

Regenerative Medicine and Tissue Engineering in Plastic Surgery

Patel D* and Pindaria J

N.H.L. Municipal Medical College, India

*Corresponding author: Divyakshi Patel, N.H.L. Municipal Medical College, a-19, Nandanbaug, bh. amba ashram , nadiad 387001, India, Tel: +917573942424; Email: dyc2192@gmail.com

Review Article

Volume 8 Issue 2 Received Date: May 17, 2024 Published Date: July 29, 2024 DOI: 10.23880/ijtps-16000188

Abstract

A significant advancement in tissue regeneration and repair has occurred with the incorporation of tissue engineering and regenerative medicine into plastic surgery. These domains use cells, biomolecules, and bio scaffolds to create modified treatments that boost immunity and promote tissue regeneration. The application of biomaterials and 3D architecture has made it possible to replicate in vivo tissue structures, thereby improving treatment results. These methods play a major role in plastic surgery procedures related to breast reconstruction, craniofacial repair, and facial reconstruction. Problems like the selection of stem cells and ethical issues still exist, requiring more study and advancement. New technologies that improve surgical planning and allow for customised treatment plans include virtual reality and 3D printing. In order to implement these innovations in clinical practice, thorough testing, regulatory approval, and cost-effectiveness and accessibility considerations are necessary. In conclusion, the integration of regenerative medicine and tissue engineering promises improved patient outcomes and continued innovation in plastic surgery, driving forward the quest for optimal clinical care.

Keywords: Immunity; Stem Cells; Tissue Regeneration; 3D

Abbreviations

BACTs: Bioactive Composite Therapies; hMSCs: Human Mesenchymal Stem Cells; ECM: Extracellular Matrix; RM: Regenerative Medicine; TE: Tissue Engineering; PRP: Platelet-Rich Plasma; FPRS: Facial Plastic and Reconstructive Surgery.

Introduction

Regenerative medicine and tissue engineering aim to develop readily available goods for tissue replacement [1]. These fields can produce tissues that can be transplanted or improve the body's healing processes by using cells, biomolecules, and bio-scaffolds [2]. Since adult stem cells are essential for tissue regeneration, stem cell alteration is necessary for tissue engineering [3]. Tissue engineering is the design of components for scaffolds that control the behaviour of cells, facilitating the creation of biological replacements for organs and tissues that have been damaged [4]. For applications in personalised regenerative medicine, cellular therapies, extracellular vesicles, and tissue engineering techniques are being investigated. These approaches have the potential to influence immune responses and encourage tissue regeneration [5]. Regenerative medicine is changing as a result of the development of biomaterials and advances in 3D architecture, which present opportunities for simulating in vivo tissue structures.

By providing cutting-edge approaches to tissue reconstruction, regenerative medicine and tissue engineering significantly contribute to the advancement of plastic surgery [6-8]. By making use of scaffolds, signalling molecules, and stem cells in combination, these fields are aiming to replace lost tissue and lessen the need for involved reconstructive procedures [5]. Innovative approaches that adhere to regulatory frameworks, such as bioactive composite therapies (BACTs), improve cell uptake and survival [9]. Plastic surgery will hopefully progress further by using tissue engineering technologies like gene editing and stem cell subpopulation profiling. Through an understanding of tissue characteristics and the improvement of wound healing, tissue engineering approaches have the potential to improve long-term prognosis and surgical outcomes for conditions such as hypospadias. Plastic surgeons have new options for treating burn injuries in terms of wound care because of advanced biomaterials, cell-based therapies, and skin substitutes.

This review aims to provide a comprehensive understanding of current research, applications, challenges, and future directions regarding the integration of tissue engineering and regenerative medicine within plastic surgery. This review also discusses emerging technologies, future directions, and practical considerations for clinical development in addition to addressing the challenges and limitations related to the application of regenerative medicine in plastic surgery. By taking a comprehensive approach, the review hopes to contribute to improvements in patient care and clinical practice by offering insightful information about the state and potential of tissue engineering and regenerative medicine in plastic surgery.

Fundamentals of Regenerative Medicine and Tissue Engineering

Regenerative medicine is an interdisciplinary field aiming to restore, maintain, or enhance living tissues and organs, utilizing engineering and life sciences principles [6]. It includes a range of techniques like gene therapy, tissue engineering, and stem cell therapy. Within the field of regenerative medicine, tissue engineering combines cells, biomaterials, and biochemical components to create functional tissues or organs in a controlled environment [6]. Tissue engineering, a subfield of regenerative medicine, focuses on developing biological substitutes to improve damaged tissue and organ function [1]. In plastic surgery, tissue engineering aims to reduce surgical morbidity by integrating cell signals or bio-artificial components from the patient's cells to replace damaged bodily tissue without extensive reconstructive surgery [2]. The field involves utilizing stem cells, biomolecules, and bio-scaffolds to generate transplantable tissues or accelerate the body's healing mechanisms [7].

Stem Cells

Stem cell-based therapy is a significant area in regenerative medicine, with a predominant role being played by human mesenchymal stem cells (hMSCs). The hMSCs have been shown to be suitable in regenerative medicine for the treatment of bone tissue [10]. Stem cells are capable of extensive self-maintenance in spite of physiological or accidental removal or loss of cells from the population. The term 'extensive' implies essentially unaltered proliferative self- renewal capacity extending to at least one natural life span of the organism [11].

The stem cells criteria of a particular tissue is as (a) undifferentiated cells (i.e. lacking certain tissue specific differentiation markers), (b)capable of proliferation, (c) able to self-maintain the population, (d) able to produce a large number of differentiated, functional progeny, (e) able to regenerate the tissue after injury, and (f) flexible use of these options [12] (Table 1).

Criteria	Stem Cells	Transit Cells	Maturing Cells
Differentiation marker	No	Onset	Yes
Capable of proliferation	Yes	Yes	No
Capable of self-maintenance	Yes (P _{sm} > 0.5 Possible)	No (But 0.5>P _{sm} >0 Possible)	No (P _{sm} =0)
Capable of many progeny cells	Yes	Limited	No
Capable of re-generating tissue after injury	Yes (long term)	Temporarily	No
Flexibility in options	(b)-(e)	(b). (d)	No

Stem Cell Criteria

P_{sm} Self-maintenance Probability.

 Table 1: Criteria for Stem cell proliferation and its comparison to mature cells and transit cells.

Current studies emphasize the benefit of using biomimetic biomaterials, also known as scaffolds, for bone

grafts to speed up bone repair at the fracture site.

Scaffolds

Scaffolds play a crucial role in regenerative medicine and tissue engineering by providing structural support for cell growth and tissue regeneration [13]. These scaffolds are designed to mimic the extracellular matrix, offering a three-dimensional environment that promotes cell interaction, migration, proliferation, and differentiation [13]. Various types of scaffolds, such as nanogel-based scaffolds and decellularized extracellular matrix (ECM) scaffolds, have shown promise due to their biocompatibility. tunable drug release, and reduced immunogenicity [14,15]. The optimization of scaffold properties like injectability, biocompatibility, and controlled drug release is essential for enhancing tissue regeneration [16]. Cell therapy, based on the use of hMSCs, alongside materials like scaffolds for the healing of damaged bone, has obtained promising results [10].

A growth factor is a biologically active molecule that influences cell growth, division, and differentiation [17]. These molecules can stimulate cell mass increase, cell division, or cell survival, impacting the growth rate of specific cell types [18]. Growth factors play a vital role in tissue regeneration by stimulating cell proliferation and differentiation .Combining growth factors with hMSCs and scaffolds can enhance the efficacy of bone tissue engineering strategies [10]. Growth factors are essential for successful tissue engineering and play a critical role in tissue regeneration [19,20]. These are molecule signals that help injured tissues heal and regenerate by promoting cell division, growth, and proliferation [21]. Growth factors in regenerative medicine have demonstrated potential in preclinical settings; however, obstacles such as rapid diffusion and short half-life impede their clinical success [22].

Principles of Tissue Regeneration and Repair

This process includes the involvement of various cells, cytokines, growth factors, and the extracellular matrix [23,24]. Tissue regeneration and repair rely on several key principles:

Inflammation: Following injury, inflammation triggers the body's immune response, removing damaged cells and debris from the site of injury.

Cellular Proliferation: Cells near the injury site multiply to replace lost or damaged cells, a process driven by growth factors and signalling molecules.

Extracellular Matrix (ECM) Remodelling: The ECM, a scaffold-like structure surrounding cells, undergoes changes to support tissue repair. This includes deposition of new ECM components and breakdown of old ones.

Differentiation and Maturation: Newly formed cells differentiate into specialized cell types necessary for tissue

function. This process is guided by specific environmental cues and signalling pathways.

Angiogenesis: Formation of new blood vessels provides oxygen and nutrients to the healing tissue, supporting its growth and maturation.

Functional restoration: The goal of tissue repair is to restore normal tissue structure and function, allowing the affected area to regain its original capabilities [23].

Applications of Regenerative Medicine in Plastic Surgery

Facial Plastic and Reconstructive Surgery (FPRS)

Regenerative medicine has numerous applications in dermatology and plastic surgery, spanning from accelerating wound healing and hair restoration to mesenchymal stem cell-augmented fat transfer, skin rejuvenation, and improving post-procedure outcomes while reducing downtime. Within plastic surgery, techniques like platelet-rich plasma (PRP) and stem cells have proven effective in hastening wound healing processes, resulting in quicker recovery times and better patient outcomes. PRP, along with other regenerative approaches, has also been successful in addressing concerns related to hair loss by stimulating hair growth and enhancing density. Modalities, such as growth factors and exosomes, play a crucial role in minimizing post-procedure downtime, including after laser treatments, across dermatology, facial plastic and reconstructive surgery, craniofacial regeneration, and general plastic surgery, ultimately enhancing patient satisfaction with their outcomes [25]. Regenerative medicine offers various applications in Facial Plastic and Reconstructive Surgery (FPRS). Techniques like nanofat grafting, decellularization-recellularization, and the use of stem cells, growth factors, and exosomes play crucial roles [25]. Regenerative medicine accelerates growth, utilizing mesenchymal stem cell augmented fat transfer to enhance facial volume, rejuvenating facial skin to improve its quality, and reducing downtime post-facial procedures and postlaser treatments. These applications leverage modalities such as platelet-rich plasma (PRP), stem cells, growth factors, and exosomes to achieve optimal results in facial plastic surgery. By incorporating regenerative treatments, practitioners can enhance the outcomes of facial procedures, improve patient satisfaction, and potentially reduce recovery times [25]. Nanofat, with its high stem cell and growth factor content, is particularly valuable for facial rejuvenation and [26]. Decellularization-recellularization lipomodelling techniques using extracellular matrix scaffolds show promise in promoting tissue and organ regeneration in FPRS [27]. Decellularization involves the removal of cells and genetic materials from tissues, leaving behind the extracellular matrix (ECM) with its complex ultrastructure intact. This

decellularized ECM serves as a scaffold for subsequent recellularization, where new cells are seeded onto the matrix for transplantation. By utilizing this technique, the regeneration of diseased or damaged tissues and organs is promoted. In the field of plastic surgery, decellularizationrecellularization techniques find applications in remodeling various body parts like skin, nose, ears, face, and limbs. These techniques play a crucial role in facilitating tissue and organ regeneration [27].

Cartilage and Bone Tissue Engineering for Craniofacial Reconstruction

Regenerative Medicine (RM) and Tissue Engineering (TE) play crucial roles in craniofacial reconstruction by utilizing biomaterials, stem cells, and growth factors [28]. Techniques like 3D bioprinting enable the creation of patientspecific functional implants for skeletal muscles and bones, mimicking natural tissue architecture. Biomaterials, such as hydroxyapatite (HAp) and scaffolds, are designed to mimic the extracellular matrix, promoting cell adhesion, proliferation, and differentiation for effective tissue regeneration. Additionally, bioprinted tissues serve as valuable in vitro models for drug testing and disease modeling, offering a more physiologically relevant platform than traditional 2D cell cultures [29]. The use of Mesenchymal Stromal Cells (MSCs) and growth factors like Bone Morphogenetic Protein-2 (BMP-2) show promising outcomes in regenerating criticalsize cranial defects. Mesenchymal Stromal Cells (MSCs) are multipotent cells having the ability to differentiate into various cell types, making them valuable for promoting tissue regeneration and repair [30]. By seeding MSCs onto scaffolds, the osteogenic differentiation of these cells can be enhanced, ultimately promoting bone formation essential for reconstructing maxillofacial defects [30]. Bone Morphogenetic Protein-2 (BMP-2) is a growth factor known for its osteoinductive properties, stimulating bone formation and repair. When combined with scaffolds and MSCs, BMP-2 further enhances the osteogenic potential of MSCs, leading to improved bone regeneration. The incorporation of BMP-2 in tissue-engineered constructs not only promotes the formation of functional bone tissue but also ensures the development of adequate mechanical properties necessary for successful craniofacial defect reconstruction [30,31].

Soft Tissue Engineering for Breast Reconstruction in Regenerative Medicine

This is a critical aspect, particularly for patients undergoing mastectomy due to breast cancer. The process involves developing structures with ideal biological, chemical, structural, and mechanical compatibility for controlled localized cancer drug delivery and breast tissue regeneration [32]. Techniques like hydrogel-based micro-tissue engineering and dual micro-tissue assembly have shown promise in constructing vascularized tissue-engineered breast grafts, enhancing adipose tissue regeneration and neo-vessel formation [33]. Adipose-derived stromal cells (ADSCs) have emerged as a valuable cell source for soft tissue regeneration, successfully applied in clinical settings for various pathologies, including breast reconstruction post-mastectomy [34]. Novel regenerative tissue fillers, like collagen-based scaffolds, have demonstrated the ability to induce regenerative healing responses without compromising surgical procedures, showing significant translational potential for breast conserving surgery and soft tissue reconstruction needs [35]. Large animal models, such as the porcine model, have been developed to study scaffoldguided breast tissue engineering, providing a clinically relevant approach for future reconstructive surgeries [36].

Challenges and Limitations

Challenges and limitations associated with the use of regenerative medicine in plastic surgery include the selection of appropriate stem cells, ethical concerns, genetic instability, lack of complete understanding of their mode of action, economic issues, lack of regulations, vascularization during tissue regeneration, immune system problems, biomaterial challenges, and ethical considerations [37]. Techniques like cell-assisted lipotransfer can induce immune reactions upon the introduction of implanted tissues into the body. Similarly, the utilization of stem cells for craniofacial regeneration may encounter hurdles due to potential immunological reactions to the implanted tissues [38].

The integration of regenerated tissues with surrounding native tissues is crucial for successful plastic surgery procedures, ensuring proper vascularization and innervation for long-term survival and functionality. However, achieving seamless integration between implanted and native tissues remains a significant challenge in regenerative medicine [39].

Stem cells used in regenerative medicine may exhibit genetic instability, increasing the risk of mutations and tumorigenesis, emphasizing the need to ensure the safety and stability of implanted tissues to prevent adverse outcomes in plastic surgery procedures [39]. Ensuring the long-term viability of engineered tissues is essential for successful outcomes in plastic surgery. The translation of regenerative medicine techniques from preclinical studies to clinical applications faces obstacles related to long-term tissue viability and functionality. Thus, improving the longterm viability and functionality of engineered tissues is imperative for the successful clinical implementation of regenerative medicine in plastic surgery, underscoring the need for further research and development in this area [38]. Ethical considerations are also necessary in integrating regenerative medicine into plastic surgery. Patients must fully comprehend the risks, benefits, and uncertainties of innovative regenerative treatments before proceeding. Ensuring informed consent is paramount to respect patient autonomy and safeguard confidentiality and privacy, protecting sensitive data and genetic information [25].

Challenges in plastic surgery, such as soft tissue loss and bone disorders, pose obstacles for regenerative medicine. Implant-associated infections in orthopedic surgery are challenging to treat and require long-term therapy, warranting consideration of potential complications. Nanotechnology offers precise reconstruction methods, yet ethical concerns regarding safety and long-term effects need addressing. Cosmetic procedures like liposuction carry risks requiring ethical considerations to ensure patient safety and informed consent. Biofilm formation on implants raises concerns about treatment-resistant infections, emphasizing the need for ethical patient outcomes and interventions. Ethical considerations involve respecting patient autonomy, ensuring informed consent, and transparent communication about the potential risks and benefits of regenerative treatments [40].

Emerging Technologies and Future Directions

Recent advancements in regenerative medicine and personalized treatments have revolutionized various aspects of healthcare, particularly in plastic surgery. Adipose-Derived Stem Cells (ADSCs) offer regenerative therapies due to their self-renewal, trophic factor secretion, and cell differentiation properties. Researchers have successfully utilized ADSCs in various plastic surgeries, including combining them with fat grafting for soft tissue filling and seeding them on scaffolds for bone defect repair [40]. Biomaterials derived from preserved tissues serve as mechanical support and biologic scaffolds in plastic surgeries, reducing immunologic responses and continuously evolving for safer and more effective dermal filler biomaterials Future research areas include further exploration of nanotechnology for drug delivery, wound healing, and tissue regeneration optimization, as well as investigating the combination of stem cell therapy with nanotechnology for enhanced regenerative outcomes. Patients can benefit from reduced complications, shorter recovery times, and improved aesthetic outcomes [41].

Emerging technologies are reshaping the landscape of plastic surgery, offering new avenues for precision and innovation. Virtual Reality (VR) is widely employed for preoperative planning and patient education, enabling surgeons to visualize intricate anatomical structures in threedimensional space, enhancing surgical precision and reducing

errors. Three-Dimensional (3D) Printing revolutionizes plastic surgery by fabricating patient-specific implants and surgical guides, leading to personalized treatment strategies and improved outcomes. Additionally, advancements in Bioprinting hold promise for creating complex tissues and organs for transplantation, with ongoing research focusing on bio-ink development and vascularization techniques for successful integration [30]. Nanotechnology offers opportunities for drug delivery, wound healing, and tissue regeneration, although further optimization is needed for enhanced repair and regeneration [31]. These technological advancements translate into enhanced precision, safety, and personalized care for patients, resulting in reduced complications, shorter recovery times, and improved aesthetic outcomes. Patient-centered care approaches empower patients to actively participate in treatment decisions, understand procedures, and visualize potential outcomes, fostering improved satisfaction, communication, and overall clinical outcomes in plastic surgery [42].

Clinical Translation and Practical Considerations

Translating regenerative medicine technologies to clinical practice involves a comprehensive process encompassing rigorous testing, optimization, and validation to ensure safety and efficacy. It includes preclinical studies, clinical trials, and regulatory approval, all aimed at demonstrating the effectiveness of these technologies in treating specific conditions. Practical considerations, such as regulatory approval by entities like the FDA, cost-effectiveness to ensure affordability and reimbursement options, and accessibility to ensure broad access to treatments, including underserved populations, are crucial aspects [6].

Economical and Accessibility Issues

Bringing laboratory innovations to patient care requires regulatory approval processes, ensuring compliance with standards, and demonstrating safety and efficacy. Assessing the cost-effectiveness of regenerative medicine treatments and evaluating their economic impact are vital for widespread adoption and accessibility. Maximizing patient benefits entails ensuring accessibility to these therapies, addressing barriers such as affordability, geographic distribution, and insurance coverage [24]. Successful applications, such as platelet-rich plasma therapy for skin rejuvenation and hair restoration, demonstrate promising results, while ongoing clinical trials focus on enhancing outcomes in areas like plastic surgery and tissue repair [24]. Despite the immense potential of stem cells and growth factors in regenerative purposes, accessibility issues persist due to limitations in autologous tissue availability and donor-site morbidity concerns [42]. Addressing these challenges requires

increased transparency, collaborative research efforts, and realistic expectations to accelerate the market access of these innovative medical approaches.

The translation of regenerative medicine into clinical practice involves identifying effective strategies tailored to specific clinical scenarios through standardized comparative studies. Successful applications, including tissue-engineered bone and cartilage, underscore the potential of regenerative medicine to address diverse medical needs. Ongoing clinical trials continue to explore novel approaches, ensuring the continuous advancement of regenerative medicine across medical fields [42,43].

Conclusion

In conclusion, this comprehensive review underscores the profound impact of regenerative medicine and tissue engineering on plastic surgery, showcasing advancements in stem cell therapies, biomaterials, and innovative technologies like 3D printing that have revolutionized tissue repair and regeneration. Current research emphasizes personalized regenerative therapies, such as cellular therapies and tissue engineering techniques, aimed at improving patient outcomes and promoting tissue regeneration across a spectrum of applications. Despite challenges like immune responses and genetic instability, ongoing advancements offer promising solutions for complex reconstructive procedures, heralding a future where regenerative medicine and tissue engineering play integral roles in plastic surgery. Emerging technologies such as 3D bioprinting and nanotechnology hold immense potential to further enhance treatment approaches, offering safer and more effective options for patients while empowering clinicians with innovative tools to optimize surgical outcomes. Additionally, regenerative medicine fosters collaboration and exploration of novel techniques, stimulating ongoing research efforts and propelling the field forward. The integration of regenerative medicine and tissue engineering into plastic surgery signifies a transformative shift, promising improved patient care, enhanced surgical techniques, and continued innovation in the quest for optimal clinical outcome.

References

- Webb R, Mylona A, D'Souza A (2023) Regenerative medicine. In: Medical Innovation. Tysome T (Ed.), 1st (Edn.), CRC Press, Boca Raton, pp: 133-145.
- 2. Hosseinkhani H (2022) Regenerative Medicine. In: Biomedical Engineering: Materials, Technology, and Applications. John Wiley & Sons, River Street Hoboken, NJ, pp: 187-208.
- 3. Petrosyan A, Martins PN, Solez K, Uygun BE, Gorantla

VS, et al. (2022) Regenerative medicine applications: An overview of clinical trials. Front Bioeng Biotechnol 10: 942750.

- 4. Halwai HK (2022) Regenerative Medicine's Current State of Affairs. Journal of Universal College of Medical Sciences 10(26): 1-2.
- Tsachouridis G, Abbas T, de Kort LMO, de Graaf P (2023) Tissue Engineering and Regenerative Medicine in Hypospadias Management. In: Abbas T (Ed.), Hypospadiology. Springer, Singapore, pp: 127-136.
- 6. Anand M, Bhagania M, Kaur K (2023) Tissue engineering in plastic and reconstructive surgery: fostering advances in the 21st century via an understanding of the present state of the art and future possibilities. Archives of Aesthetic Plastic Surgery 29(2): 64-75.
- 7. Zocchi ML, Facchin F, Pagani A, Bonino C, Sbarbati A, et al. (2022) New perspectives in regenerative medicine and surgery: the bioactive composite therapies (BACTs). European Journal of Plastic Surgery 45: 1-25.
- 8. Findlay MW, Gurtner GC (2022) Tissue Engineering. In: Cugno S, Mehrara BJ, et al. (Eds.), Plastic Surgery -Principles and Practice, Elsevier, pp: 68-82.
- 9. Jorgensen AM, Mahajan N, Atala A, Murphy SV (2023) Advances in Skin Tissue Engineering and Regenerative Medicine. J Burn Care Res 44(1S): S33-S41.
- Mazzoni E, Iaquinta MR, Mosaico M, De Pace R, D'Agostino A, et al. (2023) Human Mesenchymal Stem Cells and Innovative Scaffolds for Bone Tissue Engineering Applications. Tissue Eng Part B Rev 29(5): 514-531.
- 11. Lajtha LG (1979) Stem Cell Concepts. Differentiation 14(1-3): 23-33.
- 12. Potten CS (1996) Stem Cells. Paterson Institute for Cancer Research Christie Hospital, NHS Trust, Manchester, UK, pp: 474.
- Rahmati S, Khazaei M, Nadi A, Alizadeh M, Rezakhani L (2023) Exosome-loaded scaffolds for regenerative medicine in hard tissues. Tissue Cell 82: 102102.
- 14. Pratap SA, Mansi A, Komal Raj K, Satya P, Aakash K (2023) Nanogel-based scaffolds for tissue engineering and regenerative medicine. International Journal of Pharmacy and Pharmaceutical Sciences 5(1): 36-39.
- 15. Kasravi M, Ahmadi A, Babajani A, Mazloomnejad R, Hatamnejad MR, et al. (2023) Immunogenicity of decellularized extracellular matrix scaffolds: a bottleneck in tissue engineering and regenerative

International Journal of Transplantation & Plastic Surgery

7

medicine. Biomaterials Research 27(1): 1-24.

- 16. Cengiz IF, Reis RL, Oliveira JM (2023) Engineering scaffolds for tissue engineering and regenerative medicine. In: Srivastava AK, Hashmi SAR, et al. (Eds.), Advances in Biomedical Polymers and Composites. Elsevier, pp: 109-130.
- Zouzou I, Nourai A (2022) Growth factor parametrization. International Journal of Modern Physics A 37(4): 2150266.
- 18. Stone WL, Leavitt L, Varacallo M (2017) Physiology, Growth Factor. In: StatPearls. Treasure Island (FL).
- Lu Y, Wang SJ, Zou DH (2023) Progress in Application of Concentrated Growth Factor in Oral Tissue Regeneration. Zhongguo Yi Xue Ke Xue Yuan Xue Bao 45(3): 500-505.
- Ren X, Zhao M, Lash B, Martino MM, Julier Z (2020) Growth Factor Engineering Strategies for Regenerative Medicine Applications. Front Bioeng Biotechnol 7: 469.
- 21. Kulebyakin KY, Nimiritsky PP, Makarevich PI (2020) Growth Factors in Regeneration and Regenerative Medicine: "the Cure and the Cause". Front Endocrinol 11: 384.
- 22. Cicciù M (2020) Growth Factor Applied to Oral and Regenerative Surgery. Int J Mol Sci 21(20): 7752.
- 23. Prabhu SR (2023) Healing: Tissue Regeneration and Repair. In: Textbook of General Pathology for Dental Students. Springer, pp: 49-56.
- 24. Carr NJ (2022) The pathology of healing and repair. Surgery (oxford) 40(1): 13-19.
- 25. Mehta H, Bishnoi A, Dogra S (2022) Regenerative medicine in aesthetics. Cosmoderma 2: 41-41.
- Padula SL, Ponzo M, Lombardi M, Iazzetta V, Errico C, et al. (2023) Nanofat in Plastic Reconstructive, Regenerative, and Aesthetic Surgery: A Review of Advancements in Face-Focused Applications. J Clin Med 12(13): 4351-4351.
- 27. Shang Y, Wang G, Zhen Y, Liu N, Nie F, et al. (2023) Application of decellularization-recellularization technique in plastic and reconstructive surgery. chinese Medical Journal 136(17): 2017-2027.
- Najman S, Stojanovic S, Zivkovic J, Najdanovic J, Radenkovic M, et al. (2023) Applications of biomaterials in regenerative medicine and tissue engineering – concepts and perspective. Contemporary materials 14(1): 1-18.

- Charbe NB, Tambuwala M, Palakurthi SS, Warokar A, Bakshi H, et al. (2022) Biomedical applications of threedimensional bioprinted craniofacial tissue engineering. Bioengineering & translational medicine 8(1): e10333.
- Nindra J, Prabhakar M (2022) Scaffold-Based Tissue Engineering for Craniofacial Deformities. In: Sharma A, Ranjan N, et al. (Eds.), Additive Manufacturing of Polymers for Tissue Engineering. CRC Press, USA, pp: 101-113.
- 31. Tahmasebi E, Mohammadi M, Alam M, Abbasi K, Khanmohammad R, et al. (2023) The current regenerative medicine approaches of craniofacial diseases: A narrative review. Frontiers in Cell and Developmental Biology 11: 1112378.
- 32. Obayemi JD, Salifu AA, Soboyejo WO (2023) Breast Reconstruction with Tissue Engineering and Regenerative Medicine. In: Comprehensive Structural Integrity 9: 169-180.
- 33. Ni R, Luo C, Ci H, Sun D, An R, et al. (2022) Construction of vascularized tissue-engineered breast with dual angiogenic and adipogenic micro-tissues. Materials today bio 18: 100539-100539.
- 34. Challapalli RS, Dwyer RM, McInerney N, Kerin MJ, Lowery AJ (2021) Effect of Breast Cancer and Adjuvant Therapy on Adipose-Derived Stromal Cells: Implications for the Role of ADSCs in Regenerative Strategies for Breast Reconstruction. Stem Cell Reviews and Reports 17(2): 523-538.
- 35. Puls TJ, Fisher CS, Cox A, Plantenga JM, McBride EL, et al. (2021) Regenerative tissue filler for breast conserving surgery and other soft tissue restoration and reconstruction needs. Scientific Reports 11(1): 2711-2711.
- 36. Cheng M, Janzekovic J, Mohseni M, McGovern J, Galloway G, et al. (2021) A Preclinical Animal Model for the Study of Scaffold-Guided Breast Tissue Engineering. Tissue Engineering Part C-methods 27(6): 366-377.
- 37. Qiu T, Pochopien M, Hanna E, Liang S, Wang Y, et al. (2022) Challenges in the market access of regenerative medicines, and implications for manufacturers and decision-makers: a systematic review. Regen Med 17(3): 119-139.
- Miller MQ, Park SS, Christophel JJ (2017) Applying regenerative medicine techniques in facial plastic and reconstructive surgery: the bar has been set high. NPJ Regen Med 2: 20.

- 39. Nazim SM, Ahmad S (2023) Stem cell research, regenerative medicine and challenges. J Pak Med Assoc 73(1S)(2): S143-S147.
- 40. Anas E, Halen JPV (2015) Promising recent regenerative medicine applications in plastic and reconstructive surgery. Global Surgery 1(1): 2-7.
- 41. Zarei F, Negahdari B (2017) Recent progresses in plastic surgery using adipose-derived stem cells, biomaterials and growth factors. J Microencapsul 34(7): 699-706.
- 42. Yang B, Yang L, Huang WL, Zhou QZ, He J, et al. (2023) Application experience and research progress of different emerging technologies in plastic surgery. World J Clin Cases 11(18): 4258-4266.
- 43. Borrelli MR, Hu MS, Longaker MT, Lorenz HP (2020) Tissue Engineering and Regenerative Medicine in Craniofacial Reconstruction and Facial Aesthetics. J Craniofac Surg 31(1): 15-27.