghimire, P., Suwal, P., & Basnet, B. B. (2022). Management of Medically Compromised Prosthodontic Patients. *International journal of dentistry*, 2022, 7510578. <https://doi.org/10.1155/2022/7510578>
27. Bors, A., Mucenic, S., Monea, A., Ormenisan, A., & Beresescu, G. (2025). From Conventional to Smart Prosthetics: Redefining Complete Denture Therapy Through Technology and Regenerative Science. *Medicina (Kaunas, Lithuania)*, 61(6), 1104. <https://doi.org/10.3390/medicina61061104>
28. Zarbakhsh, A., Jalalian, E., Samiei, N., Mahgoli, M. H., & Kaseb Ghane, H. (2021). Accuracy of Digital Impression Taking Using Intraoral Scanner versus the Conventional Technique. *Frontiers in dentistry*, 18, 6. <https://doi.org/10.18502/fid.v18i6.5649>
29. Rapone, B., De Francesco, M., Inchingolo, F., Dalmaschio, G., Pispero, A., Tomarelli, F., Gariffo, G., Testori, T., Tartaglia, G. M., Dipalma, G., & Ferrara, E. (2025). Optimizing Digital Impressions in Edentulous Patients Through Reference Point-Enhanced Scanning: A Quantitative Assessment of Accuracy and Time Efficiency. *Prosthesis*, 7(2), 37. <https://doi.org/10.3390/prosthesis7020037>
30. Venkatesh, E., & Elluru, S. V. (2017). Cone beam computed tomography: basics and applications in dentistry. *Journal of Istanbul University Faculty of Dentistry*, 51(3 Suppl 1), S102–S121. <https://doi.org/10.17096/jiufd.00289>
31. Shuto, T., Mine, Y., Tani, A., Taji, T., & Murayama, T. (2025). Facial Scans in Clinical Dentistry and Related Research: A Scoping Review. *Cureus*, 17(4), e81662. <https://doi.org/10.7759/cureus.81662>

32. Chou, T. H., Liao, S. W., Huang, J. X., Huang, H. Y., Vu-Dinh, H., & Yau, H. T. (2023). Virtual Dental Articulation Using Computed Tomography Data and Motion Tracking. *Bioengineering* (Basel, Switzerland), 10(11), 1248. <https://doi.org/10.3390/bioengineering10111248>
33. Albagieh, H., Alomran, I., Binakresh, A., Alhatarisha, N., Almeteb, M., Khalaf, Y., Alqublan, A., & Alqahatany, M. (2023). Occlusal splints-types and effectiveness in temporomandibular disorder management. *The Saudi dental journal*, 35(1), 70–79. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sdentj.2022.12.013>
34. Awawdeh, M., Alotaibi, M. B., Alharbi, A. H., Alnafisah, S. A., Alasiri, T. S., & Alrashidi, N. I. (2024). A Systematic Review of Patient Satisfaction With Removable Partial Dentures (RPDs). *Cureus*, 16(1), e51793. <https://doi.org/10.7759/cureus.51793>
35. Jeyaraman, N., Jeyaraman, M., Ramasubramanian, S., Balaji, S., & Muthu, S. (2025). Voices that matter: The impact of patient-reported outcome measures on clinical decision-making. *World journal of methodology*, 15(2), 98066. <https://doi.org/10.5662/wjm.v15.i2.98066>
36. Giannobile, W. V., Beikler, T., Kinney, J. S., Ramseier, C. A., Morelli, T., & Wong, D. T. (2009). Saliva as a diagnostic tool for periodontal disease: current state and future directions. *Periodontology* 2000, 50, 52–64. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1600-0757.2008.00288.x>
37. Iosif, L., Țăncu, A. M. C., Amza, O. E., Gheorghe, G. F., Dimitriu, B., & Imre, M. (2024). AI in Prosthodontics: A Narrative Review Bridging Established Knowledge and Innovation Gaps Across Regions and Emerging Frontiers. *Prosthesis*, 6(6), 1281-1299. <https://doi.org/10.3390/prosthesis6060092>
38. Bilgin, M. S., Baytaroglu, E. N., Erdem, A., & Dilber, E. (2016). A review of computer-aided design/computer-aided manufacture techniques for removable denture fabrication. *European journal of dentistry*, 10(2), 286–291. <https://doi.org/10.4103/1305-7456.178304>
39. Prithviraj, D. R., Bhalla, H. K., Vashisht, R., Sounderraj, K., & Prithvi, S. (2014). Revolutionizing restorative dentistry: an overview. *Journal of Indian Prosthodontic Society*, 14(4), 333–343. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s13191-014-0351-5>
40. Rezaie, F., Farshbaf, M., Dahri, M., Masjedi, M., Maleki, R., Amini, F., Wirth, J., Moharamzadeh, K., Weber, F. E., & Tayebi, L. (2023). 3D Printing of Dental Prostheses: Current and Emerging Applications. *Journal of composites science*, 7(2), 80. <https://doi.org/10.3390/jcs7020080>
41. Alyami M. H. (2024). The Applications of 3D-Printing Technology in Prosthodontics: A Review of the Current Literature. *Cureus*, 16(9), e68501. <https://doi.org/10.7759/cureus.68501>
42. Kong, H. J., & Kim, Y. L. (2024). Application of artificial intelligence in dental crown prosthesis: a scoping review. *BMC oral health*, 24(1), 937. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12903-024-04657-0>
43. Ved, M., Kinariwala, N., Singh, A., Bhatia, D., Shaikh, H., Padmani, Z., Raja, T., & Panchal, N. (2025). The Impact of Smart Materials in Restorative Dentistry and Endodontics From Innovation to Application: A Narrative Review. *Cureus*, 17(4), e82858. <https://doi.org/10.7759/cureus.82858>

44. He, Y., Vasilev, K., & Zilm, P. (2023). pH-Responsive Biomaterials for the Treatment of Dental Caries-A Focussed and Critical Review. *Pharmaceutics*, 15(7), 1837. <https://doi.org/10.3390/pharmaceutics15071837>
45. Mohd, N., Razali, M., Ghazali, M. J., & Abu Kasim, N. H. (2022). Current Advances of Three-Dimensional Bioprinting Application in Dentistry: A Scoping Review. *Materials* (Basel, Switzerland), 15(18), 6398. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ma15186398>
46. Alkhursani, S. A., Ghobashy, M. M., Al-Gahtany, S. A., Meganid, A. S., Abd El-Halim, S. M., Ahmad, Z., Khan, F. S., Atia, G. A. N., & Cavalu, S. (2022). Application of Nano-Inspired Scaffolds-Based Biopolymer Hydrogel for Bone and Periodontal Tissue Regeneration. *Polymers*, 14(18), 3791. <https://doi.org/10.3390/polym14183791>
47. Dutra Alves, N. S., Reigado, G. R., Santos, M., Caldeira, I. D. S., Hernandez, H. D. S., Freitas-Marchi, B. L., Zhivov, E., Chamberg, F. S., & Nunes, V. A. (2025). Advances in regenerative medicine-based approaches for skin regeneration and rejuvenation. *Frontiers in bioengineering and biotechnology*, 13, 1527854. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fbioe.2025.1527854>
48. Ionescu, R. N., Totan, A. R., Imre, M. M., Țâncu, A. M. C., Pantea, M., Butucescu, M., & Farcașiu, A. T. (2022). Prosthetic Materials Used for Implant-Supported Restorations and Their Biochemical Oral Interactions: A Narrative Review. *Materials* (Basel, Switzerland), 15(3), 1016. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ma15031016>
49. Massad, J. J., Cagna, D. R., Goodacre, C. J., Wicks, R. A., & Ahuja, S. A. (2017). Application of the neutral zone in prosthodontics. John Wiley & Sons.
50. Sri, H., Maiti, S., & Sasanka, K. (2022). Knowledge, attitude, and practice of digital dentures among dentists. *Journal of advanced pharmaceutical technology & research*, 13(Suppl 2), S519–S524. https://doi.org/10.4103/japtr.japtr_186_22
51. Kharat, S., Dudhani, S. I., Kouser, A., Subramanian, P., Bhattacharjee, D., & Jhamb, V. (2024). Exploring the Impact of 3D Printing Technology on Patient-Specific Prosthodontic Rehabilitation: A Comparative Study. *Journal of pharmacy & bioallied sciences*, 16(Suppl 1), S423–S426. https://doi.org/10.4103/jpbs.jpbs_643_23
52. Gan, N., Ruan, Y., Sun, J., Xiong, Y., & Jiao, T. (2018). Comparison of Adaptation between the Major Connectors Fabricated from Intraoral Digital Impressions and Extraoral Digital Impressions. *Scientific reports*, 8(1), 529. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-017-17839-4>
53. Takebe J. (2025). A case series on the basic concept and design of removable partial dentures: support and bracing considerations. *BMC oral health*, 25(1), 157. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12903-025-05553-x>
54. Anandapandian, P. A., Raza, F. B., Ar, P. K., Krishnamoorthy, S., Ashok, V., Anand Kumar, V., & P, V. (2025). Digital occlusal analysis of the impact of natural dentition and different types of rehabilitation on the occlusal force variations: systematic review and meta-analysis. *Journal of oral biology and craniofacial research*, 15(3), 534–540. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jobcr.2025.03.006>
55. Mohsin, L., Alenezi, N., Rashdan, Y., Hassan, A., Alenezi, M., Alam, M. K., Noor, N. F. B. M., & Akhter, F. (2025). Development of AI-Enhanced Smile Design Software for Ultra-Customized Aesthetic Outcomes. *Journal of pharmacy & bioallied sciences*, 17(Suppl 2), S1282–S1284. https://doi.org/10.4103/jpbs.jpbs_88_25
56. Koppolu, P., Al Arabi, A. A., Al Khayri, M. J., Alfaraj, F. A., Alsafwani, W. M., Alhozaimi, S. F., & Alrashidi, Y. J. (2023). Correlation between Gingival Thickness and

- Occurrence of Gingival Recession. *Journal of pharmacy & bioallied sciences*, 15(Suppl 1), S495–S501. https://doi.org/10.4103/jpbs.jpbs_585_22
57. Velazco Dávila, J. A., Rosales García, L. F., Torres Agudelo, L. V., & Moreno Abello, G. C. (2025). Peri-Implant Architecture Management With Customized Healing Abutment in Flowable Composite in Immediate Implants: Two Case Reports and Narrative Review. *Case reports in dentistry*, 2025, 5538611. <https://doi.org/10.1155/crid/5538611>
 58. Berzaghi, A., Testori, T., Scaini, R., & Bortolini, S. (2025). Occlusion and Biomechanical Risk Factors in Implant-Supported Full-Arch Fixed Dental Prostheses-Narrative Review. *Journal of personalized medicine*, 15(2), 65. <https://doi.org/10.3390/jpm15020065>
 59. Elrefaei, S. A., Parma-Benfenati, L., Dabaja, R., Nava, P., Wang, H. L., & Saleh, M. H. A. (2025). Customized 3D-Printed Scaffolds for Alveolar Ridge Augmentation: A Scoping Review of Workflows, Technology, and Materials. *Medicina (Kaunas, Lithuania)*, 61(7), 1269. <https://doi.org/10.3390/medicina61071269>
 60. Tanveer, W., Ridwan-Pramana, A., Molinero-Mourelle, P., & Forouzanfar, T. (2023). Applications of CAD/CAM Technology for Craniofacial Implants Placement and Manufacturing of Auricular Prostheses-Systematic Review. *Journal of clinical medicine*, 12(18), 5950. <https://doi.org/10.3390/jcm12185950>
 61. Pawar, P., Borle, A. G., Patil, R. M., Patil, P., Pawar, V. M., & Pachori, M. (2023). Digitization in Skin Shade Matching for Maxillofacial Prostheses: A Systematic Review. *Cureus*, 15(8), e43886. <https://doi.org/10.7759/cureus.43886>
 62. Poggio, C. E., Ercoli, C., Rispoli, L., Maiorana, C., & Esposito, M. (2017). Metal-free materials for fixed prosthodontic restorations. *The Cochrane database of systematic reviews*, 12(12), CD009606. <https://doi.org/10.1002/14651858.CD009606.pub2>
 63. Tiu, J., Belli, R., & Lohbauer, U. (2023). A step toward bio-inspired dental composites. *Biomaterial investigations in dentistry*, 10(1), 1–7. <https://doi.org/10.1080/26415275.2022.2150625>
 64. Dorado, S., Arias, A., & Jimenez-Octavio, J. R. (2022). Biomechanical Modelling for Tooth Survival Studies: Mechanical Properties, Loads and Boundary Conditions—A Narrative Review. *Materials*, 15(21), 7852. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ma15217852>
 65. Baslas, V., Singh, S. V., Aggarwal, H., Kaur, S., Singh, K., & Agarwal, K. K. (2014). A technique for using short term soft liners as complete dentures final impression material. *Journal of oral biology and craniofacial research*, 4(3), 204–207. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jobcr.2014.08.006>
 66. Yu, K., Zhang, Q., Dai, Z., Zhu, M., Xiao, L., Zhao, Z., Bai, Y., & Zhang, K. (2023). Smart Dental Materials Intelligently Responding to Oral pH to Combat Caries: A Literature Review. *Polymers*, 15(12), 2611. <https://doi.org/10.3390/polym15122611>
 67. Tichá, D., Tomášik, J., Oravcová, E., & Thurzo, A. (2024). Three-Dimensionally-Printed Polymer and Composite Materials for Dental Applications with Focus on Orthodontics. *Polymers*, 16(22), 3151. <https://doi.org/10.3390/polym16223151>
 68. Díez-Pascual A. M. (2020). Antibacterial Action of Nanoparticle Loaded Nanocomposites Based on Graphene and Its Derivatives: A Mini-Review. *International journal of molecular sciences*, 21(10), 3563. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijms21103563>
 69. Abu-Hossin, S., Onbasi, Y., Berger, L., Troll, F., Adler, W., Wichmann, M., & Matta, R. E. (2023). Comparison of digital and visual tooth shade selection. *Clinical and experimental dental research*, 9(2), 368–374. <https://doi.org/10.1002/cre2.721>

70. Alkhuzai, A. I., Elawsya, M. E., & Elkholy, N. R. (2025). Impact of Different Bleaching Methods on Surface Roughness, Microhardness, and Tooth-Restoration Interface of Ormocer- and Methacrylate-based Restorative Systems. *Journal of clinical and experimental dentistry*, 17(4), e422–e431. <https://doi.org/10.4317/jced.62614>
71. Duggal, I., & Tripathi, T. (2024). Ethical principles in dental healthcare: Relevance in the current technological era of artificial intelligence. *Journal of oral biology and craniofacial research*, 14(3), 317–321. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jobcr.2024.04.003>
72. Bernauer, S. A., Zitzmann, N. U., & Joda, T. (2021). The Use and Performance of Artificial Intelligence in Prosthodontics: A Systematic Review. *Sensors*, 21(19), 6628. <https://doi.org/10.3390/s21196628>
73. Seo, J. Y., Park, Y. J., Yi, Y. A., Hwang, J. Y., Lee, I. B., Cho, B. H., Son, H. H., & Seo, D. G. (2015). Epigenetics: general characteristics and implications for oral health. *Restorative dentistry & endodontics*, 40(1), 14–22. <https://doi.org/10.5395/rde.2015.40.1.14>
74. Arif, K. M. T., Elliott, E. K., Haupt, L. M., & Griffiths, L. R. (2020). Regulatory Mechanisms of Epigenetic miRNA Relationships in Human Cancer and Potential as Therapeutic Targets. *Cancers*, 12(10), 2922. <https://doi.org/10.3390/cancers12102922>
75. Samaranayake, L., Tuygunov, N., Schwendicke, F., Osathanon, T., Khurshid, Z., Boymuradov, S. A., & Cahyanto, A. (2025). The Transformative Role of Artificial Intelligence in Dentistry: A Comprehensive Overview. Part 1: Fundamentals of AI, and its Contemporary Applications in Dentistry. *International dental journal*, 75(2), 383–396. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.identj.2025.02.005>
76. Zhang, C., Fan, L., Zhang, S., Zhao, J., & Gu, Y. (2023). Deep learning based dental implant failure prediction from periapical and panoramic films. *Quantitative imaging in medicine and surgery*, 13(2), 935–945. <https://doi.org/10.21037/qims-22-457>
77. Alshadidi, A. A. F., Alshahrani, A. A., Aldosari, L. I. N., Chaturvedi, S., Saini, R. S., Hassan, S. A. B., Ciccù, M., & Minervini, G. (2023). Investigation on the Application of Artificial Intelligence in Prosthodontics. *Applied Sciences*, 13(8), 5004. <https://doi.org/10.3390/app13085004>
78. Rezaie, F., Farshbaf, M., Dahri, M., Masjedi, M., Maleki, R., Amini, F., Wirth, J., Moharamzadeh, K., Weber, F. E., & Tayebi, L. (2023). 3D Printing of Dental Prostheses: Current and Emerging Applications. *Journal of composites science*, 7(2), 80. <https://doi.org/10.3390/jcs7020080>
79. Haleem, A., Javaid, M., Singh, R. P., & Suman, R. (2021). Telemedicine for healthcare: Capabilities, features, barriers, and applications. *Sensors international*, 2, 100117. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sintl.2021.100117>
80. Ronsivalle, V., Ruiz, F., Lo Giudice, A., Carli, E., Venezia, P., Isola, G., Leonardi, R., & Mummolo, S. (2023). From Reverse Engineering Software to CAD-CAM Systems: How Digital Environment Has Influenced the Clinical Applications in Modern Dentistry and Orthodontics. *Applied Sciences*, 13(8), 4986. <https://doi.org/10.3390/app13084986>

CHAPTER 8: ROBOTICS, AI-GUIDED SURGERY, AND VIRTUAL SURGICAL PLANNING IN ORAL AND MAXILLOFACIAL SURGERY

1. Wah JN. The rise of robotics and AI-assisted surgery in modern healthcare. *Journal of Robotic Surgery*. 2025 Jun 20;19(1):311.
2. Koutentakis M, Pouwels S. Integrated robotics, AI and 3D printing for precision and personalized upper gastrointestinal surgery: a narrative review. *Annals of Laparoscopic and Endoscopic Surgery*. 2025 Jan 1;10:34.
3. Kok Wah JN. AI-driven robotic surgery in oncology: advancing precision, personalization, and patient outcomes. *Journal of Robotic Surgery*. 2025 Jul 12;19(1):382.
4. Xu P, Liu M, Liu M, Shen A. Artificial intelligence in surgical oncology: A comprehensive review from preoperative planning to postoperative care. *Intelligent Oncology*. 2025 Sep 20.
5. Nigam S, Gupta M, Srivastava S, Khan MA, Malik S, Chaturvedi R. Future of AI-Driven Surgical Robotics. In 2025 3rd International Conference on Disruptive Technologies (ICDT) 2025 Mar 7 (pp. 413-418). IEEE.
6. Thakre D, Patel J. The advancements and benefits of AI-assisted robotic surgery. In 2024 2nd DMIHER International Conference on Artificial Intelligence in Healthcare, Education and Industry (IDICAIEI) 2024 Nov 29 (pp. 1-5). IEEE.
7. Knudsen JE, Ghaffar U, Ma R, Hung AJ. Clinical applications of artificial intelligence in robotic surgery. *Journal of robotic surgery*. 2024 Mar 1;18(1):102.
8. Chen C, Zhang X, Qin L, Meng L. Comparative Analysis of AI-Generated and Manually Designed Approaches in Accuracy and Design Time for Surgical Path Planning of Dynamic Navigation-Aided Endodontic Microsurgery: A Retrospective Study. *International Endodontic Journal*. 2025 Oct 1.
9. Liu Z, Huang J, Zhang H, Zhang S, Dai H, Jiang Y, Bi H, Shan Z. The application of robotic and artificial intelligence technologies in spinal surgery: a review focused on prospects in remote areas of China. *Journal of Robotic Surgery*. 2025 Dec;19(1):1-7.
10. Hamilton A. The future of artificial intelligence in surgery. *Cureus*. 2024 Jul 2;16(7).
11. Takeuchi M, Kitagawa Y. Artificial intelligence and surgery. *Annals of gastroenterological surgery*. 2024 Jan;8(1):4-5.
12. Leszczyńska A, Obuchowicz R, Strzelecki M, Seweryn M. The Integration of Artificial Intelligence into Robotic Cancer Surgery: A Systematic Review. *Journal of Clinical Medicine*. 2025 Sep 1;14(17):6181.
13. Adeola F, Alex C, Noel D. AI-Based Visualization in Precision Surgery and Robotic-Assisted Procedures.
14. Efstathiou A, Charitaki E, Triantopoulou C, Delis S. Artificial Intelligence and Digital Tools in HPB Surgery: From Imaging to Intraoperative Guidance—A PRISMA-Guided Systematic Review.

15. Franceschini C, Ahmadi M, Zhang X, Wu K, Lin M, Weston R, Rodio A, Tang Y, Engeberg E, Pires G, Cheema TS. Revolutionizing spine surgery with emerging AI–FEA integration. *Journal of robotic surgery*. 2025 Sep 18;19(1):615.
16. Eskandar K. The Role of Artificial Intelligence in Orthopedic Surgery: Current Applications and Future Perspectives–A Systematic Review of the Literature. *Revista Española de Cirugía Ortopédica y Traumatología*. 2025 Oct 28.
17. Elkohail A, Soffar A, Khalifa AM, Omar I, Mosaad M, Abdulaziz M, Elsaket A, Panhwer HS, Abdelglil M, Teama M, Swealem A. AI-Enhanced Surgical Decision-Making in Orthopedics: From Preoperative Planning to Intraoperative Guidance and Real-Time Adaptation. *Cureus*. 2025 Sep 19;17(9).
18. Bukhari SM, Kumar I. Real-Time AI in Surgery: A Review of Precision, Innovation, and Future Directions in Surgical Assistance. *International Journal of Performability Engineering*. 2025 May 1;21(5).
19. Hupp JR. Robotics and oral-maxillofacial surgery. *Journal of Oral and Maxillofacial Surgery*. 2020 Apr 1;78(4):493-5.
20. Borumandi F, Heliotis M, Kerawala C, Bisase B, Cascarini L. Role of robotic surgery in oral and maxillofacial, and head and neck surgery. *British Journal of Oral and Maxillofacial Surgery*. 2012 Jul 1;50(5):389-93.
21. Liu HH, Li LJ, Shi B, Xu CW, Luo E. Robotic surgical systems in maxillofacial surgery: a review. *International journal of oral science*. 2017 Jun;9(2):63-73.
22. Hassfeld S, Raczkowsky J, Böhner P, Hofele C, Holler C, Mühling J, Rembold U. Robotics in oral and maxillofacial surgery. Possibilities, chances, risks. *Mund-, Kiefer-und Gesichtschirurgie: MKG*. 1997 Nov 1;1(6):316-23.
23. Borumandi F, Cascarini L. Robotics in oral and maxillofacial surgery. *The Annals of The Royal College of Surgeons of England*. 2018 May;100(6_sup):19-22.
24. Panahi O. The evolving partnership: Surgeons and robots in the maxillofacial operating room of the future. *J Dent Sci Oral Care*. 2025;1(1):1-7.
25. Dutta SR, Passi D, Sharma S, Singh P. Transoral robotic surgery: a contemporary cure for future maxillofacial surgery. *Journal of Oral and Maxillofacial Surgery, Medicine, and Pathology*. 2016 Jul 1;28(4):290-303.
26. Desai A, Singh A, Patel S, Chhatabar R, Nakum P, Sama S. Robotics in Oral and Maxillofacial Surgery-A Review. *Journal of Medical and Dental Science Research*. 2025;12(2):46-56.
27. Troise S, Arena A, Barone S, Raccampo L, Salzano G, Abbate V, Bonavolontà P, Romano A, Sembrionio S, Robiony M, Califano L. Transoral robotic surgery in maxillofacial surgery: Systematic review of literature on current situation and future perspectives. *Current problems in surgery*. 2024 Aug 1;61(8):101504.
28. Ma Q, Kobayashi E, Suenaga H, Hara K, Wang J, Nakagawa K, Sakuma I, Masamune K. Autonomous surgical robot with camera-based markerless navigation for oral and maxillofacial surgery. *IEEE/ASME Transactions on Mechatronics*. 2020 Feb 6;25(2):1084-94.
29. Shetty P, Hegde P. From Static to Robotic: Evolving Navigation Systems in Oral and Maxillofacial Surgery. *Oral Surgery, Oral Medicine, Oral Pathology and Oral Radiology*. 2025 Oct 31.
30. Sharma P, Chowdhry A, Singh M, Das AT. Robotic surgery in oral and maxillofacial surgery. *Indian Journal of Health Sciences and Care*. 2022;9(3):120-5.
31. Liu C, Li Y, Wang F, Liu Y, Bai S, Zhao Y. Development and validation of a robotic system for milling individualized jawbone cavities in oral and maxillofacial surgery. *Journal of Dentistry*. 2024 Nov 1;150:105380.
32. Balasundaram I, Al-Hadad I, Parmar S. Recent advances in reconstructive oral and maxillofacial surgery. *British Journal of Oral and Maxillofacial Surgery*. 2012 Dec 1;50(8):695-705.

33. Navalesi P, Oddo CM, Chisci G, Frosolini A, Gennaro P, Abbate V, Prattichizzo D, Gabriele G. The use of tactile sensors in oral and maxillofacial Surgery: An overview. *Bioengineering*. 2023 Jun 26;10(7):765.
34. Salzano G, Maffia F, Dell'Aversana Orabona G. Current trends and innovations in oral and maxillofacial surgery. *Journal of Basic and Clinical Physiology and Pharmacology*. 2025 May 30;36(2-3):237-40.
35. Yu GY. Oral and maxillofacial surgery: Current and future. *Annals of Maxillofacial Surgery*. 2013 Jul 1;3(2):111-2.

Advertisement Section:

Your Trusted Partner in Dental and Medical Publication and Patent Filings

Explore our comprehensive offerings for research support and academic publishing in dentistry and related fields.

Our Services

1. Paper Writing and Publication
2. Expert assistance for your scholarly publications in PUBMed Central, Web of Science Core Collection, Scopus Indexed Journals and SCIE Journals.
3. Comprehensive writing support for academic excellence.
4. Patents and copyright services for your innovations.
5. Thesis Writing, LD writing and Books Writing
6. Indian Patents, UK Patents, Canadian Copyrights, South African Utility Patents
7. Thesis Writing, LD writing and Books Writing

Dr Ritik Kashwani
Phone Number: +91-7004837260

dentalinsightpublication@gmail.com
www.dentalinsightpublication.in

Launch Your Academic Journal With Confidence

End-to-End Journal Launch & Indexing Services

Complete Journal Setup (Start to End)
OJS Installation & Custom Development
Journal Website Design & Development
DOI, CrossRef & Metadata Setup
Google Scholar, UGC, Scopus Indexing Support
Peer Review & Manuscript Management System
SEO for Journals & Publishers

Trusted by Publishers, Universities & Researchers

Yogesh Singh
Dwarka, New Delhi, India

yogeshbishttech@gmail.com
info@digitalbisht.in

+91-9625801660

CHAPTERS INCLUDED

1. Role of Imaging in Oral Cancer Detection and Management
2. Advances in Clear Aligners: The Future of Orthodontic Treatment
3. Periodontal Regeneration: Current Advances in Tissue Engineering
4. Smart Materials in Dentistry: Responding to Environmental Stimuli for Improved Longevity
5. Oral Health of Underserved and Vulnerable Populations
6. Advanced Regenerative Strategies & Material Science
7. Personalized Prosthodontics
8. Robotics, AI-Guided Surgery, and Virtual Surgical Planning in Oral and Maxillofacial Surgery

ABOUT THE EDITORS



DR SOORIAPRAKAS CHANDRASEKARAN

Dr. Sooriaprakas Chandrasekaran, MDS, is a dynamic academician, clinician, researcher, and innovator of national repute in the field of Conservative Dentistry and Endodontics. He completed his Bachelor of Dental Surgery in 2010 and Master of Dental Surgery in 2014 from Meenakshi Ammal Dental College, a constituent college of Meenakshi Academy of Higher Education and Research (MAHER), Chennai, Tamil Nadu.

He currently serves as Associate Professor at Meenakshi Ammal Dental College and Hospital, Chennai, and is the Founder and Director of Sooria Multispecialty Dental Clinic. He is a Consultant Endodontist at several reputed dental clinics and hospitals. He is a Diplomate of the Indian Board of Endodontics and has been conferred the Fellowship from the Pierre Fauchard Academy, recognizing his professional excellence and ethical service. He has several national and international publications to his credit.

Actively involved in dental innovation, patent development, and academic mentorship, his vision is to integrate ethical, evidence-based practice with innovation to promote the preservation of natural dentition.



DR. AKSHAY RATHI

Prof. Dr. Akshay Rathi completed his B.D.S. from the prestigious GDC&H, Mumbai in May 1995, University Gold Medalist. He was the first postgraduate student of his guide Dr. Prabodh Wakankar, in Nair Dental from 1996 to 1998. Also, the recipient of several prestigious medals, awards, certificates, and scholarships during his meritorious course. He was a lecturer in Nair Dental and is an Honorary Professor in GDC&H, Mumbai from February 2023. He is the Editor of the Journal Gonion, and the Associate Editor of IJADS (International Journal of Advanced Dental Sciences).

He maintains an exclusive orthodontic practice at Rathi's Dental Center, Juhu, Mumbai and consulted for 10 years at Happiness Dental Centre, Oman. He has presented lectures, moderated sessions, held demonstrations at several national and international forums and has numerous publications to his credit. He has been the key opinion leader for Osstem Micro-Implants. He is a Fellow in Oro-Facial Pain, TMD and Sleep Dentistry from Roseman University, USA.



DR. NAVIN KUMAR DURAISAMY

Assistant Professor, Department of Periodontics, having postgraduate training and experience in academics and clinical dentistry. He has been actively involved in undergraduate and postgraduate teaching, patient care, academic administration, and clinical responsibilities. He obtained his Bachelor of Dental Surgery (BDS) and Master of Dental Surgery (MDS) in Periodontics and has a strong foundation in evidence-based dental practice and contemporary treatment protocols. His areas of expertise include periodontal therapy, periodontal surgery, preventive dentistry, restorative and esthetic procedures, oral prophylaxis, scaling and root planing, and interdisciplinary treatment planning. He is known for his systematic, patient-centered, and evidence-based approach to diagnosis, treatment planning, and clinical documentation. His academic interests include dental education, clinical research orientation, and the practical application of scientific evidence in routine practice. As an author, Dr. Navin Kumar aims to contribute to dental education by providing structured, clinically relevant content that supports strong foundational knowledge and ethical, high-quality dental practice.

Publisher Information Publisher:

FONT FUSIONS PUBLICATION PRIVATE LIMITED
Ground Floor, A-41 Noida, Sec-22,
Gautam Buddha Nagar, Uttar Pradesh, India, 201301
Website: <https://fontfusionspublication.com/>
Email: publisher@fontfusionspublication.com
Phone: +917004837260

Copyright Information © The Authors



ISBN Number :

978-81-983667-3-3

