



Platelet-rich plasma and bone morphogenetic protein: bucomaxillofacial and bone regeneration

Daniel Alfonso Yaguana Galarraga^{2,3,4*}, Luis Alonso Romero Urdiales^{1,3,4}, Régis Manzini^{3,4}

¹ ECUADENT CLINIC, Quito, Ecuador.

² ECUDENT CLINIC, Lorenzo de Garaicoa s4-06 y Humberto Mora, Quito, Ecuador.

³ UNORP - University Center North Paulista - Sao Jose do Rio Preto, Sao Paulo, Brazil.

⁴ UNIPOS - Post graduate and continuing education, Sao Jose do Rio Preto, Sao Paulo, Brazil.

*Corresponding author: Daniel Alfonso Yaguana Galarraga. ECUDENT CLINIC, Lorenzo de Garaicoa s4-06 y Humberto Mora, Quito, Ecuador.
E-mail: ygdaniel@hotmail.com

DOI: <https://doi.org/10.54448/mdnt22S104>

Received: 11-13-2021; Revised: 02-12-2022; Accepted: 02-15-2022; Published: 03-29-2022; MedNEXT-id: e22S104

Abstract

Introduction: Science has evolved at an accelerated pace in the last decades, due to the need to know more and more the human being and the environment that surrounds them. In the search for this knowledge, aiming to improve the quality of life and the treatment of diseases previously considered incurable, research, especially in the field of biotechnology, has transformed the day-to-day health professionals. The application of this biotechnology related to growth factors can be exemplified in the use of platelet-rich plasma (PRP), gel capable of modulating and accelerating some repair processes. **Objective:** The objective of this work was to review the concepts related to growth factors, as well as in relation to platelet-rich plasma as an adjuvant in bone regeneration therapies. **Methods:** The present study followed a systematic review model, following the rules of systematic review – PRISMA. This study focuses on the treatment of bone regeneration through platelet-rich plasma and morphogenetic protein (BMP). To this end, a survey was conducted in scientific articles in the databases PubMed, Medline, Scielo, Lilacs, and e-books. The Cochrane Instrument was used to assess the risk of bias of the included studies, and GRADE was used to classify the quality of articles to the type of study and scientific evidence. **Results and Conclusion:** Therefore, the use of PRP, which would accelerate the rate of bone formation, with bone morphogenetic proteins (BMPs), recombinant or autogenous, should be quite important and elucidative. The development of new research, seeking to use all known technology, will always be the best way for a short future to recognize what should be incorporated into the daily routine of

medical and dental clinics, differing from what, for various reasons, whether it was just a marketing procedure or something. The greatest advantage of the use of platelet-rich plasma is its ability to accelerate the process of bone regeneration by increasing the number of growth factors present in human platelets. On the other hand, it is observed that one of its major disadvantages is the low life expectancy of these platelets in the recipient or graft bed. However, it is also known that the PRP technique would only accelerate a process of bone regeneration that normally already occurs and this process follows its path until the formation of the mature bone.

Keywords: Bone regeneration. Bone Remodelation. Platelet-rich plasma. Bone morphogenetic protein.

Introduction

Science has evolved at an accelerated pace in the last decades, due to the need to know more and more about the human being and the environment that surrounds it [1,2]. In the search for this knowledge, aiming to improve the quality of life and the treatment of diseases previously considered incurable, research, especially in the field of biotechnology, has transformed the day-to-day health professionals [3-6].

Concern about the healing process and/or repair of the various tissues of the human body, the progressive identification of components from the organic and inorganic matrix of the bone tissue, as well as the in vitro manufacturing capacity of the same, has been a constant target of a new research field called Tissue Engineering [7]. The production or regeneration of any tissue is a complex biological process in itself since it

requires intrinsically regulated interactions between cells, the action of systemic hormones, participation of extracellular matrix components, and local action of so-called growth factors [7].

The application of this biotechnology related to growth factors can be exemplified in the use of platelet-rich plasma (PRP), gel capable of modulating and accelerating some repair processes, both bone and gingival, since this technique has been used, In dentistry, in the areas of bucomaxillofacial surgery, implantology and periodontics [7,8]. The simple strategy of obtaining the PRP gel is one of the success factors of this new technology since in a few minutes we can have a ready-to-use concentrate containing inside the various growth factors usually present in the platelets. In addition, this gel obtained can be considered non-toxic and non-immunoreactive [8].

Regarding one of the indications for the use of PRP in dentistry, in implantology, it is known that the technique of implant osseointegration presents high predictability of success when the bone remnant is favorable to its quantity and quality [8,9]. These initial conditions would be able to provide initial stability and optimal positioning of the implant to perform the posterior prosthetic step. The use of autogenous bone associated with platelet gel in the previous grafts would then be an excellent option in those cases where the requirements previously mentioned could not be filled [9,10].

The objective of this work was to review the concepts related to growth factors, as well as to platelet-rich plasma as an adjuvant in bone regeneration therapies.

Methods

Study Design

The present study followed a systematic review model, following the rules of systematic review - PRISMA (Transparent reporting of systematic review and meta-analysis, access available in: <http://www.prisma-statement.org/>).

Data Sources And Descriptors (MeSH Terms)

This study focuses on the treatment of bone regeneration through platelet-rich plasma and morphogenetic protein (BMP). To this end, a survey was conducted in scientific articles in the databases PubMed, Medline, Scielo, Lilacs and e-books. The keywords used were Bone regeneration. Bone Remodelation. Platelet-rich plasma. Bone morphogenetic protein, which are registered in the Health Sciences Descriptors. Selected papers passed criteria for inclusion and exclusion,

following the rules of the word PICOS (Patient; Intervention; Control; Outcomes; Study Design).

Main Predictors Continuous and Categorical

The main predictors are PRP and BMP.

Main Predictors Answer

The main predictor of response was bone regeneration.

Risk of Bias

The **Cochrane Instrument** was used to assess the risk of bias of the included studies, and **GRADE** was used to classify the quality of articles to the type of study and scientific evidence.

Results

Platelets are viable cytoplasmic fragments of blood that are incorporated into each trauma or surgical wound. After millions of years of evolution, extremely important functions for platelets related to hemostasis and healing have been proven [1-3]. Some authors have observed that regenerative cells of the bone tissue, also called undifferentiated mesenchymal cells, occur only in small amounts when compared to other functional and structural cells [7-14].

This number of mesenchymal cells varies greatly from newborn to elderly. Mean values range from 1: 10000 in the newborn, 1: 100,000 at 15 years, 1: 250000 at 35 years, 1: 400000 at 50 years, and finally 1: 2000000 in the elderly, around 80 years of age. These mesenchymal cells represent the tissue's ability to regenerate and, despite their small amount, they are capable of being induced by special cytokines or growth factors, increasing in number and undergoing cell differentiation. Also, they are also able, under certain conditions, to produce regulatory factors [15].

The process of bone regeneration is initiated by successive mitoses of mesenchymal and endothelial cells, as well as activation of osteoblasts and vascular proliferation guided by PDGFs and TGF- β . These growth factors also promote matrix formation and osteoblast differentiation [15]. Besides these factors, for there to be bone regeneration is essential to the presence of certain viable cells and biological or synthetic matrix. Local conditions of vascularization and the anatomy of the recipient bed also directly influence this process.

The bone formation phase in the remodeling process of this tissue involves a series of complex events that include chemotaxis of cells to the injured site, reabsorption, differentiation of lineage of pre-osteoblastic cells, and proliferation and production of

extracellular matrix [5-7]. These processes are monitored by so-called regulatory factors. Among the producing sources are the activated monocytes that secrete, among others, growth factors derived from platelets, interleukin-1, and fibroblast growth factors. Platelets are another source of factors that include transforming beta factors, platelet-derived growth factors, and epidermal growth factors. Platelets, by their location in the bloodstream, serve as an efficient vehicle

for distributing the factors to injured tissues [11].

Among the regulatory factors, growth factors are proteins that can act locally or systemically, altering the growth and function of cells in various ways [8]. They may have increased growth rate to accelerate the repair of a tissue, or even control the rate of production of a certain component of the extracellular matrix such as collagen [16], as shown in **Table 1**.

Table 1. Activity of growth factors [16].

	Proliferation Of fibroblasts	Proliferation of osteoblasts and pre-osteoblasts	Matrix synthesis Extracellular	Differentiation of mesenchymal cells	Vascularization
PDGF	++	++	-	-	+ ^a
IGF	+	++	++	-	-
BMP	-	+	+	++	++ ^a
TGF-β	+ OR -	+ OR -	++	-	+ ^a
FGF	++	++	-	-	++

Legends: PDGF - platelet-derived growth factor; IGF - Insulin growth factor; BMP - Bone morphogenetic protein; TGF-β - transforming growth factor -β; FGF- Fibroblast growth factor. Results: ++ = greatly increased, + = increased, + or - = slightly increased, - = no effect or negative effect. Note: a = indirect effect.

These factors may, as previously stated, transform inactive precursor cells such as undifferentiated mesenchymal cells into mature functional cells such as osteoblasts. Depending on the case, these cells may or may not be influenced by the factors that produced them [16]. These inactive precursor cells, as well as osteoblasts, then produce an immature and poorly mineralized bone, which progressively will be able to receive functional load.

Platelet-derived growth factors (PDGF) are glycoproteins with 30,000 daltons of molecular mass and isoelectric point in the range of 10.2. Although it is the main factor of platelets, it can also be synthesized and secreted by other cells such as macrophages, endothelial cells, monocytes and fibroblasts, according to Table 2. It can be considered a stable polypeptide at elevated temperatures up to 100 °C [11,12].

Table 2. Sources of growth factors in the surgical wound [11].

FACTORS GROWTH	MAIN SOURCES OF OBTAINMENT
PDGF	Platelets, macrophages, bone matrix, endothelial cells, epithelial cells and smooth muscle cells.
TGF-β	Platelets, macrophages, osteoblasts, bone matrix T lymphocytes, immature chondrocytes.
EGF/TGF-β	Platelets, macrophages, epithelial cells, eosinophils
IGF-I	Platelets, epithelial cells, endothelial cells, fibroblasts, smooth muscle cells, osteoblasts, bone matrix.
FGF	Macrophages, endothelial cells, osteoblasts, mature and immature chondrocytes, bone matrix.

Platelet-derived growth factors have two main roles. The first of the reserve site for other growth factors and the second is a hemostasis factor. This would probably be related to a mechanism of survival, since in a situation of bone fracture, for example, the injured site would be readily occupied by PDGFs,

facilitating not only hemostasis but also revascularization, fibroblast proliferation, collagen synthesis, increase in the production of granulation tissue and bone regeneration [17]. There is also a consensus that these growth factors increase the proliferation rate of mesenchymal cells [11].

Their molecular structure consists of dimers that may have the same or different amino acid chains (A-A or B-B) (A-B). The former are called homodimeric and the latter is called heterodimeric [16,18]. The A and B chains have similarities in the order of 60%, whereas the A chain is formed by 121 amino acids while the B chain has 125 amino acids [11]. The so-called PDGF-BB has the highest potential for activation of osteoblast-like cells while PDGF-AA is the one with the lowest potential. The PDGF-AB is in intermediate values [19]. The important role of platelet-derived growth factors (PDGFs) as autocrine or paracrine factors for human bone cells has been demonstrated through the work of Graves et al. (1989) [20]. Paracrine defines the growth factor that is secreted by one cell and exerts its effect on an adjacent second cell; In autocrine factors, this action also occurs in its cell membrane.

Due to their ability to act on a large number of cells (fibroblasts, muscle cells, bone cells, etc.), they have been considered as high specificity. When present at the wound site it seeks to target cells by adhering to two types of receptors (alpha and beta) of the cell membrane and establishing tyrosine-kinase protein bindings [8, 29]. Only beta receptors stimulate chemotaxis, although both induce mitogenesis [21,22]. This binding to alpha receptors is influenced by proinflammatory cytokines such as Interleukin-1 (II-1) and tumor necrosis factor (TNF- α) that are present in destructive inflammatory processes [23].

Despite the high rate of mitogenesis induced by this growth factor, accelerating the healing process, they occur in small amounts (about 0.06 ng of PDGF to one million platelets or 6×10^{-17} of PDGF per Platelet) [24]. In addition, it has been found that the maintenance of therapeutic concentrations of PDGF in periodontal wounds is very difficult, with a half-life of fewer than 5 hours. These would then be some of the reasons why the addition of growth factors associated with biological carriers such as methylcellulose or even the collection of platelet concentrates (differential centrifugation) could accelerate the properties of these growth factors [25-28].

In addition to the platelet-derived factors themselves (PDGF), others are also found in platelet-rich plasma (PRP). The beta-transforming growth factors and insulin-like growth factors type I have been described in some published papers and play an important role in the remodeling of bone and periodontal tissues [11,21,29]. Beta-transforming factors (TGF- β) encompass a superfamily of factors in which bone morphogenetic proteins (BMPs) are inserted. They received this designation because they were first described in pathological tissues (sarcomas)

[11,29].

Of the various TGF- β groups, the so-called TGF- β 1 and TGF- β 2 are the most common and involved in the processes of soft tissue healing and bone remodeling. Both have a dimeric structure with two subunits and an average molecular mass of around 25.0 kDa, each subunit is formed by 112 amino acids and approximately 12,500 daltons in mass. The types β 1 and β 2 present about 72% similarity, whereas the β 1-type are most commonly found in platelets, lymphocytes, and neutrophils, whereas β 2-types are more prevalent in bone tissue, platelets, lymphocytes, and neutrophils (Table 2) [11]. TGF- β 1 is also recognized as an activator of fibroblasts to form pre-collagen, which in turn will result in collagen, essential in the repair process [30].

When released by platelet degranulation or secreted by macrophages, these factors act on other cells such as fibroblasts, totipotent mesenchymal cells, and pre-osteoblasts. These cells, however, also can produce their TGFs that will act not only on themselves but also on other cells, sustaining and enhancing the entire process of bone remodeling [29]. Some authors even mention that TGF- β would have the capacity to inhibit the activation of osteoclasts, as well as bone resorption [31,32]. The insulin-like growth factors type I and II (IGF-1 and IGF-2) are secreted by osteoblasts during the formation of bone tissue to accelerate the process of deposition of mineralized tissue, according to Table 2 [11]. The presence of IGF in platelets could be understood as a way of acting on the precursors of osteoblasts and even on osteoblasts of the endosteum, which are the cells responsible for producing bone in the initial phase of the bone grafts. They are small molecule molecules (7.5 kDa) [32].

Despite this recognized mitogenic capacity for the osteoblast lineage, its chemotactic activity for fibroblasts, and bone matrix deposition, insulin-like growth factors do not seem to have the same ability to guide differentiation into bone tissue as do bone morphogenetic proteins (BMPs) [32]. Compared to platelet-derived growth factors (PDGF), insulin-like growth factors have the ten-fold mitogenic capacity, since IGF-1, for example, only reaches its mitogenic capacity at concentrations greater than 1.0 ng/mL [33,34].

Discussion

Several types of research have been published proving the participation of all these growth factors in the capacity to induce a greater capacity of repair or regeneration. In 1989, a combination of PDGF / IGF-I was used in dogs with the purpose of stimulating

periodontal regeneration and the results indicated that these agents were mitogenic and chemotactic for fibroblasts and osteoblasts [30].

The use of an autologous platelet-based compound was used in 32 patients aiming at the healing of chronic ulcers. The results indicated that the epithelization time of the wounds was 8.6 weeks, unlike the control group which presented a time of 15 weeks [22]. Through many types of research and works published in the last years and the fact that the first tissue to have contact with an endo-osseous implant is the blood, it has been observed that the early interactions of this blood with the implants and the cells present in the region may play a key role in the osteoconduction stage of the healing response of the peri-implant bone around the rough surface implants [35-37].

With the established bone/implant contact and the presence of platelets in this direct contact, they are assumed to undergo biochemical and morphological changes typical of their responses to extraneous surfaces. These changes include adhesion, distribution, aggregation, and other intracellular biochemical changes such as phosphotyrosine induction, intracellular Ca²⁺ increase, and phospholipid hydrolysis [13]. The scientific finding that the use of growth factors could stimulate osteoprogenitor cells to cell differentiation was suggested in another work where 40 implants were installed in 8 dogs and in the test group, a PDGF / IGF-I association was used simultaneously. The results were positive regarding bone regeneration around them [29].

In another work with implants, where an association of the use of ePTFE membranes, lyophilized particulate bone, and a combination of PDGF-BB / IGF-I was performed in 24 implants installed in dogs, the best results in relation to the bone density rates and Areas of bone growth corresponded to the group in which the membranes were associated with growth factors [12]. Research multiplied at an accelerated pace in the 1990s. Several studies on periodontal regeneration came to confirm the action of growth factors. The use of PDGF associated with dexamethasone and collagen matrix generated alveolar bone growth in interdental areas in monkeys [17,38,39].

The use of recombinant PDGF-BB was tested in bone defects produced in calvaria of 16 rabbits in order to evaluate the remodeling of mineralized tissues. Teflon membranes were used as barriers to maintain the growth factors in place [40-45]. The results after 8 weeks indicated that the growth of new bone into the defect was 52% in an area compared to 30.0% in the

control group. Another interesting feature showed that in the experimental group, the new bone presented a more trabecular aspect when compared to the more compact bone of the control group [46].

The search for an ideal hemostatic agent to be used in surgical wounds in soft and hard tissues resulted in the development of fibrin glues [27]. Fibrin adhesives also began to be related to a greater ability to repair surgical wounds after work performed where these adhesives or adhesives were obtained from the patient's own peripheral blood collection prior to surgery [24, 42]. As an alternative for this fibrin glue, the use of platelet gel was suggested for use in oral and maxillofacial surgery with the advantages of greater safety against infections and greater support for wound healing, due to the presence of a greater number of factors of Growth [47,48].

A 1998 study using several growth factors, including those found in platelets, demonstrated in vitro and in vivo the effectiveness of osteoblastic cells in osteotomies. The results were enthusiastic regarding the clinical use of these substances [26]. In the same way, bone grafts associated with the use of PRP were performed in 44 patients whose defects were greater than 5 cm in the mandible and the results showed a regeneration twice as fast and with a higher density in the groups where PRP was associated. This density reached 20.0% higher, showing that the quality of the newly formed bone would stimulate the use of this new technique [31]. This work was a milestone in the attempt to develop a methodology for the use of platelet-rich plasma. Multicentric studies began to be performed and methods of collection and processing became frequent concerns of researchers [32].

The use of inorganic bovine bone collagen matrix was tested in association with PDGF-BB in order to evaluate the interaction between them and also to determine if there would be a greater increase of osteoblastic cell proliferation when compared to the matrix without PDGF-BB. The results showed that both hypotheses could be confirmed [43]. Another study of the same year evaluated the results of the application of platelet-rich plasma collected and processed from patients' own blood in periodontal bone defects. This was the first published work associating this new methodology to periodontal surgical therapy. The results showed a significant reduction in the depth of probing as well as the neoformed bone was observed radiographically around 2 months postoperatively [36].

Many studies have evaluated that the time and manner of contact of growth factors in relation to their respective sites could influence the final regenerative capacity. Some biodegradable natural polymers

(chitosan®) associated with inorganic materials such as tricalcium phosphate were tested as spongy carriers for PDGF-BB. Chitosan® has been assigned hemostatic properties, inducing bone formation and regulating the release of bioactive agents as antibiotics and anti-inflammatories. The results of this work, performed in rat calvaria, indicated statistically significant improvements in the groups in which PDGF-BB was added. Evidence of carrier material encapsulated by fibrous tissue was found in the regenerated bone area [24].

Still, in relation to the time, it would be important to emphasize that although the beginning of the regenerative process of bone provoked by the action of platelet factors is immediate, its duration does not exceed 7 to 10 days, a lifetime of these cells. After 5 to 7 days and it is these macrophages that will secrete more growth factors giving continuity to the process [33]. The results indicated that in the 3-week period there was a greater difference between the experimental groups (associated with growth factors) in relation to the control groups. The comparative result in the group analyzed after 8 and 12 weeks did not present statistically significant differences in the percentage area of bone/implant contact [43]. The high values found for the analysis of neoformed bone in the group of 3 weeks in relation to the other times could also well exemplify this initial osteoblastic activity.

Similar results were found using bovine osteogenic protein (OP-1) and immediate implants when they were evaluated over a 3-week period [40]. In the same study, the results in longer periods (8 and 12 weeks) also do not show statistically significant differences. The same results can also be observed in Cook et al., 1995 [17]. On the other hand, in a comparative analysis between the use of expanded polytetrafluoroethylene membrane alone or associated with rh-PDGF, rhIGF-1, or lyophilized bone (DFDBA), in areas around immediate implants, it showed significant results even in the group analyzed after 18 Weeks [15]. The use of platelet-rich plasma has been indicated and used in other areas of bucomaxillofacial surgery that do not involve the therapy associated with dental implants. In a study published in 2002, the authors report a clinical case where a 13-year-old patient, with an alveolar cleft, needed correction aimed at the end of orthodontic treatment.

The closure of the alveolar cleft is indicated for the prevention of constriction and collapse of the maxilla, closure of buconasal fissures, an irruption of the canine or lateral incisor through the good bone anchorage and the periodontal support to the teeth adjacent to the cleft. In this case, the patient had a complete left

unilateral pre-foramen cleft, which was reconstructed with an autogenous bone graft from the limb and branch, associated with PRP. As a result, the authors achieved faster healing of the mucosa and graft. The use of PRP, according to the authors, allowed the use of an excellent donor area, but it had the only drawback of limiting the quantity to be removed, a fact that was, to a certain extent, compensated by the use of PRP [19].

Therefore, the use of PRP, which would accelerate the rate of bone formation, with bone morphogenetic proteins (BMPs), recombinant or autogenous, should be quite important and elucidative. The development of new research, seeking to use all known technology, will always be the best way for a short future to recognize what should be incorporated into the daily routine of medical and dental clinics, differing from what, for various reasons, whether it was just a marketing procedure or something.

Conclusion

The greatest advantage of the use of platelet-rich plasma is its ability to accelerate the process of bone regeneration by increasing the number of growth factors present in human platelets. On the other hand, it is observed that one of its major disadvantages is the low life expectancy of these platelets in the recipient or graft bed. However, it is also known that the PRP technique would only accelerate a process of bone regeneration that normally already occurs and this process follows its path until the formation of the mature bone.

Acknowledgement

Not applicable.

Funding

Not applicable.

Data sharing statement

No additional data are available.

Conflict of interest

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

Similarity check

It was applied by Ithenticate@.

About the License

© The authors (s) 2022. The text of this article is open access and licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License.

References

1. Cicciù M, Fiorillo L, Cervino G, Habal MB. Bone Morphogenetic Protein Application as Grafting Materials for Bone Regeneration in Craniofacial Surgery: Current Application and Future Directions. *J Craniofac Surg.* 2021 Mar-Apr 01;32(2):787-793. doi: 10.1097/SCS.0000000000006937. PMID: 33705037.
2. Kargarpour Z, Nasirzade J, Panahipour L, Mitulović G, Miron RJ, Gruber R. Platelet-Rich Fibrin Increases BMP2 Expression in Oral Fibroblasts via Activation of TGF- β Signaling. *Int J Mol Sci.* 2021 Jul 25;22(15):7935. doi: 10.3390/ijms22157935. PMID: 34360701; PMCID: PMC8347014.
3. Dissaux C, Ruffenach L, Bruant-Rodier C, George D, Bodin F, Rémond Y. Cleft Alveolar Bone Graft Materials: Literature Review. *Cleft Palate Craniofac J.* 2021 Apr 7;10556656211007692. doi: 10.1177/10556656211007692. Epub ahead of print. PMID: 33823625.
4. Caballé-Serrano J, Sawada K, Miron RJ, Bosshardt DD, Buser D, Gruber R. Collagen barrier membranes adsorb growth factors liberated from autogenous bone chips. *Clin Oral Implants Res.* 2016 Jan 28.
5. Mazaro JVQ, Godoy PAI, Junior JFS, Mello CC, Pellizzer EP, Zavanelli AC; Regeneração óssea guiada em implantodontia: relato de caso; RFO, Passo Fundo, v. 19, n. 1, p. 121-128, jan./abr. 2014.
6. Fernandes TBG. Utilização de membranas absorvíveis e não absorvíveis em técnicas de regeneração óssea na implantodontia; Uberlândia, 2015.
7. Costa JBZ, Silva F, Dultra CA, Souza LF, Santos MCNE; Uso de membranas biológicas para regeneração óssea guiada em implantodontia – uma revisão de literatura - *Revista Bahiana de Odontologia.* 2016 Mar;7(1):14-21.
8. Saghiri MA, Asatourian A, Garcia-Godoy F, Sheibani N. The role of angiogenesis in implant dentistry part II: The effect of bone-grafting and barrier membrane materials on angiogenesis. *Med Oral Patol Oral Cir Bucal.* (2016), doi:10.4317/medoral.21200.
9. Tejero, R., Anitua, E. eOrive, G. (2014). Toward the biomimetic implant surface: Biopolymers on titanium-based implants for bone regeneration. *Journal of Progress in Polimeral Science,* 39, pp. 1406-1447.
10. Merli M, Merli I, Raffaelli E, Pagliaro U, Nastri L, Nieri M. Bone augmentation at implant dehiscences and fenestrations. A systematic review of randomised controlled trials. *Eur J Oral Implantol.* 2016 Spring;9(1):11-32.
11. Anitua E. Plasma rich in growth factors: preliminary results of use in the preparation of future sites for implants. *The Int. J. Oral & Maxillofacial Implants.* v.14, n.4, p.529-35, 1999.
12. Becker P., Lynch SE., Leckholm V., Cafesse R., Donath K., Sanches R. A comparison of PTFE membranes alone or in combination with platelet-derived promoting bone formation around immediate extraction socket implants. *J. Periodontology.* V.63, n.11, p.929-40, 1992.
13. Body S.C. Platelet activation and interactions with the microvasculature. *J. of Cardiovascular Pharmacology.* V.27, p.13-25, 1996.
14. Canalis E., Centrella M., Busch W., McCarthy T.L. Insulin-like growth factor I mediates selective anabolic effects of parathyroid hormone in bone cultures. *J. Clin. Invest.*v.83, p.60-65,1989.
15. Caplan A.I..Mesenchymal stem cells. *J. Orthop. Res.* Vol.9, n.5, p.641-50,1991
16. Cochran D.L. & Wozney J.M. Biological mediators for periodontal regeneration. *Periodontology* 2000, v.19, p.40-58,1999.
17. Cook S. D., Salked S.L. Rueger D.C. Evaluation of recombinant human osteogenic protein-1 (rh OP-1) placed with dental implants in fresh extraction sites. *J. Oral Implantol.* v. 21, p.281-289, 1995.
18. Giannobile W.V., Finkelman R.D., Lynch S.E. Comparison of canine and non-human primate models for periodontal regenerative therapy: results following a single administration of PDGF/IGF-I. *J. Periodontology.* v.65, n.12, p.1158-68, 1994.
19. Gil J.N., Gasperini G., Manfro R., Marin C. Emprego de plasma rico em plaquetas na reconstrução de fendas alveolares-apresentação de caso clinico. *BCI -Rev. Bras. de Cir. e Implantod.* V.9, n. 35, 2002.
20. Graves D.T., Opran A.V., Delgado R., Valente A.J., Mundy G., Piche J. The potential role of platelet-derived growth factor as an autocrine or paracrine factor for human bone cells. *Connect. Tissue res.*v.23. p. 209-18, 1989.
21. Hiraki Y., Inoue H., Hirai R.,Kato Y., Suzuki F. Effect of transforming growth factor β on cell proliferation and glycosaminoglycan synthesis by rabbit growth-plate chondrocytes in culture. *Biochim. Biophys Acta .* v.969, n.1,p.91-9, 1988.
22. Kinghton D.R., Ciresi K.F., Schunoth V.D., Butler

- S., Cerra E. Stimulation of repair in chronic non-healing cutaneous ulcers using platelet-derived wound healing formula. *Surg. Gynecol. Obstet.* v.170, p.56, 1990.
- 23.** Kose K., Xie J., Carnes D., Graves D. Pro-inflammatory cytokines downregulate platelet derived growth factor- α receptor gene expression in human osteoblastic cells. *J. Cell. Physiol.* V.166, n.1, p.188-97, 1996.
- 24.** Lee Y., Park Y., Seung J.L., Young K., Soo-Boo H., Perry R.K., Chong-Pyoung C. The bone regenerative effect of platelet-derived growth factor –BB delivered with a Chitosan/ tricalcium phosphate sponge carrier. *J. Periodontol.* v.71, n.3. p.418-424, 2000.
- 25.** Lenharo A., Cosso F. Fatores de crescimento: quando utilizar? *3i Innovations J.* v.5, n.1, 2001.
- 26.** Lind M. Growth factor stimulation of bone healing. Effects on osteoblasts, osteotomies and implants fixation. *Acta Orthop. Scand. Suppl.* v.283, p.2-37, 1998.
- 27.** Lozada J.L., Caplanis N., Proussaefs P., Willardsen J., KAMMEYER G. Platelet-rich plasma application in sinus graft surgery: part I- background and processing techniques. *J.Oral Implantol.* V.27, n.1,2001.
- 28.** Lynch S.E, De Castilla E.R., Williams R.C. The effects of shortterm application of platelet-derived and insulin-like growth factors on periodontal wound healing. *J. Periodontology.* v. 62, p.458-67, 1991.
- 29.** Lynch S.E., Buser D., Hernandez R.A., Weber H.P., Stich H., Fox C.H., Williams R.C. Effects of the platelet-derived growth factor/insulin-like growth factor I combination on bone regeneration around titanium dental implants- results of a pilot study in beagle dogs. *J.Periodontology.* v.62, p.710-16, 1991.
- 30.** Lynch S.E., Williams R.C., Polson A.M., Howell T.H., Reddy M.S., Zappa U.E., Antoniadis H.N. A combination of platelet-derived and insulin-like growth factors enhances periodontal regeneration. *J. Clinical Periodontol.* v. 16, p.545-48, 1989.
- 31.** Marx R.E., Carlson E.R., Eischstaedt R.M., Shimmele S.R., STRAUSS J.E., GEORGEFF K.R. Platelet-rich plasma: growth factor enhancement for bone grafts. *Oral Surg. Oral Med. Oral Pathol.* v.85, p.683-46, 1998.
- 32.** Marx R.E. Platelet-rich plasma: a source of multiple autologous growth factors for bone grafts. In: LYNCH S.E., GENCO R.J., MARX R.E. *Tissue engineering.* Illinois: Quintessence, 1999. p.71-82.
- 33.** Marx R.E. Platelets concentrate: a strategy for accelerating and improving bone regeneration. In: DAVIES J.E. *Bone engineering.* Toronto: em squared incorporated, 2000. p.447-53.
- 34.** Matsuda N., Lin W.L. Kumar N.M., Cho M.I., Genco R.J. Mitogenical chemotactic and synthetic responses of rat periodontal ligament fibroblastic cells to polypeptide growth factors in vitro. *J. Periodontology.* v. 63, n.6, p.515-25, 1992.
- 35.** Mohan S., Baylink D. J. Bone growth factors. *Clin. Orthop. Relat. Res.* V.263, p.30-43, 1991.
- 36.** Obarrio J.J., Arauz-Dutari J., Chamberlain T.M., Croston A. The use of autologous growth factors in periodontal surgical therapy: platelet-derived gel biotechnology- case reports. *The Int. J. of Periodont. & Restorat. Dentist.* v. 20, n.5, p.486-497, 2000.
- 37.** Park J., Davies J.E. Interações de hemácias e plaquetas com superfícies de implante de titânio. *3i Innovations J.* v.5, n.2, p.26-34, 2001.
- 38.** Rossi Jr, Lemos J.J., Pispico R. Utilização de plasma rico em plaquetas em enxertos ósseos- proposta de um protocolo de obtenção simplificado. [on line] . 2001 [citado 2001-05-05] . Disponível na Word Wide Web: <http://www.periodesktop.hpg.com.br/artigos/a12.htm>.
- 39.** Rutherford R.B., Ryan M.E., Kennedy J.E., Charette M.F., Tucker M.M. Platelet-derived growth factor and dexamethazona combined with a collagen matrix induce regeneration of the periodontium in monkeys. *J. Clin. Periodontol.* v.20, n. 7, p.537-44, 1993.
- 40.** Rutherford R.B., Sampath T.K., Rueger D.C. Use of bovine osteogenic protein to promote rapid osseointegration of endosseous dental implants. *Int. J. Oral Maxillofac. Implants.* v. 7, p. 297-31, 1992.
- 41.** Sonleitner D., Huemer P., Sullivan D.Y. A simplified technique for producing platelet-rich plasma and platelet concentrate for intraoral bone grafting techniques: a technical note. *Int. J. Oral Maxillofac. Implants.* v. 15, p.879-82, 2000.
- 42.** Sporn M.B. & Roberts A.B. *J Clin. Invest.* Vol.78, p.329-32, 1986.
- 43.** Stefani C.M., Machado M.A.N., Sallum E.A., Sallum A.W., Toledo S., Nociti Jr. F.H. Platelet-derived growth factor/insulin-like growth factor-1 combination and bone regeneration around implants placed into extraction sockets: a histometric study in dogs. *Implant Dentistry.* v.9, n.2, p.126-31, 2000.

44. Stephan E.B., Renjen R., Lynch S.E., Dziak R. Platelet-derived growth factor enhancement of a mineral- collagen bone substitute. J. Periodontol. v. 71, n.12, p. 1887-92, 2000.
45. Tayapongsak P., O'Brien D.A., Monteiro C.B., Arceo-Diaz L.L. Autologous fibrin adhesive in mandibular reconstruction with particulate cancellous bone and narrow. J. Oral Maxillofac. Surg. v. 52, p.161-66, 1994.
46. Vikjaer D., Blom S., Hjorting-Hansen E., Pinholt E.M., Effect of platelet-derived growth factor- BB on bone formation in calvarial defects: an experimental study in rabbits. Eur. J. Oral. Sci. v.105, n.1, p.59-66, 1997.
47. Whitman D.H., Berry R.L., Green D.M. Platelet gel: an autologous alternative to fibrin glue with applications in oral and maxillofacial surgery. J. Oral Surg. v. 55, p.1294-99, 1977.
48. Yeh Y., Kang Y., Chaibi M., Xie J., Graves D. IL-1 and transforming growth factor- β inhibit platelet-derived growth factor- AA binding to osteoblastic cells by reducing platelet-derived growth factor- α receptor expression. J.Immunol. v.15, n.150, p.5625-32, 1993.