



ISSN Print: 2394-7489
ISSN Online: 2394-7497
IJADS 2023; 9(1): 236-243
© 2023 IJADS
www.oraljournal.com
Received: 31-12-2022
Accepted: 05-01-2023

Dr. Tabish Bashir
MDS Orthodontics and
Dentofacial Orthopaedics,
Private Practitioner, Srinagar,
Kashmir, Jammu and Kashmir,
India.

Distraction Osteogenesis: clinical applications and biologic principles for Orthodontics and Dentofacial Orthopaedics

Dr. Tabish Bashir

DOI: <https://doi.org/10.22271/oral.2023.v9.i1d.1687>

Abstract

Dentofacial Distraction Osteogenesis is the gradual and incremental traction force/ tension to surgically separated bony segments of the stomatognathic system to produce additional bone with regeneration of attendant soft tissue. Distraction Osteogenesis/Histogenesis is a primary example of surgically induced tissue engineering. The distraction causes a cascade of biological factors to generate tissue (bone and soft tissue). It has become a substitute for current techniques of bone grafting and alloplastic materials in Dentofacial surgery. The principles of distraction osteogenesis can be simplified into 4 periods: 1. Creation of a distraction zone; 2. Latency period; 3. Activation period; 4. Consolidation period. The primary purpose of these principles is to shift the bony segment into the defect with regeneration of hard and soft tissues around the space of transported segment. There are 3 common types of distraction osteogenesis: unifocal, bifocal and trifocal depending upon number and direction of distraction devices employed and number of transport segments created. The process by which mechanical forces are converted to cellular signals is termed mechanical transduction. Through the conversion of mechanical (tension stress) signals to biological cascades, the DH method can activate a number of regulatory processes and restart the vigorous regenerating capacity of musculoskeletal tissues. The molecular mechanisms of DH are still expanding as a result of new technologies like next-generation sequencing, proteomics, and metabolomics, despite the fact that, any research have concentrated on them and the surgical concepts of DH have been better defined and perfected. This article explores types, histological stages, cellular and molecular mechanisms & indications.

Keywords: Distraction osteogenesis, dentofacial orthopaedics, orthodontics, tissue engineering, bone regenerate, mechanotransduction, cellular mechanisms

Introduction

Intraoral Distraction Osteogenesis (DO) Callus Distraction/Distraction Histogenesis (DH) is an orthopaedic/surgical procedure used to lengthen or reshape bones and consequently adjacent soft tissues of the stomatognathic system, through controlled traction of separated bone segments with generation of new bone and adjacent soft tissue. The primary biologic concepts of osteogenesis and histogenesis are at the core of these procedures. It is often used to correct abnormalities or defects in the jaw or other facial bones that may affect the function or appearance of the face ^[1, 2].

Distraction Osteogenesis has a history dating back to Hippocrates, Codivilla (1905) and Gravril A Illizorov (limb lengthening) ^[3, 4]. Distraction osteogenesis was first applied to the human mandible in 1992 by McCarthy *et al.* ^[1, 5] In 2001, Liou and Huang ^[6, 7] first applied DO to orthodontic treatment in 1998 using a technique called “Dental distraction” to rapidly retract canines. Iseri *et al.* and kisinisci *et al.* later developed a different technique called “dentoalveolar distraction” for rapid canine distalization using osteotomies ^[8, 9]. Intraoral DO can be an effective treatment for a variety of conditions, including both congenital and acquired abnormalities of jaw, midface, zygomatic bones and calvarium, condylar reconstruction in temporomandibular joint ankylosis, facial injuries including non-healing fractures, Cystic and oncologist jaw deformities and issues resulting from previous surgery.

Corresponding Author:
Dr. Tabish Bashir
MDS Orthodontics and
Dentofacial Orthopaedics,
Private Practitioner, Srinagar,
Kashmir, Jammu and Kashmir,
India.

Cases of syndromic (Pierre-Robin, Godenhar, Treacher Collins, Facial Clefts, alveolar clefts, cranial microsomia) or calvarial, fronto-orbital complex hypoplasias and non-syndromic bimaxillary shortening e.g. retrognathic mandible in Obstructive Sleep Apnea (OSA) where orthognathic surgery is not the first choice, are indicated for DO. It can also be used to correct problems with the bite or teeth, such as an overbite or underbite, movement of a tooth e.g. canine, impacted tooth or a group of teeth e.g. anterior teeth retraction and expansion of palate. Correction of alveolar atrophies, cross bites and canting of occlusal planes are indicated for DO. DO has been shown to be effective in speeding up orthodontic treatment time [10]. DO/DH procedures have an advantage over routine

orthodontic and orthognathic procedures in that there is absence of relapse due to histogenesis and growth of soft tissues [11, 12]. DO/DH procedures in newborns for mandibular advancement for airway enlargement due to growth problems can avoid tracheostomy [13, 14]. DO can reduce treatment time and complications of future orthodontic and orthognathic procedures [15, 16]. Some of the disadvantages of DO include inaccurate vector orientation leading to unfavourable loading of joints and tissues, scaring, pain, oral hygiene maintenance, daily visits for activation. Such disadvantages are reduced with improvements in three dimensional control device designs resulting in accuracy and less negative impact on adjacent tissue [17, 18].

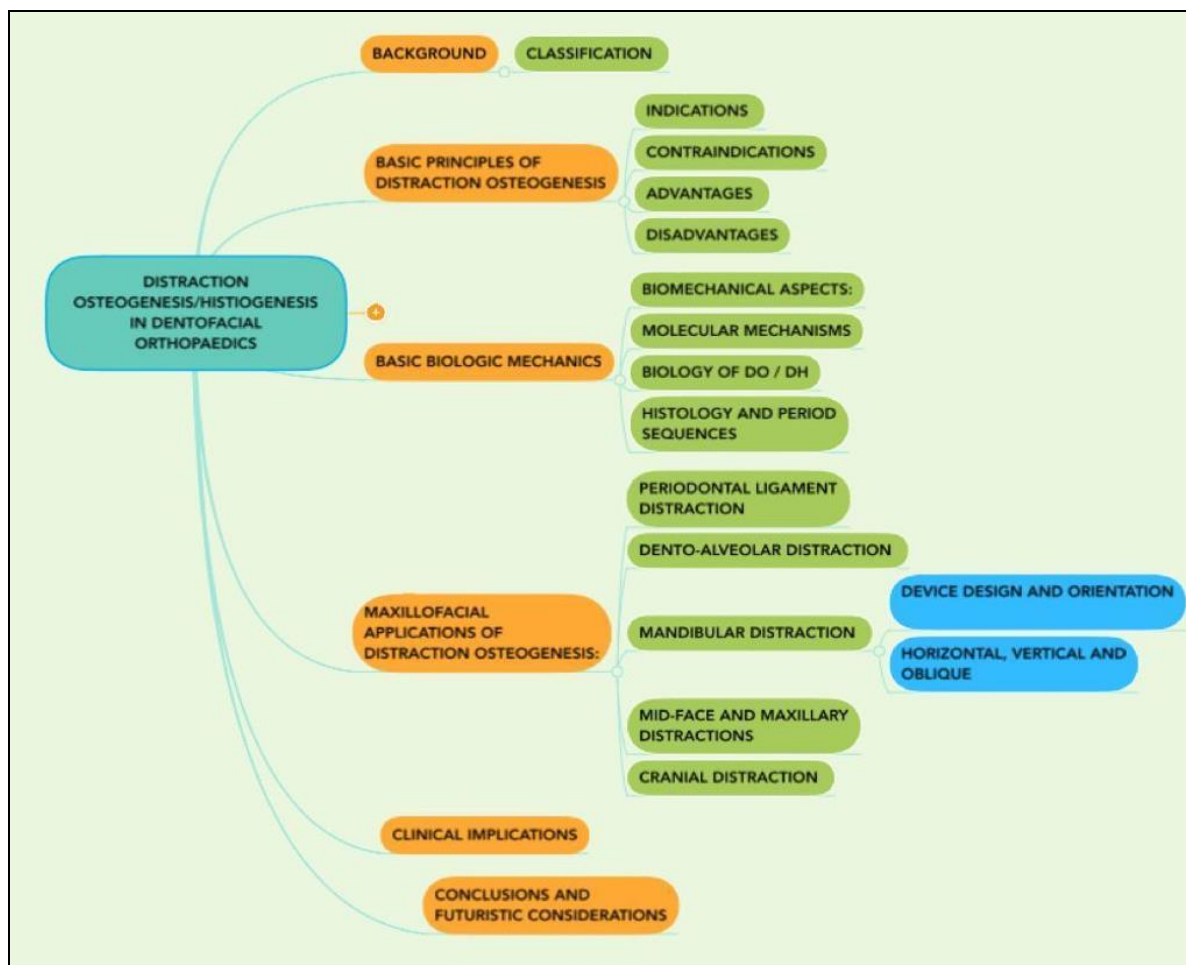


Fig 1: Brief Outline of Distraction Osteogenesis.

Device

A distractor is a device that comprises of two halves connected by screw, secured to the bones/teeth to be distracted and distraction of segments is achieved over a period of several weeks with activation of screw. Classification of distractor devices used in the maxillofacial region can be based on the site, such as the mandibular, midface or maxillary, alveolar, transport (reconstruction of neo-mandible/ neocondyle). Devices can also be classified based on their use, such as (RED) Rigid External Distractors secured to the bone using percutaneous pins, fixation clamps, and distraction rods and Internal Distractors which can be inserted either under or above the oral mucosa. External distractors can further be divided into unidirectional, bidirectional and multiplaner, whereas internal distractors

can be mandibular intraoral distractors, modular internal distractors (MID) and tooth borne distractors. Devices can also be classified as tooth borne, bone borne, or a hybrid type [19]. The material of the distraction device can also be a basis for classification, with bioresorbable devices used in infants with congenital disorders and non-resorbable, metallic devices. Distraction techniques can also be divided into two categories such as callotasis and distraction of the bone growth plate resulting in distraction epiphysiolysis and chondrodiatasis. Distraction methods can be further divided into three categories, such as Monofocal, Bifocal, and Trifocal. They are differentiated on the basis of number of osteodistraction gaps and calluses produced by surgical fracture with monofocal used for minor adjustments and trifocals used for major surgical realignments [20, 21].

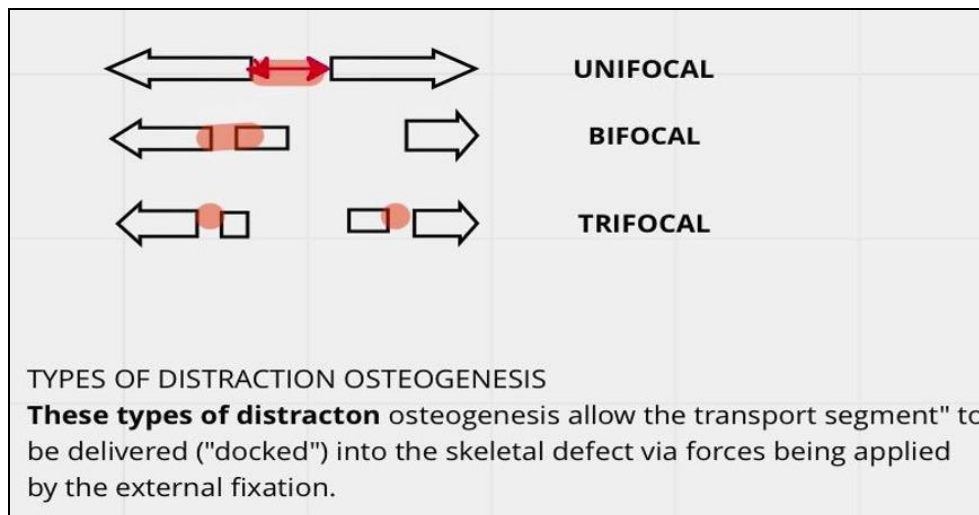


Fig 2: Types of Distraction Osteogenesis.

Basic Principles

The selection and placement of the distraction device on the mandible/maxilla is determined by a combination of factors. The biological and mechanical forces that shape the regenerate (newly formed bone during active period of distraction osteogenesis) are essential in determining the appliance position. The desired change in shape and function can be achieved by selecting and controlling the force vectors that operate during active distraction [1, 22]. The clinical extension of functional matrix concept is demonstrated by the quality, quantity and morphometrics of regenerated bone being dependent on the biologic forces of soft tissue neuromuscular envelope. Mechanical forces generated by occlusion, force vector generated by design and activation of distraction device and orthodontic auxillary, use during the different phases of distraction, determines the regenerated tissue morphometrics. Both these biologic and mechanical forces must satisfy the orthodontic treatment objectives of structural integrity, functional optimisation and aesthetics. Force transduction via adjacent structures influences the regeneration of the tissue between the bone fragments by modulating the stress produced within the callus [22, 23]. Stable fixation of the osteomised bone segments is critical for successful distraction and the distraction axis must be parallel to the anatomic axis of the bone and not to the biomechanical axis of loading to avoid unfavourable loading of the joint. Clinical studies have verified that the alteration in skeletal morphology is directly influenced by the device's orientation to the mandible and the best way to characterise the device's position is in reference to the mandibular body's long axis. There are three types of device placement: vertical, horizontal, and oblique. During planning distraction, the powerful impact of both biological and mechanical force systems must be considered in order to anticipate their resultant effects. The velocity and rhythm of the separating pressures affect how successfully new bone is formed during this process of distraction [24, 25].

The following is the order of the stages in distraction osteogenesis:

Osteotomy

To start and maintain the distraction osteogenesis, each bone segment that has undergone an osteotomy must have an enough number of live osteocytes. Because the periosteum in the well-vascularized craniofacial region affords significant osteoblastic activity, complete osteotomy is not preferable

over corticotomy [26].

Latency

The production of soft calluses occurs during the latency phase of distraction osteogenesis, which has a similar histological sequence to the mending of broken bones. The suggested initial delay duration ranges from 5 to 10 days [27].

Distraction

The application of progressive traction to the soft callus interrupts the natural healing process of the fracture during this period. The tension brought on by this traction force produces a dynamic microenvironment that promotes the growth of new tissue in a direction perpendicular to the traction vector. A fibrous, less vascular centre with collagen fibres parallel to the distraction vector, a transition zone of early bone formation, a bone remodelling zone, and mature bone at the ends are the four zones that emerge during distraction. The distraction process typically progresses between 0.5 and 1 mm every day [1, 28].

Remodeling and consolidation

Before the shape of the newly created bony tissue is comparable to that of preexisting bone and in which soft tissue adaptation also takes place, bone maturation begins and continues over a period of a year or more. When the distraction stops, this soft callus hardens and, mostly through intramembranous ossification, an unique zone of woven bone entirely fills the gap. For craniofacial bones, it is recommended that Pediatric patients undergo a 3-5 week phase and adults undergo a 6-12 week phase [29].

Distraction Osteogenesis involves a four stage process comprising of a fibrous central zone, transition zone, remodelling zone and mature zone. During the fibrous central zone, mesenchymal proliferation occurs and collagen bundles are longitudinally oriented. In the transition zone, osteoids begin to form along the collagen bundles. In the remodelling zone, osteoclast formation and remodelling of the newly formed bone occur. The last stage is the mature zone. The process by which mechanical forces are converted to cellular signals is termed mechanical transduction [30].

Two important factors set the healing process in DO apart from a fracture repair: 1) regulated microtrauma; and 2) an intramembranous rather than an endochondric ossification mechanism [1, 26].

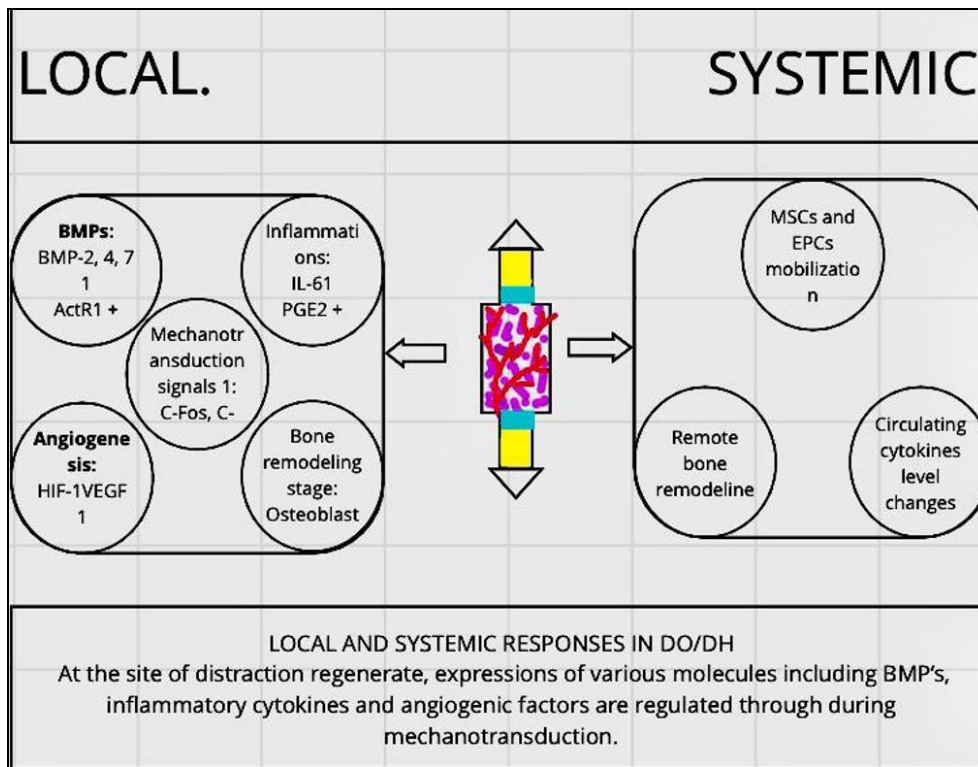


Fig 3: Local and Systemic Responses in DO/DH.

Molecular Mechanisms

The Distraction Osteogenesis/Distraction Histogenesis (DO/DH) technique can stimulate the robust potential of musculoskeletal tissues for regeneration and resume a number of regulatory processes. Through next-generation sequencing, proteomics, and metabolomics, research is uncovering the molecular pathways underlying DO/DH. Tension stress during DO/DH affects signal transduction molecules, BMPs, inflammatory and vascular proteins, as well as epigenetic factors [31, 32]. The biological pathways of DO/DH are being explored to improve clinical applications. During DH, inflammatory and immunomodulatory reactions are necessary for bone homeostasis and high levels of tensile strain induce the expression of pro-inflammatory genes (Prostaglandins, COX2) [33, 34]. Research is still uncovering how tensile stress affects systemic immune responses. Bone remodelling is necessary for medullary cavity recanalization during the late consolidation phase of DO, which can be regulated by PEMF, ultrasound and shock wave. Interleukin-6 and Tumour Necrosis factor are increased during consolidation and reduced bone formation, respectively [35, 36]. Tensile stresses have also been reported to modulate immune response. Mechanotransduction signalling mechanisms (YAP, TAZ, ERK-1/2) stimulate genes responsible for bone homeostasis and regeneration of Schwann cell derived myelin sheath during nerve cell lengthening. Elevated levels of Hippo signalling pathways, nuclear proto-oncogene proteins, C-fos and C-jun, BMP-2,4,6,7 during bone length increase and consolidation phase of bone remodelling have been identified establishing the interconnectedness of mechanical stimuli, gene activation and chemical response at molecular and cellular levels [19, 62].

The Distraction Histogenesis (DH) process is reliant on the production of Endothelial Progenitor Cells (EPCs) and their homing to the site of new bone production. The activation of VEGF receptors 1 (VEGFR1) and 2 is essential for neovascularization and bone production during DO [37, 38]. Hypoxia-induced factor 1 (HIF-1) and mechanical manipulation of the consolidation period through the accordion technique also influence the paracrine loop of VEGF and BMP-2, to maintain the coupling of angiogenesis and osteogenesis. Blocking either VEGFR1 or VEGFR2 has been found to decrease bone mineral density in the lengthening gap.

Bone marrow and adipose-derived MSC transportation has been shown to reduce the time required for bone consolidation in DO and DH models of limb or mandibular lengthening [39, 40]. The paracrine actions of the transferred cells are essential for bone healing. Growth hormones and EP2-specific agonists have been investigated to improve bone regeneration by delivering hormones, polypeptides, and anabolic agents throughout the body. In a rabbit DO model, single injection of 300mg of thrombin peptide 508 (TP 508) in propylene fumarate (PLGA) microparticles significantly facilitated bone consolidation. Post-transcriptional regulation of DO/DH-related genes is heavily depended on small non-coding RNAs (miRNAs). Bone production in DO models was increased by MSCs modified with basic fibroblast growth factor (Bfgf) and dental pulp stem cells (Runx2). Scaffolding materials such as lithium carbonate and magnesium have been investigated to promote bone development and consolidation [41, 42].

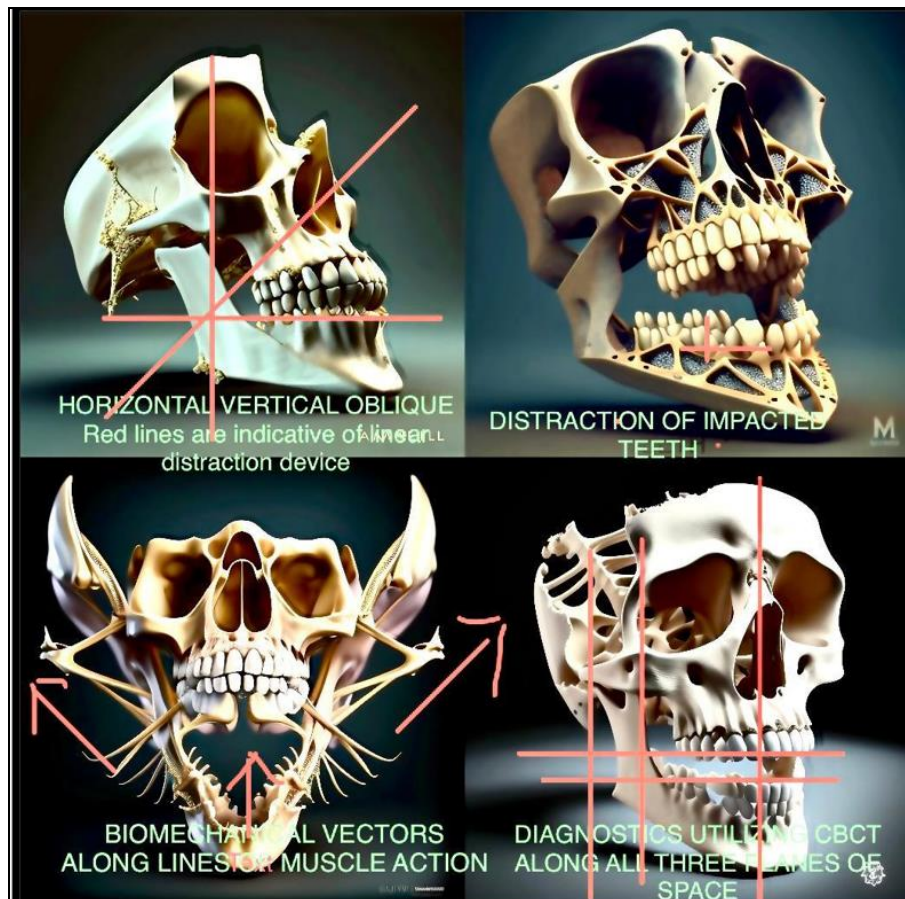


Fig 4: Clinical Applications.

Clinical implications for maxillofacial applications for distraction osteogenesis:

Device design, configuration, sturdiness and attachment stability impact the clinical success of the distraction osteogenesis procedure. Distraction device's orientation and the operational vector in relation to the anatomical axes of the bony segments involved are other device related factors that impact the success of the procedure. The bone geometric morphometrics, the cross-sectional area of bones involved, the bone density, the length of the transport-gap, and the tension of the soft envelope of muscles and nerves are tissue-related factors that influence the quality of the hard and soft tissue generated by osteodistraction. Use of an external or an internal device is one of the main planning factors in dento-maxillofacial distraction procedures. The external devices include three dimensional transportation capability and have an inherent capability to generate clinically optimal vector for bone transport. Internal devices usually have smaller, 25mm or less, range of distraction. Facial scarring and increased perpendicular distance from force generating point on distractor to the point of force application on bone, are some of the disadvantages of external distractor devices. The other disadvantage is inability to change force direction once inserted. External frame distraction is not used in Pediatric patients unless the airway is compromised [1, 43]. Internal distraction devices overcome most of the disadvantages of external frame devices because of their small size and ease of application enabling occlusal relations to be changed before the patient enters the consolidation phase of bone healing and allows for micro management of the process to be done while the distraction is happening. In patients with active growth when bone is more elastic distraction procedures are avoided until growth maturity. Osseodistraction with corticotomy of

the external cortex is advised in younger individuals [26]. Adults internal cortex has higher fracture resistance reducing the chances of failure. A waiting period of 4–7 days after osteotomy is advised before starting the distraction procedure, based on the findings with long bone distractions. Premature bone union is significantly more likely if distraction is delayed (beyond 10 to 14 days). The latency appears to be between 5 and 7 days with a distraction rate of 1mm/day [44]. The gold standards in the field of craniofacial distraction osteogenesis appear to be a distraction rate of 1mm/day and a delay of 5 to 7 days [1, 26, 43]. The following are some of DO/DH maxillofacial procedures that have been accomplished in collaboration with orthodontists in the recent past:-

Dento-alveolar distraction. In 1996, Chin and Toth^[45] reported the first clinical application of vertical mandibular alveolar distraction osteogenesis. Block and co-workers established the validity of distraction osteogenesis for alveolar ridge augmentation in mandibular canine. Osteodistraction of the alveolar process provides superior three dimensional reconstruction as compared to other procedures like grafting and tissue regeneration. To increase alveolar ridge bone volume for the placement of implants or for orthodontic tooth movements, alveolar ridge distraction is recommended.

Mandibular distraction: Clinical application of Illizarov's bone lengthening concepts were verified for face and jaws by Snyder *et al.* (external distractor for canine distraction), McCarthy *et al.* (external distractors for congenital facial defects) and Guerrero (mid symphyseal widening with hyrax type screw) [46, 47, 48]. Patients with facial dysmorphism, respiratory functioning issues, and disorders such Pierre

Robin, Treacher Collins syndrome, developmental micrognathia, and craniofacial microsomia. Ankylosis of the temporomandibular joint and post-ablative mandibular problems. Infant or Pediatric patient with sleep apnea and/or with swallowing difficulties. Trans-cutaneous (submandibular) or intraoral incisions are employed for intraoral or external device placement. Comparing distraction-based osteotomies to conventional osteotomies: earlier surgery, shorter procedure, less postoperative problems (including transfusions), and reduced need for additional surgery (grafts); a corresponding lengthening or expansion of the muscles and soft tissue envelop above (distraction histogenesis) results in over time the relapse rate being decreased [49].

Periodontal ligament distraction. Liou and Huang in 1998 introduced the concept of osteogenesis in the periodontal ligament during rapid orthodontic tooth movement that is comparable to the osteogenesis in the mid palatal suture during rapid palatal expansion. Distractor activation of 1mm/day combined with interseptal bone fracture of the extraction socket has been reported to reduce orthodontic treatment time by 3 to 4 months [50, 51].

Maxillofacial and mid face applications:

Polley *et al.* in one of the earliest clinical attempts used an fixed cranial halo to distract the midface. The advantages and disadvantages of Rigid External Distraction (RED) are the same as discussed above in other distraction procedures. Complete clinical regeneration of hard and soft tissues of mid-face with distraction was demonstrated by Figueroa *et al.* Maxillary Le Fort I distraction is indicated for the retrusion/protrusion in patients with Cleft Lip and Palate with attendant dental and soft tissue problems. Other indications for Midfacial Distraction with Maxillary Le Fort III distraction for midface retrusion, include respiratory issues, malocclusion and severe dysphmorphism especially in the syndromic craniofacial synostosis with Exorbitism and Craniofacial Microsomia (can be treated with combined maxilla-mandibular distraction) [52].

Cranial distraction:

Polezhaev [1, 19] demonstrated the first clinico-experimental study on cranial osteodistraction for bone transport to a calvarial defect. Cranial distraction procedure is performed with both external frame and internal miniature devices for simultaneous midface and forehead distraction after a Lefort IV osteotomy [53, 54]. Indications for cranial distraction procedures include a wide spectrum of craniofacial deformities, such as crouzon's syndrome, Aperts syndrome, Pfeiffer's syndrome and mid face abnormalities owing to craniofacial anomalies.

Orthodontic Treatment Protocol

- Predistraction orthodontics includes leveling, alignment, maxillary and mandibular arch co-ordination, decompensation with teeth placed over basal arch, root divergence at osteotomy site for its facilitation.
- Orthodontics during distraction and consolidation phase includes the use of intramaxillary and/or intermaxillary elastics, mini implants, headgear to initiate movement towards post distraction position and control clockwise or counterclockwise rotation of distracted segments according to developing clinical situations. Orthodontic treatment in this phase exerts a three dimensional control

in horizontal, vertical and transverse dimensions to effect a favourable biomechanical system for correction of distracted segments.

- Post distraction orthodontics includes completion of residual dentoalveolar movements, finishing and detailing of occlusion, root paralleling and artistic positioning of teeth for functional occlusion and facial esthetics.
- Retention of achieved dentoalveolar and bone shape and position is accomplished with fixed or removable retainers [55].

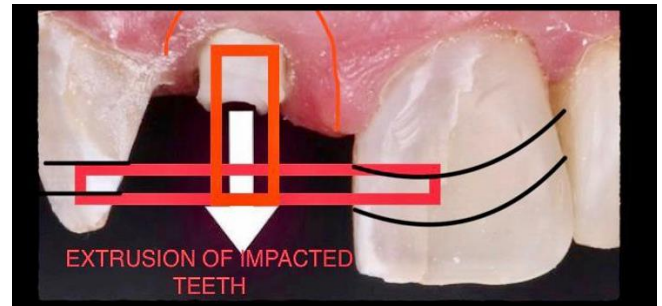


Fig 5: Extrusion of Impacted Teeth.

Experiment studies have demonstrated that after four days of consolidation, the load-bearing group displayed a larger percentage of regenerated bone as well as higher levels of osteocalcin, type I collagen, morphogenetic proteins 2 and 4 (BMP-2 and BMP-4), and BMP-2. Extracellular matrix (ECM) proteins, cytokines, and growth factors are all involved in the processes of bone formation at the distraction gap. Recombinant human fibroblast growth factor (FGF) was used, according to Okazaki *et al.*, towards the conclusion of the diversion period [56]. The efficacy of DO was demonstrated by ECM proteins like osteocalcin, whose mRNA and protein expressions fluctuate across the various stages of distraction. Osteocalcin and other ECM proteins have successfully been used in DO. These regulatory factors mRNA and protein expressions change during the various stages of distraction, so using the right protein at the right time should maximise the result. The main sources of osteoblast precursors, the periosteum and endosteum, should be protected from heat or mechanical damage during surgery. Osteogenesis depends on a healthy blood supply to the distraction site. The doctor must make sure the soft tissues close to the potential distraction site are properly vascularized. In the regeneration, arterial insufficiency may cause ischemic fibrogenesis, which results in a loose, asymmetrical collagen network rather than the desired dense, regular collagen pattern. Cystic degeneration of the regeneration has been linked to restriction of the venous outflow. A corticotomy should only be conducted through a small periosteal aperture since early investigations in long bones found that an undamaged periosteum and endosteum were essential for effective osteogenesis [57, 58].

Conclusions and Futuristic Considerations

Due to their expertise in biomechanics and long-term patient care, orthodontists are well-suited to administer and utilise this novel therapeutic treatment. It will be crucial for orthodontists to comprehend the next generation of internal distraction devices and learn how to include distraction osteogenesis into their treatment plan as distraction osteogenesis obtains more clinical recognition. Finally, just like other types of orthognathic surgery, distraction

osteogenesis relies on the cooperation and preparation of the surgeon and orthodontist. For the purpose of lengthening mandibles and other craniofacial bones, distraction osteogenesis is a crucial clinical process; nonetheless, it necessitates interdisciplinary and coordinated care to guarantee a positive clinical outcome for the patient.

The DO/DH technique has a future in the management of osteoarthritis (OA) by unloading the joint cartilage and subsequent reduced inflammatory infiltrates and pain, increased angiogenesis and function, with internal distractors offsetting the disadvantage of prolonged wear of external distractors (Wiegant *et al.*)^[59]. Disorders related to vascularity and circulation as in diabetic ulcers are other pathologies amenable for correction with DO/DH in future as demonstrated by Qu *et al.* in the treatment of thromboangitis obliterans^[60, 61] Kong *et al.*^[62, 63] stated that researches in DO/DH will extend our knowledge of tissue regeneration including neural regeneration in vascular and neurological disorders.

DH has traditionally employed least invasive approaches like ultrasound and electromagnetic stimulation but current methods of enhancing bone growth by transport of undifferentiated cells locally and mechanotransduction induced molecules and injection of hormones will in the near future favour distraction procedures for improved clinical outcomes. To extend our understanding of the basic biological processes research in these areas is an ongoing processes. Enhanced therapeutic applications of the DH approach will be made possible by knowing these basic pathways.

Acknowledgement: Nil.

Conflict of Interest: Nil.

Financial Support: Nil.

References

- Natu SS, *et al.* The biology of distraction osteogenesis for correction of mandibular and craniomaxillofacial defects: A review: Dental research journal (Isfahan). 2014 Jan-Feb;11(1):16-26.
- Menon S, *et al.* Distraction Osteogenesis in management of mandibular deformities: Med J Armed Forces India. 2005 oct;61(4):345-347.
- Birch JG. A brief history of limb lengthening: J Pediatr orthop. 2017 sep;37(suppl 2):S1-S8.
- Spiegelberg B, *et al.* Ilizarov principles of deformity correction. Ann R Coll Surg Engl. 2010 Mar;92(2):101-105.
- Neelakandan RS, Darpan Bhargava. Transport Distraction Osteogenesis for maxillomandibular reconstruction: Current concepts and applications. J. Maxillofac oral surg. 2012 Sep; 11(3):291-299.
- Iseri H, *et al.* Rapid canine retraction and orthodontic treatment with dentoalveolar distraction osteogenesis. Am J Orthod Dentofacial Orthop. 2005 May; 127(5):533-41.
- Koteswara Prasad NK. *et al.* Rapid maxillary canine retraction by dental distraction : A clinical study. Natl J Maxillofac Surg. 2014 Jan-Jun;5(1):6-13.
- Kateel SK, *et al.* A comparative study of canine retraction by distraction of the periodontal ligament and dentoalveolar distraction methods. J Maxillofac oral surg. 2016 Jun;15(2):144-145.
- Kumar N, *et al.* Dentoalveolar distraction osteogenesis for rapid orthodontic canine retraction. J. Int oral Health. 2013 Dec;5(6):31-41.
- Iyer J, *et al.* Acquired facial, Maxillofacial and Oral Asymmetries- A review highlighting diagnosis and management. MDPI 15 August. 2021;13(9):1661.
- David Khechyoan Y. Orthognathic surgery: General considerations. Semin Plat surg. 2013 Aug;27(3):133-136.
- Wirthlin JO, Shetye PR. Orthodontists role in orthognathic surgery. Semin Plast Suurg. 2013 Aug;27(3):137-144.
- Steinbacher DM, *et al.* Mandibular advancement by distraction osteogenesis for tracheostomy- dependent children with severe micrognathis. J. Oral Maxillofac Surg. 2005 Aug;63(8):1072-1079.
- Katz EZS, *et al.* Obstructive sleep Apnea in infants. Am J Respir Crit care Med. 2012 Apr. 15; 185(8): 805-816.
- Kim Y.K. Complications associated with orthognathic surgery. J Korean Assoc Oral Maxillofac Surg. 2017 Feb;43(1):3-15.
- Jeong WS, *et al.* Can a surgery –first orthognathic approach reduce the total treatment time ? Int J Oral Maxillofac. Surg. 2017 Apr; 46(4):473-482.
- Priya Devdas Nakre, Harikiran AG. Effectiveness of oral health education programs : Asystematic review. J. Int Soc. Prev Community Dent. 2013 Jul-Dec;3(2):103-115.
- Kelsey JL, Lamster I.B. Influence of Musculoskeletal conditions on oral health among older adults. AmJ Public Health. 2008 July;98(7):1177-1183.
- Andrade N. Development and evolution of distraction devices: use of indigenous appliances for distraction osteogenesis – An overview. Annals of Maxillofacial Surgery. 2011 Jan-Jun; 1(1):58-65.
- Breugem C. Bioresorbable distraction device for the treatment of airway problems for infants with Robin sequence. Clinical oral investigations. 2015 July 10;19:1697.
- Sesenna E, *et al.* Mandibular distraction in neonates: indications, technique, results. Ital J Pediatr. 2 Feb 2020;38:7.
- Maheshwari S, *et al.* Biomechanics and orthodontic treatment protocol in maxillofacial distraction osteogenesis. Natl J. Maxillofac. Surg. 2011 July-Dec;2(2):120-128.
- Grayson BH, Santiago PE. Treatment planning and biomechanics of Distraction osteogenesis from an orthodontic perspective. Seminars in orthodontics vol. 5, No. 1 (March), 1999, 9-24.
- Cherian JJ, *et al.* Mechanical, Anatomical and kinematic axis in TKA : concepts and practical applications. Curr Rev Musculoskelet Med. 2014 Jun;7(2):89-95.
- Stuik T. Technical feasibility of personalized articulating knee joint distraction for treatment of Tibio femoral osteoarthritis. Clin Biomech (Bristol, Avon). 2017 Nov;49:40-47.
- Brody-camp S, Winters R. Craniofacial distraction osteogenesis. statpearls publishing. 25 July 2022.
- Tavakoli K, *et al.* The role of latency in mandibular osteodistraction. J. Craniomaxillofac surg. 1998 Aug;26(4):209-19.
- Horas K, *et al.* The role of soft tissue traction forces in bone segment transport for callus distraction strategies. Trauma Limb Reconstr. 2015 Apr;10(1):21-26.
- Sheen JR, Garla VV. Fracture healing overview. Statpearls Publishing LLC. May 8, 2022.

30. Tandon A, *et al.* Distraction Osteogenesis in orthodontics. International journal of mechanical engineering. June 2022;7:6.
31. Rachmiel A, Shilo D. The use of distraction osteogenesis in oral and maxillofacial surgery. Annals Maxillofac Surg 2015 Jul-Dec;5(2):146-147.
32. Li Y, *et al.* Overview of methods for enhancing bone regeneration in distraction osteogenesis: potential roles of biomaterials. J orthop Translat. 2021 Mar;27:110-118.
33. Kong LC, *et al.* An update to the advances in understanding distraction histogenesis : From biological mechanisms to novel clinical applications Journal of Orthopaedic Translation. 25 November 2020, 3-10.
34. Wojdasiewicz P, *et al.* The role of inflammatory and anti-inflammatory cytokines in the pathogenesis of osteoarthritis. Mediators Inflamm. 6 Mar 2014, 561459.
35. Kulkari OP, *et al.* The immune system in tissue environment regaining homeostasis after injury : Is inflammation always inflammation? Mediators inflamm. Aug 2016, 2856213.
36. Chovatiya R, Medzhitov R. Stress, inflammation and defence of Homeostasis. Mol cell, available in PMC. 2015 Apr 24;54(2):281-288.
37. Lee DY, *et al.* Mobilisation of endothelial progenitor cells in the healing and distraction osteogenesis. Bone. 2008 May; 42(5):932-941.
38. Marcola M, Rodrigues CE. Endothelial progenitor cells in tumor angiogenesis : Another brick in the wall. Stem cells Int. 2015 Apr. 27:832649.
39. Schipani E, *et al.* Regulation of osteogenesis – Angiogenesis coupling by HIFs and VEGF. J Bone Miner RES. 2009 Aug;24(8):1347-1353.
40. Calvani M, *et al.* Hypoxic induction of an HIF- 1 alpha-dependent Bfgf autocrine loop drives angiogenesis in human endothelial cells. Blood.2006 Apr.1;107(7):2705-2712.
41. Akaogi Jun. Prostaglandin E2 receptors EP2 and EP4 are upregulated in peritoneal macrophages and joints of pristine- treated mice and modulate TNF- alpha and IL-6 production. J. Leukoc Biol. 2004 Jul;76(1):227-36.
42. Stammitz S, Klimczak A. Mesenchymal stem cells, bioactive factors and scaffolds in bone repair: MDPI. 2021 Aug;10(8):1925.
43. Hego AF, Shuman MA. Distraction osteogenesis of the maxillofacial skeleton: Biomechanics and clinical implications. Open Access Scientific Reports. 2012;1(11):509.
44. Rajiv Agarwal. Unfavourable results with distraction in craniofacial skeleton. Indian J Plast surg.2013 May-Aug;46(2):194-203.
45. Mohanty R, *et al.* Vertical alveolar ridge augmentation by distraction osteogenesis. J Clin Diagn Res. 2015 Dec 1;9(12):ZC 43-ZC46.
46. Shyam AK, *et al.* Leg lengthening by distraction osteogenesis using the Ilizarov apparatus: a novel concept of tibia callus subsidence and its influencing factors. Int Orthop. 2009 Dec;33(6):1753-1759.
47. Kusec V, *et al.* Distraction osteogenesis by Ilizarov and unilateral external fixators in a canine model. International orthopaedics (SICOT). 2003;27:47-52.
48. Anirejuoritse Bafor. Distraction osteogenesis: A review of the literature. Nigerian journal of orthopaedics and trauma. January-june 2020;19(1):1.
49. Rachmiel A, *et al.* Management of obstructive sleep apnea in pediatric craniofacial anomalies. Annals of Maxillofacial surgery. July-December 2012;2(2):111-115.
50. Jiang N, *et al.* Periodontal ligament and alveolar bone in health and adaptation: Tooth movement: Front oral Biol. 2016;18:1-8.
51. Sanivarapu S, *et al.* Periodontally accelerated osteogenic orthodontics: Novel perio-ortho interrelationship. J Indian soc Periodontol. 2018 Sep-Oct; 22(5):459-462.
52. Yang L, *et al.* Alveolar distraction osteogenesis. A systemic literature review. Mahidol Dental journal. 2014;34(03):289-300.
53. Vedavathi HK, *et al.* The role of orthodontist in distraction osteogenesis. Indian journal of orthodontics and dentofacial research, july-sept. 2017;3(3):141-147.
54. Ulrike BU, *et al.* Mandibular midline distraction osteogenesis. Oral health dent Manag. 2013;12(4):532.
55. Da. Silveira A, *et al.* Orthodontic considerations for maxillary distraction osteogenesis in growing patients with cleft lip and palate using internal distractors. Semin Plast Surg. 2014 Nov;28(4):207-212.
56. Chu TMG, *et al.* Segmental bone regeneration using a load bearing biodegradable carrier of bone morphogenetic protein-2; Jan 2007;28(3):459-467.
57. Fu R, *et al.* Mechanical regulation of bone regeneration during distraction osteogenesis. Medicine in novel technology and devices; 27 April 2021.
58. Alvarez K, Nakajima H. Metallic scaffolds for bone regeneration. Biocompatibility of materials. 2009;2(3):790-832.
59. Grayson BH, *et al.* Treatment planning and biomechanics of distraction osteogenesis from an orthodontic perspective. Semin orthod. 1999 Mar;5(1):9-24.
60. Hu XX, *et al.* Effectiveness of transverse tibial bone transport in treatment of diabetic foot ulcer : A systematic review and meta-analysis. Front Endocrinol (Lausanne). 2022;13:1095361.
61. Nie X. Tibial cortex transverse transport facilitating healing in patients with recalcitrant non-diabetic leg ulcers. J Orthop Translat. 2021 Mar;27:1-7.
62. Kong LC. An update to the advances in understanding distraction histogenesis: From biological mechanisms to novel clinical applications. Journal of orthopaedic translation. Nov 2020;25:3-10.
63. Guang Yang, *et al.* Tendon and ligament regeneration and repair: clinical relevance and development paradigm. Birth defects Res C. Embryo Today. 2013 sep;99(3):203-222.

How to Cite This Article

Bashir T. Distraction Osteogenesis: clinical applications and biologic principles for Orthodontics and Dentofacial Orthopaedics. International Journal of Applied Dental Sciences. 2023;9(1):236-243.

Creative Commons (CC) License

This is an open access journal, and articles are distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution-Non Commercial-Share Alike 4.0 International (CC BY-NC-SA 4.0) License, which allows others to remix, tweak, and build upon the work non-commercially, as long as appropriate credit is given and the new creations are licensed under the identical terms.