

O.V. Kravets¹, V.S. Protsyk²

**RECONSTRUCTION OF THE MANDIBLE IN PATIENTS
WITH MALIGNANT TUMORS OF OROFARYNGEAL AREA**

O.V. Kravets¹, V.S. Protsyk²

¹Municipal institution «Cherkasy Regional Oncology Center»,
Cherkasy

²National Cancer Institute, Kyiv

Summary. This article provides literature overview devoted to the problem of reconstruction of mandible in patients with malignant tumors of oropharyngeal area. Microsurgery achievements, development of new synthetic implants and tissue engineering technologies have significantly increased possibility of replacement of segmental mandibular defects and improved functional and aesthetic results of plastic surgery. Modern methods of mandibular reconstruction have been reviewed and their strengths and weaknesses discussed.

Keywords: mandible, defects, reconstruction.

Address:

Kravets Oleg Volodymyrovych

7 Mendeleeva Street, Cherkasy, Ukraine, 18000

Municipal institution «Cherkasy Regional Oncology Center»,

Tel./fax: (0472) 370123

E-mail: KravetsO.doc@ukr.net

Locally common cancer of the oral cavity and oropharynx, extending to the mandible, primary malignant neoplasm and osteoradionecrosis of the mandible are the main indications for its segmental resection. Since the mandible forms the contour of the lower face, correct occlusal relationship, supports airways, actively participates in the functions of mastication, swallowing and speech, loss of the mandibular continuity leads to significant functional and cosmetic disorders [1,2]. Thereby the aim of surgery is not only a radical removal of a tumor, but also to restore the continuity and anatomical shape of the mandible. Regardless of their cause, most mandibular defects are combined with mucosa defects (cheeks, lips, gums, floor of the mouth, tongue, oropharynx) and soft tissues (muscles, skin) that also require plastic surgery [1, 3, 4].

Classification of segmental defects of the mandible. Several classifications were developed to evaluate mandibular defects. D. David et al in 1988 identified six types of segmental mandibular defects according to their localization (Fig. 1). D. Jewer et al in 1989 developed a classification that takes into account the complexity of the mandible reconstruction (Fig. 2). This classification highlighted: «C» - central defects of the mandible from canine to canine; «L» - lateral defects extending from the midline to the mandibular condyle, not including the latest, "H" – hemi-mandibular defects, including L-defects and the mandibular condyle. Thus, there are the following defect variations of the mandible - C, L, H, LC, HC, LHC, HCL, HH [5]. In

1993, J. Boyd et al modified this classification taking into account related defects of the tongue «t», mucosa «m» and skin «s» [6].

Mandibular reconstruction techniques. Nowadays for plastic reconstruction of segmental mandibular defects used:

- nonvascularized bone grafts;
- myocutaneous-osseous flaps on the vascular pedicle;
- vascularized bone grafts;
- reconstructive plate (RP) in combination with myocutaneous flap;
- synthetic implants;
- tissue engineering technologies.

Nonvascularized bone grafts. Nonvascularized bone grafts are used for reconstruction of small plastic (≤ 6 cm) L-defects of the mandible. Nonvascularized bone graft transplantation is not used for patients who underwent neoadjuvant radiotherapy and have associated mucosal or soft tissue defects. [2, 7]. Crest ilium, fragments of the fibula, ribs and sternum are used for mandibular reconstruction. Among the complications in most cases observed resorption of the graft transplanted without bone regenerate formation and purulence of the graft, which leads to necrosis and rejection. M. Rana et al [8] identified the degree of resorption of various bone grafts during a one-year observation period (Table 1). The frequency of complications according to different authors ranges from 7 to 31%. Many

studies indicate a high risk of osteoradionekrosis of transplanted bone after adjuvant radiation therapy [7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12].

Pedicle myocutaneous-osseous flaps. In 1980, S. Ariyan and C. Cuono reported using myocutaneous flap of pectoralis major muscle with a fragment of the fifth rib for oromandibular reconstructions [13]. The same year, W. Panje presented his experience of using myocutaneous-osseous trapezius flap in 27 patients, and 87% of the transplant cases were successful [14]. Besides the study describes some methods of segmental mandibular defects reconstruction using sternocleidomastoid muscle flap with clavicle and latissimus dorsi with a rib. However, the above mentioned grafts have not been widely used, because they have the following disadvantages: complexity of harvesting, limited arc rotation of the graft, insufficient blood supply to the transplanted bone, limited mobility of a myocutaneous part of the graft relative to the bone; insufficient bone thickness for dental implantation [1, 3].

Vascularized bone grafts. The use of vascularized bone grafts has considerably improved treatment outcomes for patients with significant mandibular and soft tissue defects, particularly after ongoing radiation therapy. Today the most commonly used transplants are:

- fibula;
- iliac crest;
- scapula;
- radial forearm.

These flaps are used as osseous, osteocutaneous and myocutaneous-
osseous autografts. Factors that determine the choice of vascularized bone
autografts and their characteristics are presented in Table 2 [15, 16].

Fibula flap. Fibula flap (FF) is considered to be the best choice in
reconstruction of mandibular segmental defects [1, 2, 15, 16]. Bicortical bone
can be a cut of 26-28 cm in length, which makes it possible to reconstruct
most mandibular defects, including C-defects. Peroneal artery with its
comitant veins is the vascular pedicle of FF. Dual blood supply to the fibula
can safely carry the required number of osteotomies for the most accurate
reconstruction of mandibular shape [17, 18, 19]. F. Wei et al analyzed blood
circulation of lateral surface of the tibia and showed that fasciocutaneous
branches that go through the posterior interfascialis membrane provide
adequate blood supply to the cutaneous paddle of the flap. It allowed to use
FF as an osteocutaneous graft [20]. Reliable cutaneous paddle of FF can be
raised in the lower third of the tibia [21]. Additionally, the flexor hallucis
longus [22] and soleus muscle [23] can be added to FF for reconstruction of
soft tissue defects. It is worth mentioning the possibility of simultaneous work
of two teams of surgeons as it is not necessary to change the position of the
patient during FF harvesting [16, 24]. The important point for further
rehabilitation of patients is that the transplanted fibula is suitable for dental
implantation [25]. The results of mandibular reconstruction using FF are
presented in Table 3.

The role of preoperative angiography is still to be determined. K. Blackwell strongly recommends to perform angiography for patients with peripheral vascular diseases, as well as previous injuries and operations on lower limbs [26]. The need for routine angiography before FF harvesting is still debated [27, 28].

Complications in the donor site after FF harvesting are the following: pain, ankle joint instability, gait instability [29].

Iliac flap. Iliac flap (IF) is a myocutaneous-osseous autograft which includes iliac crest and internal oblique muscle of abdomen. Monocortical bone can be taken up to 12 cm long. Vascular pedicle of IF is deep circumflex iliac vessels. The main advantage of IF is sufficient height and size of the bone suitable for dental implantation. Iliac crest has a natural curvature that allows to reconstruct L-defects of the mandible without osteotomy [30, 31].

Disadvantages of IF are following: myocutaneous graft component is sufficiently massive, non-mobile and often has insufficient blood supply; reconstruction of C-defects of the mandible using this flap is not possible, because of osteotomies leading to blood supply disorders of the bone; insufficient length of vascular pedicle (up to 6 cm) [15, 32].

Complications in the donor site after IF harvesting: pain, postoperative hernia formation, gait disorder and femoral neuropathy [33].

Scapular flap. Scapular flap (SF) may be harvested in the form of myocutaneous-osseous autograft with one or more fasciocutaneous paddles. When reconstructing significant concomitant soft tissue defects latissimus

dorsi is included in the composition of SF [34, 35]. Monocortical bone may be harvested up to 14 cm long. Vascular pedicle of SF is deep circumflex scapular vessels. The advantages of SF is the possibility to use fasciocutaneous paddles which are mobile enough, relatively long vascular pedicle, minimal vessel atherosclerosis, minor disorders in the donor site [1, 34, 36, 37].

Disadvantages of SF are the following: the impossibility of simultaneous work of two teams of surgeons that significantly extends the time of surgery, insufficient segmental blood supply to the lateral scapular border allows for only one osteotomy between circumflex scapular artery and angle branch of the thoracodorsal artery [38]; the thickness of the scapular bone, usually, insufficient for dental implantation [39].

Radial forearm flap. Radial forearm flap (RFF) can be raised in the form of myocutaneous-osseous autograft. Monocortical bone can be harvested up to 12 cm long. The main advantage of RFF is thin, flexible and having reliable blood supply fasciocutaneous paddle that is ideal for reconstruction of soft tissues of the oral cavity and oropharynx [1, 40]. Utilising of RFF for reconstruction of segmental defects of the mandible has the following disadvantages: performing of osteotomies and dental implantation is impossible; high risk of radius fracture in donor site; the need to immobilize the forearm [41, 42]. Considering the advantages and disadvantages of RFF C. Avery recommends using it for small L-defects of the mandible, combined with significant soft tissue defects [43].

Reconstructive plate in combination with myocutaneous flaps.

Independently reconstructive plate (RP) can be used to reconstruct segmental defects of the mandible if no significant concomitant soft tissue defects are present. B. Miles et al note that major complications when utilising the RP is their exposure through the mucous membranes of oral cavity or through the skin out, plate fracture and bridging screws come loose [44]. T. Ettl et al reported experience of treatment of 334 patients with cancer of the oral cavity, who underwent segmental resection of the mandible with reconstruction of RP defects. In 136 patients were observed infectious complications and plate exposure, 7 patients had plate fracture. Thus, complications were observed in 42% of cases. Among the factors that contributed to the development of complications the authors note smoking, preoperative radiotherapy and reconstruction of C-defects of the mandible [45]. D. Coletti et al analyzing the case study of utilising RP in 110 patients reported 36% of complications [46]. P. Maurer et al reported 37% of complications [47]. Early RP exposure is associated with the development of infectious complications and soft tissue necrosis, later exposure is the result of friction between the plate and soft tissues [48]. According to various studies RP fracture ranges from 3 to 16% [48, 49, 50]. This is the evidence that RP does not replace the bone so fracture may occur due to metal fatigue as a result of the lack of bone regeneration [50]. Looseness of bridging screws is associated with the pressure of RP on cortical plate of the mandible, which leads to its resorption and looseness of the screws [51].

To reconstruct segmental defects of the mandible which are combined with mucosal or soft tissue defects reconstructive plates are used in combination with myocutaneous flap. Most commonly used myocutaneous flap of pectoralis major muscle [48, 52], free myocutaneous flap of latissimus dorsi or rectus abdominus muscle are less common [53]. Myocutaneous flap does not only cover the defect of soft tissues, but also prevents reconstructive plate exposure because well-vascularized graft improves tissue nutrition in the recipient zone, thereby increasing the probability of uncomplicated postoperative period [54]. In addition, S. Yokoo et al believe that covering the plate by muscle tissue also prevents its exposure [55]. Frequency and characteristics of complications, according to various studies in reconstruction of oromandibular defects of the mandible are shown in Table 4 [48, 52, 53, 56].

RP in combination with myocutaneous flap is utilised for patients who have contraindications to microsurgical transplantation of bone autografts and for patients at high risk of tumor recurrence [52-54]. Some surgeons give preference to primary reconstruction of segmental defects of the mandible by RP, and further, in the absence of tumor recurrence, conduct delayed bone graft transfer using different methods [50].

Synthetic implants. Nowadays transplantation of vascularized bone autografts is the gold standard of reconstructive-restorative treatment of patients with segmental defects of the mandible [1, 2]. However, besides the advantages, the use of free bone grafting has significant disadvantages:

- complexity and cost of the technique;
- duration of surgery;
- inability to fully restore anatomical shape of the mandible and to perform the arthroplasty;
- complexity of autograft shape modeling;
- functional disorders in the donor site.

Therefore the research on development of new synthetic materials for mandibular reconstruction is continuing nowadays [1]. Should be noted carbon/carbon implants “УГЛЕКОН-М” and “CarBulat” [57, 58]. Implants contain almost pure carbon - carbon fiber, which is connected by pyrocarbon. The material is biocompatible and provides a combination of high mechanical strength with a low modulus of elasticity. The use of carbon/carbon implants for reconstruction of segmental defects of the mandible has the following advantages:

- relative simplicity and low cost of the technique;
- possibility to fully restore anatomical shape of the mandible and quality stomatological rehabilitation;
- no need for additional surgeries to harvest the bone autografts [57, 59, 60].

G. Szabo et al analyzed the long-term results of mandibular reconstruction using carbon/carbon implants «CarBulat» in 16 patients. In 5 of 16 patients was observed intraoral implant exposure. Plate fracture, bridging screws looseness and inflammation around the carbon/carbon

implants were not observed. The authors report good functional and cosmetic outcome of the reconstruction [58]. The research has also shown that the structure and morphology of the implant in the human body has not changed in 8 years after the implantation [61].

Tissue engineering technologies. In 1971, M. Urist introduced the term "osteinduction." He identified osteinduction as the ability to induce ectopic osteogenesis, ie bone formation in soft tissue. He proved that the bone morphogenetic proteins (BMPs) have this effect. The development of genetic engineering allowed to synthesize recombinant molecules of different types of BMPs groups, particularly - rhBMP-2, rhOP-1, utilisation of which allowed to obtain the standard process of osteogenesis in experimental and clinical settings [62, 63, 64].

P. Warnke et al for mandibular reconstruction used titanium mesh, which was filled with blocks of inorganic bone and infiltrated with rhOP-1 and bone marrow cells. This structure was implanted under the latissimus dorsi. After 7 weeks prefabricated graft together with latissimus dorsi was transferred to the defect site of the mandible, revascularized and fixed by titanium screws. Postoperative osteoradioscintigraphy showed viability of the bone graft [65].

A. Herford et presented the practice of reconstruction of large defects of the mandible using rhBMP-2 on collagen carrier and titanium mesh in 14 patients. In all cases achieved complete bone formation and high levels of functional rehabilitation. Radiologic indications of a newly formed bone

appeared in 5-6 months after the reconstruction [65]. The authors believe that this technique is an alternative to different variations of bone autografting [66, 67].

In most known studies for mandibular reconstruction rhBMP-2 were used. C. Clokie and G. Sandor for reconstruction of segmental defects of the mandible utilised rhBMP-7 [68]. A collagen sponge was used as a carrier of the BMPs, which slowly releases them over a period of osteogenesis. Unfortunately, collagen sponge can be easily deformed under the pressure of the soft tissues, therefore titanium mesh should be used to protect the place in which bone is formed. Development of new carriers with better structural stability will solve the mentioned problem. Adding fillers - demineralized bone matrix and autogenous bone is recommended for improving the osteoconductive effect [69, 70]. The study overview that examined the use of the BMPs to reconstruct segmental defects of the mandible is shown in Table 5 [64, 65, 67, 68, 70]. There are treatment results of 37 patients with segmental defects of the mandible published to date. In 32 (86.5%) patients reconstruction was successful, in 5 (13.5%) – attaining of adequate bone formation failed. Based on the small number of observations it is not possible to conclude that BMPs can replace bone autografts. Future clinical studies will determine the true effectiveness of this technique [70].

CONCLUSIONS

Vascularized bone graft transplantation was introduced in the last decade and has significantly improved the results of reconstructive treatment

of segmental defects of the mandible. Application of nonvascularized bone, pedicled myocutaneous-osseous flaps and reconstructive plates in combination with myocutaneous flaps is optional in some clinical situations. Development of new synthetic implants and implementation of tissue engineering technologies will increase the range of techniques for reconstruction of mandibular defects in the nearest future.

REFERENCES

1. Cannon T.Y., Strub G.M., Yawn R.J. et al. (2012) Oromandibular Reconstruction. *Clin. Anat.*, 25: 108–119.
2. Chim H., Salgano C.J., Mardini S. et al. (2010) Reconstruction of Mandibular Defects. *Semin Plast. Surg.*, 24: 188–197.
3. Stosic S., Anđelic G. (2011) Current «Cold Standart» and future procedures in manibular reconstruction. *Med. Data*, 3(2): 169–177.
4. Tacushima A., Harii K., Asato H. et al. (2001) Mandibular reconstruction using microvascular free flaps: a statistical analysis of 178 cases. *Plast. Reconstr. Surg.*, 108: 1555–1563.
5. Jewer D.D., Boyd J.B., Manktelow R.T. et al. (1989) Orofacial and mandibular reconstruction with the iliac crest free flap: a review of 60 cases and a new method of classification. *Plast. Reconstr. Surg.*, 84: 391–403.
6. Hidalgo D.A., Pusic A.L. (2002) Free-flap mandibular reconstruction: 10-year follow-up study. *Plast. Reconstr. Surg.*, 110: 438–449.

7. Poqrel M.A., Podlesh S., Anthony J.P. et al. (1997) A comparison of vascularized and nonvascularized bone grafts for reconstruction of mandibular continuity defects. *J. Oral Maxillofac. Surg.*, 55(11): 1200– 1206.
8. Rana M., Warraich R., Kokemüller H. et al. (2011) Reconstruction of mandibular defects-clinical retrospective research over a 10-year period. *Head & Neck Oncol.*, 3: 23.
9. van Gemert J.T., van Es R.J., van Cann EM. et al. (2009) Nonvascularized bone grafts for segmental reconstruction of the mandible – a reappraisal. *J. Oral Maxillofac. Surg.*, 67: 1446–1452.
10. Foster R.D., Anthony J.P., Sharma A. et al. (1999) Vascularized bone flaps versus nonvascularized bone grafts for mandibular reconstruction: an outcome analysis of primary bony union and endosseous implant success. *Head Neck*, 21: 66–71.
11. Szpindor E. (1995) Evaluation of the usefulness of autogenic bone grafts in reconstruction of the mandible. *Ann. Acad. Med. Stetin*, 41: 155–169.
12. Chiapasco M., Colletti G., Romeo E. et al. (2008) Long-term results of mandibular reconstruction with autogenous bone grafts and oral implants after tumor resection. *Clin. Oral. Implants*, 10: 1074–1080.
13. Ariyan S., Cuono C.B. (1980) Myocutaneous Flaps for Head and Neck Reconstruction. *Head Neck Surg.*, 2(4): 321–345.

14. Panje W., Cutting C. (1980) Trapezius osteomyocutaneous island flap for reconstruction of the anterior floor of the mouth and the mandible. *Head Neck Surg.*, 3(1) 66–71.
15. Goh B., Lee S., Tideman H. (2008) Mandibular reconstruction in adults: a review. *J. Oral. Maxillofac. Surg.*, 37: 597–605.
16. Wehage I., Fansa H. (2011) Complex reconstruction in head and neck cancer surgery: decision making. *Head & Neck Oncology*. 3: 1–14.
17. Hidalgo D.A. (1991) Aesthetic improvements in free flap mandible reconstruction. *Plast. and Reconstr. Surg.*, 4: 574–585.
18. Wei F.C., Seah C.S., Tsai Y.C. et al. (1994) Fibula osteoseptocutaneous flap for reconstruction of composite mandibular defects. *Plast. Reconstr. Surg.*, 93: 294–304.
19. Bähr W. (1998) Blood supply of small fibula segments: and experimental study on human cadavers. *J. Craniomaxillofac. Surg.*, 3: 148–152.
20. Wei F.C., Chen H.C., Chuang C.C. et al. (1996) Fibular osteoseptocutaneous flap: anatomic study and clinical application. *Plast. Reconstr. Surg.*, 2: 191–200.
21. Yu P., Chang E.I., Hanasono M.M. (2011) Design of a reliable skin paddle for the fibula osteocutaneous flap: perforator anatomy revisited. *Plast. Reconstr. Surg.*, 128: 440–446.
22. Hidalgo D.A., Rekow A. (1995) A review of 60 consecutive fibula free flap mandible reconstructions. *Plast. Reconstr. Surg.*, 96: 585–596.

23. Wong C.H., Ong Y.S., Chew K.Y. et al. (2009) The fibula osteosepotocutaneous flap incorporating flap incorporating the hemisoleus muscle for complex head and neck defects: anatomical study and clinical applications. *Plast. Reconstr. Surg.*, 124: 1956–1964.

24. Mojallal A., Besse J.L., Breton P. (2004) Donor site morbidity after free fibula flap. Report of 42 consecutive cases. *Ann. Chir. Plast. Esthet.*, 49: 3–10.

25. Chang Y.M., Chana J.S., Wei F. C. (2003) Osteotomy to treat malocclusion following reconstruction of the mandible with the free fibula flap. *Plast. Reconstr. Surg.*, 1: 31–36.

26. Blackwell K.E. (1998) Donor site evaluation for fibula free flap transfer. *Am J. Otolaryngol.*, 19: 89–95.

27. Ahmad N., Kordestani R., Panchal J. et al. (2007) The role of donor site angiography before mandibular reconstruction utilizing free flap. *J. Reconstr. Microsurg.* 23: 199–204.

28. Kelly A.M., Cronin P., Hussain H.K. et al. (2007) Preoperative MR angiography in free fibula flap transfer for head and neck cancer: clinical application and influence on surgical decision making. *AJR Am J. Roentgenol.* 188: 268–274.

29. Bodde E.W., Visser E., Duysens J.E. et al. (2003) Donorsite morbidity after free vascularized autogenous fibular transfer: subjective and quantitative analyses. *Plast. Reconstr. Surg.*, 111: 2237–2242.

30. Boyd J.B. (1994) The place of iliac crest in vascularized oromandibular reconstruction. *Microsurgery*. 15: 250–256.
31. Takushima A., Harii K., Asato H. et al. (2005) Choice of osseous and osteocutaneous flaps for mandibular reconstruction. *Int. J. Clin. Oncol.* 10: 234–242.
32. Gabr E.M., Kobayashi M.R., Salibian A.H. et al. (2004) Oromandibular reconstruction with vascularized free flaps: A review of 50 cases. *Microsurgery*. 24: 374–377.
33. Forrest C., Boyd B., Manktelow R. et al. (1992) The free vascularized iliac crest tissue transfer: Donor site complications associated with eighty-two cases. *Br. J. Plast. Surg.*, 45: 89–93.
34. Aviv J.E., Urken M.L., Vickery C. et al. (1991) The combined latissimus dorsi-scapular free flap in head and neck reconstruction. *Arch. Otolaryngol. Head. Neck. Surg.*, 117: 1242–1250.
35. Valentini V., Gennaro P., Torroni A. et al. (2009) Scapula free flap for complex maxillofacial reconstruction. *J. Craniofac. Surg.*, 20(4): 1125–1131.
36. Smith R.B., Henstrom D.K., Karnell L.H. et al. (2007) Scapula osteocutaneous free flap reconstruction of the head and neck: impact of flap choice on surgical and medical complications. *Head. Neck.*, 29(5): 446–452.
37. Coleman S.C., Burkey B.B., Day T.A. et al. (2000) Increasing use of the scapula osteocutaneous free flap. *Laryngoscope*. 110: 1419–1424.

38. Coleman J.J., Sultan M.R. (1991) The bipediced osteocutaneous scapula flap: a new subscapular system free flap. *Plast. Reconstr. Surg.*, 87: 682–692.
39. Hanasono M., Skoracki R. (2010) The scapular tip osseous free flap as an alternative for anterior mandibular reconstruction. *Plast. & Reconstr. Surg.*, 4: 164–166.
40. Villaret D.B., Futran N.A. (2003) The indications and outcomes in the use of osteocutaneous radial forearm free flap. *Head. Neck.* 25: 475–481.
41. Mounsey R.A., Boyd J.B. (1994) Mandibular reconstruction with osseointegrated implants into the free vascularized radius. *Plast. Reconstr. Surg.*, 94: 457–464.
42. Thoma A., Khadaroo R., Grigenas O. et al. (1999) Oromandibular reconstruction with the radial-forearm osteocutaneous flap: experience with 60 consecutive cases. *Plast. Reconstr. Surg.*, 104: 368–378.
43. Avery C.M. (2010) Review of the radial free flap: still evolving or facing extinction? Part two: osteocutaneous radial free flap. *Br. J. Oral. Maxillofac. Surg.*, 48(4): 253–260.
44. Miles B.A., Goldstein D.P., Gilbert R.W. et al. (2010) Mandible reconstruction. *Curr. Opin. Otolaryngol. Head Neck Surg.*, 18: 317–322.
45. Ettl T., Driemel O., Dresch B.V. et al. (2010) Feasibility of alloplastic mandibular reconstruction in patients following removal of oral squamous cell carcinoma. *J. Craniomax. Surg.*, 38: 350–354.

46. Coletti D.P., Ord R., Liu X. (2009) Mandibular reconstruction and second generation locking reconstruction plates: outcome of 110 patients. *Int. J. Oral. Maxillofac. Surg.*, 38: 960–963.
47. Maurer P., Eckert A.W., Kriwalsky M.S. et al. (2010) Scope and limitations of methods of mandibular reconstruction: A long-term follow-up. *Br. J. Oral. Maxillofac. Surg.*, 48: 100–104.
48. Salvatori P., Motto E., Paradisi S. et al. (2007) Oromandibular reconstruction using titanium plate and pectoralis major myocutaneous flap. *Acta Otorhinolaryngologica Italica.* 27: 227–232.
49. Shibahara T., Noma H., Furuya Y. et al. (2002) Fracture of mandibular reconstruction plates used after tumor resection. *J. Oral. Maxillofac. Surg.*, 60: 182–185.
50. Gellrich N.C., Suarez-Cunqueiro M.M., Otero-Cepeda X.L. et al. (2004) Comparative study of locking plates in mandibular reconstruction after ablative tumour surgery: THORP Vs. UniLOCK system. *J. Oral. Maxillofac. Surg.*, 62: 186–193.
51. Yi Z., Jian-Gou Z, Guang-Yan Y. et al. (1999) Reconstruction plates to bridge mandibular defects: a clinical and experimental investigation in biomechanical aspects. *Int. J. Oral. Maxillofac. Surg.*, 28: 445–450.
52. El-Zohairy M., Mostafa A., Amin A. et al. (2009) Mandibular reconstruction using pectoralis major myocutaneous flap and titanium plates after ablative surgery for locally advanced tumors of the oral cavity. *J. of the Egyptian Nat. Canc. Inst.*, 21(4): 299–307.

53. Poli T., Ferrari S., Bianchi B. et al. (2003) Primary oromandibular reconstruction using free flaps and thorp plates in cancer patients: a 5-year experience. *Head Neck*. 25: 15–23.

54. Kiyokawa K., Tai Y., Inoue Y. et al. (2001) Reliable, minimally invasive oromandibular reconstruction using metal plate rolled with pectoralis major myocutaneous flap. *J. Craniofac. Surg.*, 12: 326–336.

55. Yokoo S., Komori T., Furudo S. et al. (2003) Indications for vascularized free rectus abdominis musculocutaneous flap in oromandibular region in terms of efficiency of anterior rectus sheath. *Microsurgery*. 23: 96–102.

56. Harsha G., Reddy S., Talasila S. et al. (2012) Mandibular reconstruction using AO/ASIF stainless steel reconstruction plate: a retrospective study of 36 cases. *J. of contemp. dent. pract.*, 13(1): 75–79.

57. Кислых Ф.И., Штраубе Г.И., Рапекта С.И. (2004) Пластика дефектов челюстей с применением имплантатов из углеродного композиционного материала «Углекон-М». *Анналы пласт., рекон. и эстет. хир.* 4-С.: 88–89.

58. Szabó G., Brabás J., Németh Z. et al. (2012) Carbon/ carbon implants in oral and maxillofacial surgery – Part 1. *Orv. Hetil.*, 153(7): 257–262.

59. Кислых Ф.И., Рогожников Г.И., Оленёв Л.М. (2006) Использование современных конструкционных материалов при

хирургическом и ортопедическом лечении больных с дефектами челюстей. Вестн. рос. акад. естествен. наук. 3: 37–41.

60. Анциферов В.Н., Рогожников Г.И., Кислых Ф.И. и др. (2009) Применение современных реконструкционных материалов при комплексном лечении больных с дефектами челюстно-лицевой области. Перспективные материалы. 3: 46–51.

61. Sebők B., Kiss G., Szabó P.L. et al. (2012) Carbon/ carbon implants in oral and maxillofacial surgery – Part 2. Orv. Hetil. 153(19): 744–750.

62. Seto I., Marukawa E., Asahina I. (2006) Mandibular reconstruction using a combination graft of rhBMP-2 with bone marrow cells expanded in vitro. Plast. Reconstr. Surg., 117: 902–908.

63. Wilmowsky C., Schwarz S., Kerl J.M. et al. (2010) Reconstruction of a mandibular defect with autogenous, autoclaved bone grafts and tissue engineering: an in vivo pilot study. J. Biomed. Mater. Res. 93: 1510–1518.

64. Carter T., Brar P., Tolas A. et al. (2008) Off-label use of recombinant human bone morphogenetic protein-2 (rhBMP-2) for reconstruction of mandibular bone defects in humans. J. Oral. Maxillofac. Surg., 66: 1417–1425.

65. Warnke P.H., Springer I.N., Wiltfang J. et al. (2004) Growth and transplantation of a custom vascularised bone graft in a man. Lancet. 364: 766–770.

66. Herford A.S., Boyne P.J. (2008) Reconstruction of mandibular continuity defects with bone morphogenetic protein-2 (rhBMP-2). *J. Oral. Maxillofac. Surg.*, 66: 616–624.

67. Herford A.S. (2009) RhBMP-2 as an option for reconstructing mandibular continuity defects. *J. Oral. Maxillofac. Surg.*, 67(12): 2679–2684.

68. Clokie C.M.L., Sandor G.K.B. (2008) Reconstruction of 10 major mandibular defects using bioimplants containing BMP-7. *J. Canad. Dent. Associat.*, 74(1): 67–72.

69. Ciccì M., Herford A.S., Stoffella E. et al. (2012) Protein- signaled guided bone regeneration using titanium mesh and rh-BMP2 in Oral Surgery: a case report involving left mandibular reconstruction after tumor resection. *J. Open Dentistry*. 6: 51–55.

70. Herford A.S., Ciccì M. (2010) Recombinant human bone morphogenetic protein type 2 jaw reconstruction in patients affected by giant cell tumor. *J. Craniofac. Surg.*, 21(6): 1970–1975.