Biologic Agents to Promote Periodontal Regeneration and Bone Augmentation

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Periodontal regeneration is preferred over tissue repair and is accomplished through the exclusion of epithelial tissues, which allows cementum, bone, and connective tissue to repopulate the wound. Recently, biologic materials have emerged as adjuncts to aid in regeneration by augmenting the events of wound healing in the area. A review of biologic agents was conducted using the following MeSH terms: guided tissue regeneration, intercellular signaling peptides and proteins, and biologic factors. Enamel matrix derivative (EMD), platelet-derived growth factor (PDGF), platelet-rich plasma, bone morphogenetic proteins (BMPs), fibroblast growth factor (FGF), and parathyroid hormone (PTH) have all shown promise in promoting hard- or soft-tissue regeneration. No biologic agent is ideal for all clinical situations so the clinician must evaluate each situation to identify the best indication for its usage. Currently, EMD and PDGF have Food and Drug Administration approval for periodontal regeneration,

whereas BMP-2 is approved for bone augmentation. FGF and PTH do not have Food and Drug Administration approval for periodontal applications and so their clinical usage is not indicated. *Clin Adv Periodontics* 2011;1:80-87.

Key Words: Guided tissue regeneration, periodontal; platelet-derived growth factor.

Background

Newer approaches to periodontal therapy include regenerative procedures that aim to restore lost periodontal ligament, bone, cementum, and connective tissue. When the goal is to restore periodontal tissues around teeth, this is referred to as guided tissue regeneration (GTR). Guided bone regeneration (GBR) is also used to provide bone augmentation in edentulous areas, usually before implant placement. Regenerative therapy has an advantage over traditional surgical approaches in that the original tissues are reestablished, not replaced through a reparative process. Regenerative procedures typically use barrier membranes and bone grafting materials to encourage the growth of key periodontal tissues but exclude unwanted cell types, such as epithelial cells and connective tissue fibroblasts.¹⁻⁴ Although regenerative therapies have great potential, they remain unpredictable in their ability to produce acceptable outcomes in all situations consistently. Laurell et al.⁵ showed that, when a bone graft alone was placed in infrabony periodontal defects, limited pocket reduction was achieved but clinical attachment level (CAL) gain and bone fill were significantly improved, averaging 2.1 mm. When GTR with both bone graft and a membrane were used, GTR resulted in significant pocket reduction, CAL gain of 4.2 mm, and bone fill averaging 3.2 mm.⁵ The predictability of GTR, however, has been questioned. Eikholz et al.⁶ treated 50 infrabony defects with GTR. After 5 years, 47 of the defects still showed

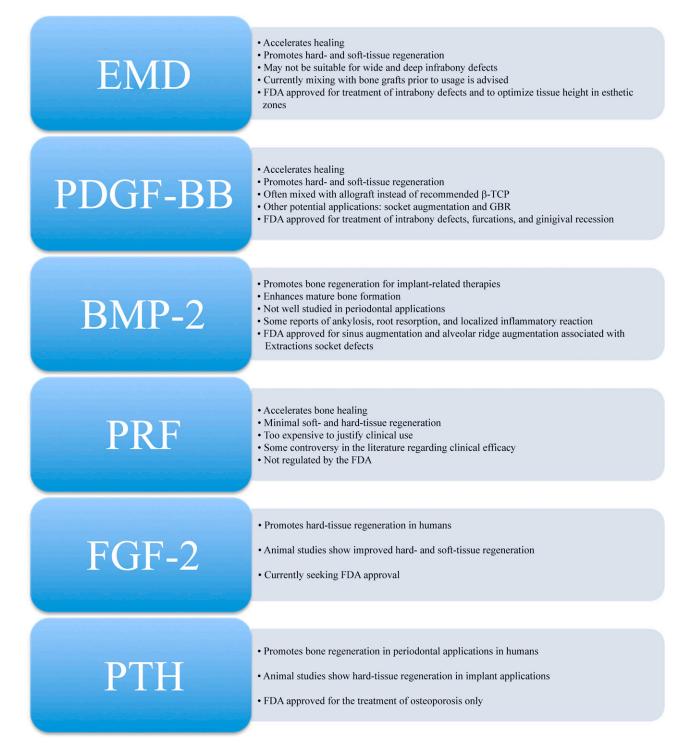
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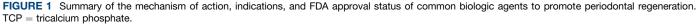
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evidence of vertical attachment gain, but three defects had a net loss of up to 2.2 mm. In a systematic review of the literature, Murphy and Gunsolley⁷ found some heterogeneity in the outcome of GTR and concluded that it was difficult to assess the efficacy of periodontal treatment using physical barriers because no studies were performed that measured tooth retention for >5 years. Consequently, a need exists to augment current GTR techniques to improve outcomes and predictability.

To help promote periodontal regeneration and healing, the local application of biologic modifiers such as growth factors has been investigated. These agents act by augmenting the wound healing process through anabolic bone formation, angiogenesis, cementogenesis, osteoblast differentiation, mitosis, chemotaxis, and other processes that improve the healing environment. Biologic modifiers, including enamel matrix derivative (EMD), platelet-derived growth factor (PDGF), bone morphogenetic protein (BMP), platelet-rich plasma (PRP), fibroblast growth factor (FGF), and parathyroid hormone (PTH), have all shown promise in enhancing regeneration.8-12 When choosing which agent to use, it is important to consider several factors, including the evidence supporting its use as well as the specific clinical situation. An electronic literature search of biologic agents was conducted in the PubMed (MEDLINE) database using the following MeSH terms: guided tissue regeneration, intercellular signaling peptides and proteins, and biologic factors. Other key search terms included bone morphogenic proteins, parathyroid hormone, platelet-derived growth factor, enamel matrix derivative, fibroblast growth factor, platelet-rich plasma, and related terms. Animal and human studies published in the English language up to January 2011 were reviewed. This paper presents an overview of the different





biologic agents that can be used as adjuncts for GTR and GBR as well as a decision model for deciding on the best agent for a given clinical scenario (Fig. 1).

Enamel Matrix Derivative

Physiologically, enamel matrix proteins are secreted by Hertwig's epithelial root sheath during root development and serve to promote cementogenesis.¹³ A recent review by Bosshardt¹⁴ suggests that there is strong evidence for enamel matrix proteins to support wound healing and new periodontal tissue formation, but that the biologic mechanism by which this occurs is still unclear. A commercially available form of EMD⁺ is available and is derived from porcine tooth buds, and is approved by the Food and Drug Administration (FDA) for the treatment of moderate or severe periodontitis as well as to optimize tissue

[†] Emdogain, Straumann, Basel, Sweden.

height in esthetic zones. It is only approved for intrabony defects, not furcation areas, although there is evidence that EMD is effective in treating grade 2 furcations.^{15,16} EMD is perhaps one of the most extensively studied biologic agents, and Table 1 summarizes some key studies evaluating the use of EMD to promote regeneration.

Platelet-Derived Growth Factor

PDGF-BB is a growth factor involved in wound healing that stimulates the regenerative potential of periodontal tissues, including bone, cementum, and periodontal ligament.¹⁷ The commercially available form[‡] is FDA approved for the treatment of intrabony defects, furcations, and gingival recession associated with periodontal defects. It is specifically contraindicated in areas of acute infection, although the use of any biomaterial is contraindicated in infected areas. In addition, it should not be used in areas in which surgical soft-tissue coverage is necessary but unobtainable and in areas in which bone grafting is not advisable. Several clinical and animal trials support its use, which are summarized in Table 2.

Bone Morphogenetic Proteins (BMP-2)

BMPs have an anabolic effect on periodontal tissues through stimulation of osteoblastic differentiation in human periodontal ligament cells.⁶ Some preliminary evidence suggested that BMP-2 could induce periodontal regeneration, but some adverse healing events such as ankylosis and root resorption were also reported.^{18,19} The commercially available form[§] is FDA approved as an alternative to autogenous bone grafting for sinus augmentations and localized alveolar ridge augmentations for defects associated with extraction sockets. Table 3 summarizes the available evidence on the efficacy of BMP-2 as a biologic agent.

Platelet-Rich Fibrin Glue

Platelet-rich fibrin glue (PRFG) consists of uncoagulated blood that is centrifuged using a commercially available system to produce a layer of increased concentrations of platelets and leukocytes within a fibrin scaffold.²⁰ Platelet-rich fibrin (PRF) contains high amounts of bioactive growth factors to enhance wound healing through increased chemotaxis, proliferation, differentiation, and angiogenesis.²¹ PRP was extensively studied in the past, but PRF is now regarded as having more regenerative potential. PRF is not regulated by the FDA and so there are no specific approvals for this agent. Table 4 provides information regarding studies evaluating these regenerative approaches.

Fibroblast Growth Factor

FGF-2 stimulates angiogenesis and mitosis of mesenchymal cells and thus may encourage periodontal regeneration.¹⁷ Several animal studies support its role as a regenerative agent,²²⁻²⁵ and one multicenter clinical trial showed improved bone height when using it as an adjunct to periodontal regeneration.²⁶ It is not commercially available

and does not have FDA approval. Table 5 summarizes the animal studies and one multicenter human clinical trial evaluating FGF-2.

Parathyroid Hormone

PTH is an endogenous hormone with both catabolic and anabolic properties in bone, depending on the concentration and dosing regimen. Animal studies support its ability to promote bone formation in the oral cavity for both periodontal and implant applications.²⁷⁻³⁰ One randomized human clinical trial also showed that a commercially available form of PTH^{II} promoted periodontal regeneration in infrabony defects.¹² PTH is FDA approved only for the treatment of osteoporosis. Table 6 summarizes the available evidence.

Discussion

In deciding on which agent to use, it is important to consider the evidence for a given agent as well as the clinical scenario. EMD has the largest body of clinical evidence supporting its use, with many studies showing successful results for up to 10 years.³¹⁻³⁴ Indications for using EMD are wide, and its use in improving hard- and soft-tissue regeneration is well supported. It may not be the ideal choice for use in treating deep and wide defects, because one study reported that EMD was not beneficial in this situation.³⁵ Furthermore, it is not FDA approved for the treatment of furcation areas.

PDGF-BB is supported by one of the largest prospective, randomized, triple-masked, and controlled clinical trials to assess periodontal regeneration.⁹ It is indicated for enhancing both hard- and soft-tissue regeneration and is associated with a high degree of improvement in infrabony defect resolution.^{36,37} Based on the studies available to date, both EMD and PDGF-BB appear to have minimal safety concerns. In addition, both show evidence that they accelerate early healing events, so these may be an ideal choice when faster healing is desirable (e.g., medically compromised patients).

In terms of available evidence, some studies^{38,39} failed to support the ability of PRP to promote hard-tissue regeneration, although there appear to be some benefits to improving soft-tissue parameters and accelerating bone maturation. There is a lack of consensus on the efficacy of PRP, with some studies showing improved outcomes and others not (see Table 1). This could be attributable to the wide variation of growth factors in PRP based on differences in procurement technique and patient individuality.⁴⁰ Once the proper equipment is acquired, PRP requires little cost to operate because the patient's blood is used as the regenerative agent. The disadvantage of using this technique is that the concentration of the growth factors within PRP is highly unpredictable.⁴⁰

BMP-2 has some human trials with long-term follow-up supporting its use in hard-tissue augmentation applications.^{41,42} However, no human studies are available regarding its use in periodontal applications. In addition, there are

[‡] GEM 21S, BioMimetic Pharmaceuticals, Franklin, TN.

[§] INFUSE Bone Graft, Medtronic, Memphis, TN.

^{||} Forteo, Eli Lilly, Indianapolis, IN.

TABLE 1 EMD

Study	Study Design	Materials and Methods	Conclusions
Grusovin and Esposito, 2009 ³⁵	Human clinical trial	30 patients with infrabony defects; EMD versus placebo	EMD provided no additional benefits in the treatment of deep and wide infrabony defects
Sculean et al., 2008 ³⁴	Human clinical trial	38 patients; EMD versus GTR versus EMD plus GTR versus OFD	EMD, GTR, and EMD plus GTR had significantly greater improvements than OFD at 10 years
Crea et al., 2008 ³¹	Human clinical trial	40 patients with infrabony defects; EMD or GTR using non-resorbable membrane	EMD resulted in significantly improved clinical and radiographic outcomes for ≤36 months
Sculean et al., 2007 ⁴⁵	Human clinical trial	25 patients with infrabony defects; EMD or EMD with bioactive glass	Similar and successful results obtained between the groups for ≤ 4 years
Francetti et al., 2005 ³²	Multicenter human clinical trial	195 intrabony defects treated with SPP flap with EMD	EMD improved the rate and degree of regeneration
Heijl et al., 1997 ¹¹	Human clinical trial	33 patients with split-mouth design; MWF versus MWF and EMD	MWF and EMD had significantly greater radiographic bone fill and CAL gain

MWF = modified Widman flap; OFD = open flap debridement; SPP = simplified papilla preservation flap.

TABLE 2 PDGF-BB

Study	Study Design	Materials and Methods	Conclusions
Nevins et al., 2005 ⁹	Multicenter human clinical trial	180 patients with an infrabony defect; β -TCP plus 0.3 mg/mL rhPDGF-BB versus β -TCP plus 1.0 mg/mL rhPDGF-BB versus β -TCP	0.3 mg/mL rhPDGF-BB resulted in greater linear bone gain and defect fill at 6 months as well as faster CAL gain than controls
Howell et al.,1997 ³⁶	Human clinical trial	38 patients, split-mouth design; flap surgery versus low-dose or high-dose PDGF-BB/IGF-I	High-dose PDGF/IGF-I resulted in significant bone regeneration
Lynch et al., 1991 ³⁷	Animal study (dogs)	13 dogs with naturally occurring periodontitis, split-mouth study; PDGF-B/IGF-I versus carrier	PDGF-B/IGF-I resulted in significantly more new bone, cementum, and PDL formation

 $\mathsf{IGF} = \mathsf{insulin} \ \mathsf{growth} \ \mathsf{factor}; \ \mathsf{PDL} = \mathsf{periodontal} \ \mathsf{ligament}; \ \mathsf{rh} = \mathsf{recombinant} \ \mathsf{human}; \ \mathsf{TCP} = \mathsf{tricalcium} \ \mathsf{phosphate}.$

TABLE 3 BMP-2

Study	Study Design	Materials and Methods	Conclusions
Triplett et al., 2009 ⁴²	Human clinical trial	160 patients; rhBMP-2 versus autograft for sinus augmentation	79% success rates in rhBMP-2 group with comparable outcomes to autograft
Jung et al., 2003 ¹⁰	Human clinical trial	11 patients requiring implant placement and GBR, split-mouth study; xenograft/membrane versus xenograft/membrane/BMP-2	BMP-2 resulted in more mature lamellar bone and increased graft-to-bone contact at 6 months
Jung et al., 2009 ⁴¹	Human clinical trial	Long-term follow-up (3 and 5 years) of implants from previous 2003 study	No significant differences observed between groups (100% success rate in both)
Wikesjö et al., 2004 ⁴⁶	Animal study (dogs)	Bilateral surgically created peri-implant defects; rhBMP-2 versus placebo, both received ePTFE membrane	rhBMP-2 enhanced GBR for both smooth and rough surface implants
Saito et al., 2003 ⁴⁷	Animal study (dogs)	72 surgically created periodontal defects in four dogs; rhBMP-2 versus rhBMP-2 with spacer membrane versus placebo	rhBMP-2 had greatest bone formation and CT attachment but also ankylosis; rhBMP-2 and spacer membrane minimized ankylosis

 $\mathsf{CT}=\mathsf{connective\ tissue;\ ePTFE}=\mathsf{expanded\ polytetrafluoroethylene;\ rh}=\mathsf{recombinant\ human.}$

TABLE 4 PRF and PRP

Study	Study Design	Materials and Methods	Conclusions
Simon et al., 2009 ⁴⁸	Animal study (dogs)	Four dogs with extracted teeth; PRF versus PRF plus membrane versus DFDBA plus membrane versus control	Faster healing in both PRF and PRF plus membrane groups but graft particles noted in coronal areas
Mazor et al., 2009 ⁴⁹	Human case series	25 sinus elevations in 20 patients with PRF	No implant failures; histology showed well-organized and vital bone
Camargo et al., 2009 ⁵⁰	Human clinical trial	23 patients with infrabony defects, split-mouth study; BPBM/GTR/PRP versus BPBM/GTR	PRP failed to provide additional benefits as assessed using surgical reentry at 6 months
Dori et al., 2008 ⁵¹	Human clinical trial	EMD plus PRP plus NBM versus PRP plus NBM	PRP failed to provide additional benefits
Piemontese et al., 2008 ³⁸	Human clinical trial	60 intrabony defects; PRP plus DFDBA versus DFDBA	PRP resulted in greater PD reductions and CAL gains at 12 months; no difference in hard-tissue outcomes
You et al., 2007 ⁵²	Animal study (dogs)	Six dogs with three implants each, surgically created peri-implant defect; autogenous bone plus PRP or PRFG	Greater BIC with PRFG

BIC = bone-to-implant contact; BPBM = bovine porous bone mineral; DFDBA = demineralized freeze-dried bone allograft; NBM = natural bone mineral; PD = probing depth.

TABLE 5 FGF-2

Study	Study Design	Materials and Methods	Conclusions
Kitamura et al., 2008 ²⁶	Multicenter human clinical trial	74 patients with infrabony defects; placebo versus 0.03% FGF-2 versus 0.1% FGF-2 versus 0.3% FGF-2	No statistically significant differences between FGF-2 groups and control, except for greater increase in alveolar bone height between 0.3% FGF-2 and placebo at 36 weeks
Sato et al., 2004 ²⁴	Animal study (dogs)	Surgically created defects; 0.1, 1, or 5 μg basic FGF in collagen gel versus carrier alone	1 μg basic FGF resulted in PDL formation and newly synthesized cementum at 8 weeks
Takayama et al., 2001 ²⁵	Animal study (primates)	32 surgically created Class II furcation defects in four primates; 0.1 or 0.4% FGF-2 versus placebo	FGF-2 had significantly greater bone regeneration and was dose dependent
Hosokawa et al., 2000 ⁵³	Animal study (dogs)	FGF-2 versus placebo in surgically created defects	FGF-2 areas had significantly more bone regeneration

PDL = periodontal ligament.

TABLE 6 PTH

Study	Study Design	Materials and Methods	Conclusions
Bashutski et al., 2010 ¹²	Human clinical trial	40 patients with infrabony defects; placebo versus 20 mg PTH 1 to 34 daily for 6 weeks in conjunction with periodontal surgery	PTH had significantly greater infrabony defect resolution, CAL gain, and PD reduction
Jung et al., 2007 ²⁹	Animal study (rabbits)	Surgically created defects with titanium cylinders filled with PEG/HA/TCP versus PEG/ PTH versus PEG/PTH/HA/TCP	PTH significantly increased newly formed bone in calvarial defects
Jung et al., 2007 ²⁸	Animal study (foxhounds)	48 implants in mandible with surgically created defects; PEG/PTH versus PEG versus autogenous bone versus control	PTH group achieved greater bone regeneration
Barros et al., 2003 ²⁷	Animal study (rodents)	Ligature-induced periodontitis model; PTH versus control	PTH protected against periodontitis- associated bone loss
Miller et al., 1997 ³⁰	Animal study (rodents)	Mandibles of ovariectomized rats treated with PTH versus sham controls	Bone formation was greater in PTH group

HA/TCP = hydroxyapatite/tricalcium phosphate; PD = probing depth; PEG = polyethylene glycol matrix.

some reports that BMP-2 stimulates root resorption and ankylosis, so it may be best used in site augmentation and implant applications.¹⁸ Localized inflammation in the early stage of healing have also been associated with this agent,^{42,43} warranting additional study to understand the mechanism behind this occurrence.

Several animal studies support the role of FGF-2 in promoting bone and cementum formation.²³⁻²⁵ In addition, one multicenter human clinical trial supports its use in improving bone regeneration.²⁶ Currently, FGF-2 is undergoing multicenter clinical trials to seek FDA approval.

Finally, it is also important to weigh the cost/benefit ratio because many of these biologic adjuncts have costs associated with their use. Thus, they are ideally suited to more complex and challenging cases in which outcomes are less predictable using traditional approaches.

A recent review⁴⁴ evaluating bioactive agents found that EMD (alone or with a bone graft) has positive long-term results in treating intrabony defects, with the adjunctive use of a bone graft conferring additional benefits. Intraosseous defects could also be effectively treated with PDGF-BB and peptide P-15 combined with a bone graft. In this review,⁴⁴ PRP had variable success. In addition, no bioactive agent had sufficient evidence to support its use in furcation defects.

Conclusions

Although all biologic agents have shown promise as adjuncts to regenerative procedures, certain products may be better suited to a given clinical situation. Thus, the clinician must carefully evaluate all aspects of the case before making an informed decision as to which biologic agent may be best used.

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