

Regeneration Potential of the Young Permanent Tooth: What Does the Future Hold?

Kenneth M. Hargreaves, DDS, PhD,* Todd Geisler, DDS,* Michael Henry, DDS, PhD,* and Yan Wang, DDS, PhD†

Abstract

During the last 10–15 years, there has been a tremendous increase in our clinical “tools” (ie, materials, instruments, and medications) and knowledge from the trauma and tissue engineering fields that can be applied to regeneration of a functional pulp-dentin complex. In addition, recent case reports indicate that biologically based endodontic therapies can result in continued root development, increased dentinal wall thickness, and apical closure when treating cases of necrotic immature permanent teeth. The purpose of this review was to summarize these findings and illustrate a path forward for the development and evaluation of regenerative endodontic therapies. (*J Endod* 2008;34:551-556)

Key Words

Endodontics, pulp biology, regeneration, revascularization, tissue engineering

From the *Department of Endodontics, University of Texas Health Science Center, San Antonio, Texas; and †Department of Endodontics, School of Stomatology, Shandong University, Jinan, China.

Address requests for reprints to Dr K. M. Hargreaves, University of Texas Health Science Center, Mail Code 7982, 7703 Floyd Curl Dr, San Antonio, TX 78229-3900. E-mail address: Hargreaves@uthscsa.edu.

Conflicts of Interest: Kenneth M. Hargreaves, DDS, PhD, is a Grant Recipient from the National Institutes of Health and is the Editor-in-Chief of the *Journal of Endodontics*. Todd Geisler, DDS, is a Grant Recipient from the AAE Foundation. Michael Henry, DDS, PhD, is a Grant Recipient from the National Institutes of Health. Yan Wang, DDS, PhD, reports no financial interests or potential conflicts of interest.
0099-2399/\$0 - see front matter

Copyright © 2008 American Academy of Pediatric Dentistry and American Association of Endodontists.

This article is being published concurrently in *Pediatric Dentistry*, May/June 2008; Volume 30, Issue 3. The articles are identical. Either citation can be used when citing this article. doi:10.1016/j.joen.2008.02.032

Treatment of the young permanent tooth with a necrotic root canal system and an incompletely developed root is fraught with difficulty. Not only is the root canal system often difficult to fully debride, but the thin dentinal walls increase the risk of a subsequent fracture. Historically, acceptable endodontic results have been achieved through apexification procedures with use of long-term calcium hydroxide. Concerns have been raised, however, that long-term calcium hydroxide therapy might alter the mechanical properties of dentin. Recent treatment strategies include 1-step creation of an artificial apical barrier by using mineral trioxide aggregate (MTA) with or without an apical matrix followed by compaction of obturating material and placement of a coronal restoration. MTA has been shown to produce good sealing effects under these conditions (1, 2). In addition, bonded composite resins have been reported to increase fracture resistance under some (3, 4) but not all experimental conditions (5). Unfortunately, even after treatment, these teeth have an elevated risk for fracture (6).

An alternative approach is to provide treatment under conditions where continued dentin formation is promoted. Several reports document that under conditions where at least some pulp tissue appears vital, a pulp cap treatment permits continued dentin formation, described as either continued root development (maturogenesis) or apical closure (apexogenesis) (7). Although these findings and an emphasis for continued research on vital pulp therapy are important (8), in many clinical cases the dental pulp has already undergone tissue necrosis before specialist consultation. Moreover, conventional endodontic therapy is not expected to result in continued dentin formation in these circumstances. Thus, there is continued need to develop biologically based treatment regimens that offer the potential for continued hard tissue formation of the young permanent tooth with a necrotic root canal system and an incompletely developed root.

Regenerative Endodontic Procedures

Several groups recently have published preclinical research or case reports that offer a biologically based alternative to conventional endodontic treatment of these complex clinical cases. In general, these studies have evolved from the trauma literature, where the following precepts have been established:

1. Revascularization occurs most predictably in teeth with open apices (9–12).
2. Instrumentation with NaOCl irrigation is not sufficient to reliably create the conditions necessary for revascularization of the infected necrotic tooth (13).
3. Placement of Ca(OH)₂ in root canal systems prevents revascularization coronal to the location of the Ca(OH)₂ (14).
4. The use of the “3 mix-MP” triple antibiotic paste, developed by Hoshino and colleagues and consisting of ciprofloxacin, metronidazole, and minocycline, is effective for disinfection of the infected necrotic tooth, setting the conditions for subsequent revascularization (15–19).

This triple antibiotic mixture has high efficacy. In a recent preclinical study on dogs, the intracanal delivery of a 20-mg/mL solution of these 3 antibiotics via a Lentulo spiral resulted in a greater than 99% reduction in mean colony-forming unit (CFU) levels, with approximately 75% of the root canal systems having no cultivable microorganisms present (19). Taken together, these studies provide a strong foundation level of knowledge from the trauma literature that permits subsequent research to focus on developing clinical methods for regeneration of a functional pulp-dentin complex.

Although the trauma literature has used the term *revascularization* to describe this treatment's outcome, the goal from an endodontic perspective is to regenerate a pulp-dentin complex that restores functional properties of this tissue, fosters continued root development for immature teeth, and prevents or resolves apical periodontitis. Thus, using the term revascularization for regenerative endodontic procedures has been questioned (20). Therefore, this review will focus on the concept of regenerating a functional pulp-dentin complex and will restrict the use of the term revascularization to trauma studies.

It should be appreciated that research on regeneration of a pulp-dentin complex has a long history. For example, during the last 30–50 years, Nygaard-Østby and others have reported a series of preclinical studies and case studies on patients attempting to regenerate pulp-like tissue in teeth with either vital or nonvital diagnoses (21–24). Connective tissue was demonstrated to grow as much as several millimeters into the apical portion of the root canal system in teeth with necrotic pulpal diagnoses (23). The results were variable, however, and histologic analysis failed to reveal regeneration of a functional pulp-dentin complex. This lack of outcome is not surprising, however, given the level of materials, instruments, and medications and the knowledge base available at the time. Instead, current research in regenerative endodontics uses greatly improved materials, instruments, and medications and applies many principles from the fields of trauma research and tissue engineering (25–28).

In part on the basis of this expanding base of tools and knowledge, several recent case reports have been published describing regenerative endodontic procedures applied to cases of necrotic immature permanent teeth. Key features of these published cases (20, 29–32) are summarized in Table 1.

There are several common factors observed in these cases. First, although structurally weak, it is important to realize that the immature permanent tooth in general has a very wide apical opening that likely is conducive to tissue ingrowth. Second, these patients are young (8–13 years old), and several (33–37), but not all (38), studies suggest that younger ages have greater healing capacity or stem cell regenerative potential. Third, none of the cases used instrumentation of the root canal walls, whereas all of the studies used NaOCl as an irrigant. Fourth, both Ca(OH)₂ paste and combinations of multiple antibiotics have been used in these patients. Outcome differences between these 2 medications might reveal an important aspect of regenerative methods, because many of the reported cases treated with Ca(OH)₂ display intracanal calcifications that appear to impede the continued thickening of the dentinal walls of these immature teeth (20). In addition, other investigators (30) have suggested that the use of Ca(OH)₂ might kill any remaining pulpal cells, including stem or progenitor cells known to be present in dental pulp tissue (39–41), or possibly disrupt the apical papilla (30) and its resident stem cells (42, 43), which is critical for continued root development. Fifth, the formation of a blood clot might serve as a protein scaffold, permitting 3-dimensional ingrowth of tissue. Sixth, nearly all of these studies report continued thickening of the dentinal walls and subsequent apical closure. It should be appreciated, however, that the radiographic finding of continued dentinal wall thickness does not address the cellular nature of this calcified material.

Largely on the basis of preclinical studies, it is possible that the radiographic presentation of increased dentinal wall thickness might be due to ingrowth of cementum, bone, or a dentin-like material (23, 24, 44–48). This diversity in cellular response is not surprising, given that human dental pulp cells can develop odontogenic/osteogenic, chondrogenic, or adipogenic phenotypes, depending on their exposure to different cocktails of growth factors and morphogens (49, 50). One advantage of case reports is that they are based on outcomes observed in actual patients and therefore might have great value in stimulating the

development of subsequent treatment methods; indeed, the discovery of fluoride emerged from the keen observations of a practicing clinician. We now recognize, however, the critical importance of subjecting these initial findings to prospective randomized clinical trials to generate objective measures of treatment efficacy and the potential liability for adverse events.

Thus, these and other case reports (51) should be viewed as generating a strong impetus for developing future prospective clinical trials. Taken together, these recent case studies support the hypothesis that the immature necrotic permanent tooth might be particularly responsive to biologically based endodontic therapies. Not only do these treatments provide an important alternative in a clinical situation with an otherwise poor prognosis, but equally important, these cases might serve as an important clinical model to evaluate the application of tissue engineering concepts to the regeneration of a functional pulp-dentin complex.

Application of Tissue Engineering Concepts to Regenerative Endodontics

The field of tissue engineering has literally exploded during the last decade, and extensive reviews on dental applications are available for the interested reader (25, 26, 52–57). Here we briefly review 3 major components of tissue engineering from the concept of developing regenerative endodontic treatment regimens. Although basic research has applied nearly all of the tools of molecular biology for engineering of dental tissues, including transfections and knockout animals, we will adopt a different perspective: What concepts of tissue engineering are most likely to be available to clinicians when treating their patients with regenerative endodontic techniques? We have used this rather practical perspective to shape our review of this field and to suggest a path forward for developing and evaluating regenerative endodontics.

The first component of tissue engineering is a cell source. Odontoblasts are of mesenchymal origin, and under appropriate conditions, cells from dental pulp, the apical papilla, and possibly other tissues can form odontoblast-like cells (49, 50, 56, 58–61). Controversies exist among several of these studies, because measuring only 1 or 2 characteristics of a cell might not be sufficient to conclusively determine whether the resulting cell is a true odontoblast. Indeed, even among odontoblasts, the phenotype varies in cells located in the apical versus coronal dentin. Recent molecular studies have identified many of the genes selectively expressed in odontoblasts (62, 63), however, and this is likely to aid future studies characterizing the conditions necessary for mesenchymal cells of multiple origins to differentiate into the odontoblast phenotype. To date, the precise cell source(s) supporting the continued root development of the cases described in Table 1 are unknown. It is possible that residual pulp cells might have remained vital in some of the cases, cells from the apical papilla underwent proliferation, or bleeding-induced angiogenesis might have recruited stem/progenitor cells from apical tissues including the apical papilla. The clinical challenge will be to find a reliable cell source capable of differentiating into odontoblasts, convenient for harvesting, and autogenous to avoid tissue rejection or introduction of foreign pathogens (25). Moreover, a delivery method must be developed that permits controlled application of a known amount of cells into the apical region of the root canal system. Clearly, these are critical areas for future research.

The second component of tissue engineering is a physical scaffold. Tissues are 3-dimensional structures, and an appropriate scaffold is needed to promote cell growth and differentiation. It is known that extracellular matrix molecules control the differentiation of stem cells (64, 65), and an appropriate scaffold might selectively bind and localize cells (66), contain growth factors (67), and undergo biodegradation

TABLE 1. Key Features of Case Reports of Regenerative Endodontic Treatment Applied to Necrotic Immature Permanent Teeth

Tooth no.	Patient age (y)	Patient sex	Preoperative pulpal diagnosis	Preoperative periradicular diagnosis	Treatment ¹	Outcome	Reference no.
29	13	Female	Necrosis	Chronic apical abscess	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 5 weekly visits, no instrumentation, irrigation with 5% NaOCl and 3% H₂O₂. Tooth left open between first and second appointments to permit drainage. Interappointment medicament: metronidazole and ciprofloxacin. • 6 weeks later: Broach probed vital tissue in canal. Applied Ca(OH)₂ paste, glass ionomer cement, bonded composite resin. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Sixth appointment: Vital tissue observed 5 mm apical to canal orifice. • 15 months: Positive response to electrical pulp test. • 30 months: Apical closure with thickening of dentinal walls. 	29
29	11	Male	Necrosis	Chronic apical abscess	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • First appointment: Rubber dam and access. No instrumentation. Deep irrigation with 10 mL 5.25% NaOCl and 0.12% chlorhexidine. Interappointment medicament: metronidazole, minocycline, and ciprofloxacin (Lentulo spiral). Cavit. • 1 month: Irrigate 20 mL 5.35% NaOCl. Bleeding initiated with endo explorer. Stopped bleeding 3 mm from cementoamel junction. MTA, wet pellet, Cavit. • 2 weeks later: Composite restoration. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 26 days: Vital tissue present 15 mm into canal system. • 6–24 months: Gradual apical closure with thickening of dentinal walls. • Positive response to pulpal cold test. 	30
20	10	Female	(Partial) pulpal necrosis	Chronic periradicular abscess	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • First appointment: Rubber dam and access. No instrumentation. Irrigate with 20 mL 2.5% NaOCl. Interappointment medicament: Ca(OH)₂ paste. Caviton/IRM. • 2 weeks later: Repeat. • 3 months: Replace Ca(OH)₂. • 11 months: Remove IRM and replace with amalgam. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 3 months: Found hard tissue at Ca(OH)₂ site. Asymptomatic. • 11 months: Thickening of dentinal walls. • 35 months: Continued thickening of dentinal walls and apical closure. 	20
29	10	Male	Necrosis	Acute periradicular abscess	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • First appointment: Rubber dam and access. No instrumentation. Irrigate with 2.5% NaOCl. Interappointment medicament: Ca(OH)₂ paste. • 1 month: Irrigate with 2.5% NaOCl. Interappointment medicament: Ca(OH)₂ paste. • 2 months: Replace Ca(OH)₂. • 7 months: Restore with Caiton/Ketac Silver. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 2 months: Found hard tissue at Ca(OH)₂ site. Asymptomatic. • 7 months: Apical closure, thickening dentinal walls, calcified coronal one third root canal system. 	20
20	10	Female	(Partial) pulpal necrosis	Chronic periradicular periodontitis	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Formocresol pulpotomy. • 9 days: Rubber dam and access. No instrumentation. Irrigate with 2.5% NaOCl. Interappointment medicament: Ca(OH)₂ paste. • 1 month: Replace Ca(OH)₂. • 2 months later and every 2–3 months for 11 months: Replace Ca(OH)₂. • 18 months: Restore with amalgam. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 1 month: Found hard tissue at mid-root. • 11–54 months: Gradual apical closure, thickening dentinal walls in apical half of root canal system. 	20

TABLE 1. (Continued)

Tooth no.	Patient age (y)	Patient sex	Preoperative pulpal diagnosis	Preoperative periradicular diagnosis	Treatment ¹	Outcome	Reference no.
29	9	Male	Necrosis	Chronic periradicular periodontitis	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Tooth left open for drainage at an emergency clinic. • Rubber dam and access. No instrumentation. Irrigate 40 mL 2.5% NaOCl. Interappointment medicament: Ca(OH)₂ paste. • 2 weeks and 5 weeks: Repeat. • 5 months: Repeat. • 36 months: Restore with amalgam to calcified bridge. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 5 weeks: Hard tissue found at mid-root. • 5–60 months: Gradual development of root length, thickening of dentinal walls, apical closure. 	20
8	8	Male	Necrosis	Chronic periradicular abscess	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • First appointment: Consultation. • Second appointment: Rubber dam and access. No instrumentation. Deep irrigation with 10 mL 5.25% NaOCl and 0.12% chlorhexidine. Interappointment medicament: metronidazole, minocycline, and ciprofloxacin. Cavit. • Third appointment: Irrigate with 5.25% NaOCl, induce bleeding with endo explorer. Cotton pellet placed 3 mm below cementoenamel junction for 15-minute control location of a blood clot. MTA, wet cotton pellet, Cavit. • Fourth appointment: Remove Cavit and place bonded composite. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 8 months: Asymptomatic. Apical closure with thickening dentinal walls. 	31
8	9	Male	Necrotic	Acute apical abscess	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Trauma 2 years previously treated with Cvek pulpotomy procedure. • Incision for drainage. • Disinfect tooth surface with Betadine. Rubber dam and access. No instrumentation. Irrigate copiously with 1.25% NaOCl. Interappointment medicament: metronidazole, minocycline, and ciprofloxacin (Lentulo spiral). IRM. • 11 weeks: Irrigate with 10 mL 1.25% NaOCl and 10 mL sterile water. Induce bleeding with endodontic file inserted beyond the apex. 15 minutes allowed for blood clot to reach cementoenamel junction. Place MTA over blood clot with moist cotton pellet. Remove cotton pellet 1 hour later and place bonded composite. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 3 months: Asymptomatic. Diffuse radiopacities noted in root canal system. No response to pulp test (CO₂ ice). • 6–12 months: Asymptomatic. Diffuse radiopacities noted in root canal system. No response to pulp test (CO₂ ice). Gradual apical development and closure. 	32

IRM, intermediate restorative material; MTA, mineral trioxide aggregate.

over time (68). Thus, a scaffold is far more than a simple lattice to contain cells. From our perspective of focusing on practical clinical applications, we believe that platelet-rich plasma (PRP) satisfies many of these criteria. PRP is autologous, fairly easy to prepare in a dental setting, rich in growth factors, degrades over time, and forms a 3-dimensional fibrin matrix (69–72). Interestingly, the case reports from Table 1 all include formation of a blood clot. The use of PRP as an alternative source for a fibrin clot might have several advantages, including increased concentration of growth factors and removal of erythrocytes that would be expected to undergo necrosis shortly after clot formation. To date, however, no publications have evaluated PRP for scaffold generation in regenerative endodontic applications. This and other potential scaffolds require future research.

The third component of tissue engineering to consider for regenerative endodontics is signaling molecules. Both growth factors and other compounds are capable of stimulating cellular proliferation and directing cellular differentiation. As aforementioned, the observed radiographic thickening of the dentinal walls might be due to production of cementum, bone, or dentin. It is likely that the cell source and the available signaling molecules play major roles in guiding the development of cells in the regenerating tissue. For example, the same cultures of human dental pulp cells can differentiate into cells resembling odontoblasts/osteoblasts, adipocytes, or chondrocytes, depending on the combination of signaling molecules such as dexamethasone (49). Other investigators have shown that dentin or application of a dentin extract rich in growth factors will promote formation of an odontoblast phenotype (50, 62, 73). Extracts of dentin promote growth, because many growth factors are embedded into the dentin matrix during dentinogenesis. Interestingly, ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid (EDTA) very effectively releases growth factors from human dentin (74). It is not yet known, however, whether root canal irrigation with EDTA would promote the development of odontoblast proliferation in a regenerative endodontic procedure. It is likely that intracanal delivery of known signaling molecules or the solubilization of endogenous signaling molecules will promote the formation of dentin in regenerative endodontic methods.

A Path to the Future

Collectively, there has been a tremendous increase in our clinical tools (ie, materials, instruments, and medications) and knowledge from the trauma and tissue engineering fields during the last decade. Moreover, recent case reports from multiple investigators support the feasibility of developing biologically based regenerative endodontic procedures designed to restore a functional pulp-dentin complex. Although these case reports primarily involve treating the immature permanent tooth, it is quite possible that knowledge gained from this clinical application will have value in developing regenerative endodontic procedures for the fully developed permanent tooth. In short, the question is no longer “can regenerative endodontic procedures be successful?” Instead, the important question facing us is “what are the issues that must be addressed to develop a safe, effective, and consistent method for regenerating a functional pulp-dentin complex in our patients?”

In our opinion, the path to the future should focus on translational research models that simulate likely clinical procedures. For example, although of clear scientific importance in understanding cellular mechanisms, we do not believe that gene transfection is likely to have major application in clinical endodontic procedures. Similarly, if natural tooth development takes several years to occur, then we are not convinced that the growth of artificial teeth with cells of allogenic or even xenogenic origin (42, 75) is likely to have major clinical application. In-

stead, we believe that research modeling clinical procedures designed to regenerate a functional pulp-dentin complex is likely to have the greatest impact. On the basis of current concepts, one approach would be to focus on methods permitting the delivery of known cells, signaling molecules, and a scaffold such as PRP into the apical 1–2 mm of a root canal system and then “backfilling” the root canal system with a solution of PRP and signaling molecules. Because most cells must be less than 1 mm away from a blood vessel to survive (76), research focusing on the initiation of pulpal regeneration at the apex is likely to have major impact in developing other clinically useful procedures. Cellular proliferation could then occur along the backfill scaffold.

One possible approach is to develop a model system resembling clinical application. For example, the revascularization of root canal systems has been evaluated in human tooth slices after implantation into nude mice (who are immunocompromised, thus avoiding tissue rejection) (77). Similarly, it might be possible to evaluate the initiation of pulpal regeneration after various treatments by implanting the apical 5–10 mm of sectioned human roots into nude mice. This approach has particular advantages, because it permits rapid evaluation of conditions necessary to initiate tissue regeneration and could be extended in future research by evaluating conditions necessary to optimally disinfect necrotic root canal systems before tissue regeneration.

A recent editorial has suggested that “little progress has been made” in the years since the Nygaard-Østby studies on the regrowth of dental pulp (8). From many perspectives, this statement is accurate. We believe, however, that the last decade has produced a critical mass of knowledge and methods that are likely to result in the generation of biologically based endodontic therapies that will answer the challenge issued decades ago.

References

- Hachmeister DR, Schindler WG, Walker WA III, Thomas DD. The sealing ability and retention characteristics of mineral trioxide aggregate in a model of apexification. *J Endod* 2002;28:386–90.
- Pace R, Giuliani V, Pini Prato L, Baccetti T, Pagavino G. Apical plug technique using mineral trioxide aggregate: results from a case series. *Int Endod J* 2007;40:478–84.
- Wilkinson KL, Beeson TJ, Kirkpatrick TC. Fracture resistance of simulated immature teeth filled with resilon, gutta-percha, or composite. *J Endod* 2007;33:480–3.
- Katebzadeh N, Dalton BC, Trope M. Strengthening immature teeth during and after apexification. *J Endod* 1998;24:256–9.
- Stuart CH, Schwartz SA, Beeson TJ. Reinforcement of immature roots with a new resin filling material. *J Endod* 2006;32:350–3.
- Cvek M. Prognosis of luxated nonvital maxillary incisors treated with calcium hydroxide and filled with gutta-percha: a retrospective clinical study. *Endod Dent Traumatol* 1992;8:45–55.
- Weisleder R, Benitez CR. Maturogenesis: is it a new concept? *J Endod* 2003;29:776–8.
- Spangberg L. Who cares about the dental pulp? *Oral Surg Oral Med Oral Pathol Oral Radiol Endod* 2007;104:587–8.
- Kling M, Cvek M, Mejare I. Rate and predictability of pulp revascularization in therapeutically reimplanted permanent incisors. *Endod Dent Traumatol* 1986;2:83–9.
- Johnson WT, Goodrich JL, James GA. Replantation of avulsed teeth with immature root development. *Oral Surg Oral Med Oral Pathol* 1985;60:420–7.
- Laureys W, Beele H, Cornelissen R, Dermout L. Revascularization after cryopreservation and autotransplantation of immature and mature apicoectomized teeth. *Am J Orthod Dentofacial Orthop* 2001;119:346–52.
- Andreasen JO, Borum MK, Jacobsen HL, Andreasen FM. Replantation of 400 avulsed permanent incisors: 2—factors related to pulpal healing. *Endod Dent Traumatol* 1995;11:59–68.
- Cvek M, Nord CE, Hollender L. Antimicrobial effect of root canal debridement in teeth with immature root: a clinical and microbiologic study. *Odontol Revy* 1976;27:1–10.
- Schroder U, Granath LE. Early reaction of intact human teeth to calcium hydroxide following experimental pulpotomy and its significance to the development of hard tissue barrier. *Odontol Revy* 1971;22:379–95.
- Hoshino E, Kurihara-Ando N, Sato I, et al. In vitro antibacterial susceptibility of bacteria taken from infected root dentine to a mixture of ciprofloxacin, metronidazole, and minocycline. *Int Endod J* 1996;29:125–30.

16. Sato T, Hoshino E, Uematsu H, Noda T. In vitro antimicrobial susceptibility to combinations of drugs on bacteria from carious and endodontic lesions of human deciduous teeth. *Oral Microbiol Immunol* 1993;8:172–6.
17. Sato I, Ando-Kurihara N, Kota K, Iwaku M, Hoshino E. Sterilization of infected root-canal dentine by topical application of a mixture of ciprofloxacin, metronidazole, and minocycline in situ. *Int Endod J* 1996;29:118–24.
18. Takushige T, Cruz EV, Asgor Moral A, Hoshino E. Endodontic treatment of primary teeth using a combination of antibacterial drugs. *Int Endod J* 2004;37:132–8.
19. Windley W III, Teixeira F, Levin L, Sigurdsson A, Trope M. Disinfection of immature teeth with a triple antibiotic paste. *J Endod* 2005;31:439–43.
20. Chueh LH, Huang GT. Immature teeth with periradicular periodontitis or abscess undergoing apexogenesis: a paradigm shift. *J Endod* 2006;32:1205–13.
21. Nygaard-Ostby B, Hjortdal O. Tissue formation in the root canal following pulp removal. *Scand J Dent Res* 1971;79:333–49.
22. Horsted P, Nygaard-Ostby B. Tissue formation in the root canal after total pulpectomy and partial root filling. *Oral Surg Oral Med Oral Pathol* 1978;46:275–82.
23. Nygaard-Ostby B. The role of the blood clot in endodontic therapy: An experimental histologic study. *Acta Odontol Scand* 1961;19:323–53.
24. Nevins AJ, Finkelstein F, Borden BG, Laporta R. Revitalization of pulpless open apex teeth in rhesus monkeys, using collagen-calcium phosphate gel. *J Endod* 1976;2:159–65.
25. Murray PE, Garcia-Godoy F, Hargreaves KM. Regenerative endodontics: A review of current status and a call for action. *J Endod* 2007;33:377–90.
26. Nakashima M, Akamine A. The application of tissue engineering to regeneration of pulp and dentin in endodontics. *J Endod* 2005;31:711–8.
27. Thibodeau B, Teixeira F, Yamauchi M, Caplan DJ, Trope M. Pulp revascularization of immature dog teeth with apical periodontitis. *J Endod* 2007;33:680–9.
28. Flores MT, Andersson L, Andreassen JO, et al. Guidelines for the management of traumatic dental injuries: II—avulsion of permanent teeth. *Dent Traumatol* 2007;23:130–6.
29. Iwaya SI, Ikawa M, Kubota M. Revascularization of an immature permanent tooth with apical periodontitis and sinus tract. *Dent Traumatol* 2001;17:185–7.
30. Banchs F, Trope M. Revascularization of immature permanent teeth with apical periodontitis: new treatment protocol? *J Endod* 2004;30:196–200.
31. Petrino JA. Revascularization of necrotic pulp of immature teeth with apical periodontitis. *Northwest Dent* 2007;86:33–5.
32. Thibodeau B, Trope M. Pulp revascularization of a necrotic infected immature permanent tooth: case report and review of the literature. *Pediatr Dent* 2007;29:47–50.
33. Lei L, Liao W, Sheng P, Fu M, He A, Huang G. Biological character of human adipose-derived adult stem cells and influence of donor age on cell replication in culture. *Sci China* 2007;50:320–8.
34. O'Driscoll SW, Saris DB, Ito Y, Fitzsimmons JS. The chondrogenic potential of periosteum decreases with age. *J Orthop Res* 2001;19:95–103.
35. D'Ippolito G, Schiller PC, Ricordi C, Roos BA, Howard GA. Age-related osteogenic potential of mesenchymal stromal stem cells from human vertebral bone marrow. *J Bone Miner Res* 1999;14:1115–22.
36. Amler MH. The age factor in human extraction wound healing. *J Oral Surg* 1977;35:193–7.
37. Murray PE, Stanley HR, Matthews JB, Sloan AJ, Smith AJ. Age-related odontometric changes of human teeth. *Oral Surg Oral Med Oral Pathol Oral Radiol Endod* 2002;93:474–82.
38. Stenderup K, Justesen J, Eriksen EF, Rattan SI, Kassem M. Number and proliferative capacity of osteogenic stem cells are maintained during aging and in patients with osteoporosis. *J Bone Miner Res* 2001;16:1120–9.
39. Liu H, Gronthos S, Shi S. Dental pulp stem cells. *Methods Enzymol* 2006;419:99–113.
40. Shi S, Gronthos S. Perivascular niche of postnatal mesenchymal stem cells in human bone marrow and dental pulp. *J Bone Miner Res* 2003;18:696–704.
41. Gronthos S, Brahimi J, Li W, et al. Stem cell properties of human dental pulp stem cells. *J Dent Res* 2002;81:531–5.
42. Sonoyama W, Liu Y, Fang D, et al. Mesenchymal stem cell-mediated functional tooth regeneration in swine. *PLoS ONE* 2006;1:e79.
43. Sonoyama W, Liu Y, Yamaza T, et al. Characterization of the apical papilla and its residing stem cells from human immature permanent teeth: a pilot study. *J Endod* 2008;34:166–71.
44. Ritter AL, Ritter AV, Murrah V, Sigurdsson A, Trope M. Pulp revascularization of replanted immature dog teeth after treatment with minocycline and doxycycline assessed by laser Doppler flowmetry, radiography, and histology. *Dent Traumatol* 2004;20:75–84.
45. Nevins A, Finkelstein F, Laporta R, Borden BG. Induction of hard tissue into pulpless open-apex teeth using collagen-calcium phosphate gel. *J Endod* 1978;4:76–81.
46. Skoglund A, Tronstad L. Pulpal changes in replanted and autotransplanted immature teeth of dogs. *J Endod* 1981;7:309–16.
47. Sheppard PR, Burich RL. Effects of extra-oral exposure and multiple avulsions on revascularization of replanted teeth in dogs. *J Dent Res* 1980;59:140.
48. Kvinnsland I, Heyeraas KJ. Dentin and osteodentin matrix formation in apicoectomized replanted incisors in cats. *Acta Odontol Scand* 1989;47:41–52.
49. Wei X, Ling J, Wu L, Liu L, Xiao Y. Expression of mineralization markers in dental pulp cells. *J Endod* 2007;33:703–8.
50. Huang GT, Shagranova K, Chan SW. Formation of odontoblast-like cells from cultured human dental pulp cells on dentin in vitro. *J Endod* 2006;32:1066–73.
51. Shah N, Logani A. Evaluation of revascularization to induce apexification/apexogenesis in infected, nonvital immature teeth (abstract). In: IFEA Meeting; August 2007; Vancouver, British Columbia, Canada.
52. Risbud MV, Shapiro IM. Stem cells in craniofacial and dental tissue engineering. *Orthod Craniofac Res* 2005;8:54–9.
53. Rahaman MN, Mao JJ. Stem cell-based composite tissue constructs for regenerative medicine. *Biotechnol Bioeng* 2005;91:261–84.
54. Modino SA, Sharpe PT. Tissue engineering of teeth using adult stem cells. *Arch Oral Biol* 2005;50:255–8.
55. Feinberg SE, Aghaloo TL, Cunningham LL Jr. Role of tissue engineering in oral and maxillofacial reconstruction: findings of the 2005 AAOMS Research Summit. *J Oral Maxillofac Surg* 2005;63:1418–25.
56. Shi S, Bartold PM, Miura M, Seo BM, Robey PG, Gronthos S. The efficacy of mesenchymal stem cells to regenerate and repair dental structures. *Orthod Craniofac Res* 2005;8:191–9.
57. Sloan AJ, Smith AJ. Stem cells and the dental pulp: potential roles in dentine regeneration and repair. *Oral Dis* 2007;13:151–7.
58. Zhang W, Walboomers XF, Wolke JG, Bian Z, Fan MW, Jansen JA. Differentiation ability of rat postnatal dental pulp cells in vitro. *Tissue Eng* 2005;11:357–68.
59. Alliot-Licht B, Bluteau G, Magne D, et al. Dexamethasone stimulates differentiation of odontoblast-like cells in human dental pulp cultures. *Cell Tissue Res* 2005;321:391–400.
60. Kikumichi H, Suzuki K, Sakai N, Yamada S. Odontoblasts induced from mesenchymal cells of murine dental papillae in three-dimensional cell culture. *Cell Tissue Res* 2004;317:173–85.
61. Miura M, Gronthos S, Zhao M, et al. SHED: Stem cells from human exfoliated deciduous teeth. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 2003;100:5807–12.
62. Liu J, Jin T, Chang S, Ritchie HH, Smith AJ, Clarkson BH. Matrix and TGF-beta-related gene expression during human dental pulp stem cell (DPSC) mineralization. *In Vitro Cell Dev Biol* 2007;43:120–8.
63. Paakkonen V, Vuoristo JT, Salo T, Tjaderhane L. Comparative gene expression profile analysis between native human odontoblasts and pulp tissue. *Int Endod J* 2008;41:117–27.
64. Bi Y, Ehrlichou D, Kilts TM, et al. Identification of tendon stem/progenitor cells and the role of the extracellular matrix in their niche. *Nature Med* 2007;13:1219–27.
65. Yamamura T. Differentiation of pulpal cells and inductive influences of various matrices with reference to pulpal wound healing. *J Dent Res* 1985;64(Special issue):530–40.
66. Vacatello M, D'Auria G, Falcigno L, et al. Conformational analysis of heparin binding peptides. *Biomaterials* 2005;26:3207–14.
67. Yamada Y, Ueda M, Naiki T, Takahashi M, Hata K, Nagasaka T. Autogenous injectable bone for regeneration with mesenchymal stem cells and platelet-rich plasma: tissue-engineered bone regeneration. *Tissue Eng* 2004;10:955–64.
68. Young CS, Terada S, Vacanti JP, Honda M, Bartlett JD, Yelick PC. Tissue engineering of complex tooth structures on biodegradable polymer scaffolds. *J Dent Res* 2002;81:695–700.
69. Ito K, Yamada Y, Nagasaka T, Baba S, Ueda M. Osteogenic potential of injectable tissue-engineered bone: a comparison among autogenous bone, bone substitute (Bio-oss), platelet-rich plasma, and tissue-engineered bone with respect to their mechanical properties and histological findings. *J Biomed Mater Res* 2005;73A:63–72.
70. Anitua E, Andia I, Sanchez M, et al. Autologous preparations rich in growth factors promote proliferation and induce VEGF and HGF production by human tendon cells in culture. *J Orthop Res* 2005;23:281–6.
71. Anitua E, Sanchez M, Nurden AT, Nurden P, Orive G, Andia I. New insights into and novel applications for platelet-rich fibrin therapies. *Trends Biotechnol* 2006;24:227–34.
72. Ogino Y, Ayukawa Y, Kukita T, Koyano K. The contribution of platelet-derived growth factor, transforming growth factor-beta 1, and insulin-like growth factor-I in platelet-rich plasma to the proliferation of osteoblast-like cells. *Oral Surg Oral Med Oral Pathol Oral Radiol Endod* 2006;101:724–9.
73. Smith AJ. Vitality of the dentin-pulp complex in health and disease: growth factors as key mediators. *J Dent Ed* 2003;67:678–89.
74. Graham I, Cooper PR, Cassidy N, Nor JE, Sloan AJ, Smith AJ. The effect of calcium hydroxide on solubilization of bioactive dentine matrix components. *Biomaterials* 2006;27:2865–73.
75. Sharpe PT, Young CS. Test-tube teeth. *Sci Am* 2005;293:34–41.
76. Helmlinger G, Yuan F, Dellian M, Jain RK. Interstitial pH and pO₂ gradients in solid tumors in vivo: high-resolution measurements reveal a lack of correlation. *Nat Med* 1997;3:177–82.
77. Goncalves SB, Dong Z, Bramante CM, Holland GR, Smith AJ, Nor JE. Tooth slice-based models for the study of human dental pulp angiogenesis. *J Endod* 2007;33:811–4.