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Cementum Regeneration: How Far Have We Come?

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Abstract:

Gingivitis is a prevalent disease which is characterized by swollen and bleeding gums [5]. If left untreated, it can lead to the destruction of the supporting framework of the tooth called the bone-periodontal ligament-cementum complex or periodontal complex [6]. Inflammation of this complex is called periodontitis which if not halted results in lose or lost teeth [6]. Regeneration of periodontium lost as a result of periodontitis is essential to prevent tooth loss. The complexity of the PDL apparatus makes its complete and functional regeneration challenging to achieve [3]. The transplantation of periodontal ligament stem cells into the periodontal defect has been shown to form periodontal ligament fibers similar to the natural periodontal ligament fibers without any adverse effects [100-102]. Alveolar bone regeneration has been successfully stimulated using different bone grafts and biomaterials [104,105]. Cementum is the least understood of all the structures in the periodontal complex [6]. Its regeneration, therefore, is a challenge. This review aims at analyzing how far have we been able to understand cementum or cementogenesis to be able to regenerate or engineer it. For successful regeneration of cementum, the important factors which are prerequisites to understanding its multifactorial nature should be taken into account. Cementoblastic progenitor selection and the possibility of involvement of specific integrins and signalling events in their recruitment has since created enigma about the mechanism of cementogenesis [16,18,19]. Here we are going to explore how far we have come in understanding these enigmatic factors in the light of recent research in the field. This review also explores the role of stem cells and scaffolds in cementum tissue engineering.

Introduction:

Gum disease or gingivitis is a prevalent disease which is characterized by swollen and bleeding gums [5]. If left untreated, it can cause the destruction of the supporting framework of the tooth [5]. This supporting framework holding the tooth in jaw is called the bone-periodontal ligament-cementum complex or periodontal complex [6]. Inflammation of this complex is called periodontitis, which is the sixth most prevalent disease worldwide [2]. If this inflammation is not halted, it destroys the complex and results in loose or lost teeth [6]. Regeneration of periodontium lost as a result of periodontitis is essential to prevent tooth loss.

Several procedures are available to regenerate the periodontium. These include non-surgical therapies such as scaling and root planing and surgical treatments such as guided tissue regeneration [1,97]. In severe cases, teeth are lost and are replaced with artificial teeth in the form of implants or bridges [1]. These artificial treatment options provide a temporary relief [1].

For the long term permanent relief, recently a lot of work has been dedicated to the regeneration and tissue engineering of the periodontal complex to be used as a natural way to re-functionalize the tooth after loss of its supporting structure due to periodontitis. The complexity of the PDL apparatus makes its complete and functional regeneration challenging to achieve [3]. To develop such a treatment, all components of the periodontal complex must be regenerated [102,103]. One of these is cementum which is the mineralized tissue covering the root of the tooth into which periodontal ligament (PDL) fibers insert on one end and the bone in which periodontal ligament fibers insert on the other end. The transplantation of periodontal ligament stem cells into the periodontal defect has been shown to form periodontal ligament fibers similar to the natural periodontal ligament fibers without any adverse effects [100-102]. Alveolar bone regeneration has been successfully stimulated using different bone grafts and biomaterials [104,105].

The formation of cementum, however, is essential for the attachment of periodontal ligament fibers to the root surface of the tooth. Cementum is the least understood of all the structures in the periodontal complex [6]. Its regeneration, therefore, is a challenge. This review aims at analyzing how far have we been able to understand cementum or cementogenesis to be able to regenerate or engineer it.

Cementum in periodontitis:

In early and moderate periodontal disease, the coronal/ upper half of the root is affected. This part is covered by acellular extrinsic fiber cementum (AEFC) [96]. In advanced lesions, the damage extends to apical/ lower part of root which is covered by cellular intrinsic fiber cementum (CIFC) [96]. There is a constant deposition of CFIC as a compensation of occlusal abrasion (Fig. 1.) [4]. However, in periodontitis the periodontal attachment is affected, which is provided by AEFC [4]. Though both types are produced by cementoblasts but a lack of cells in the acellular cementum limits its regenerative capacity [4].

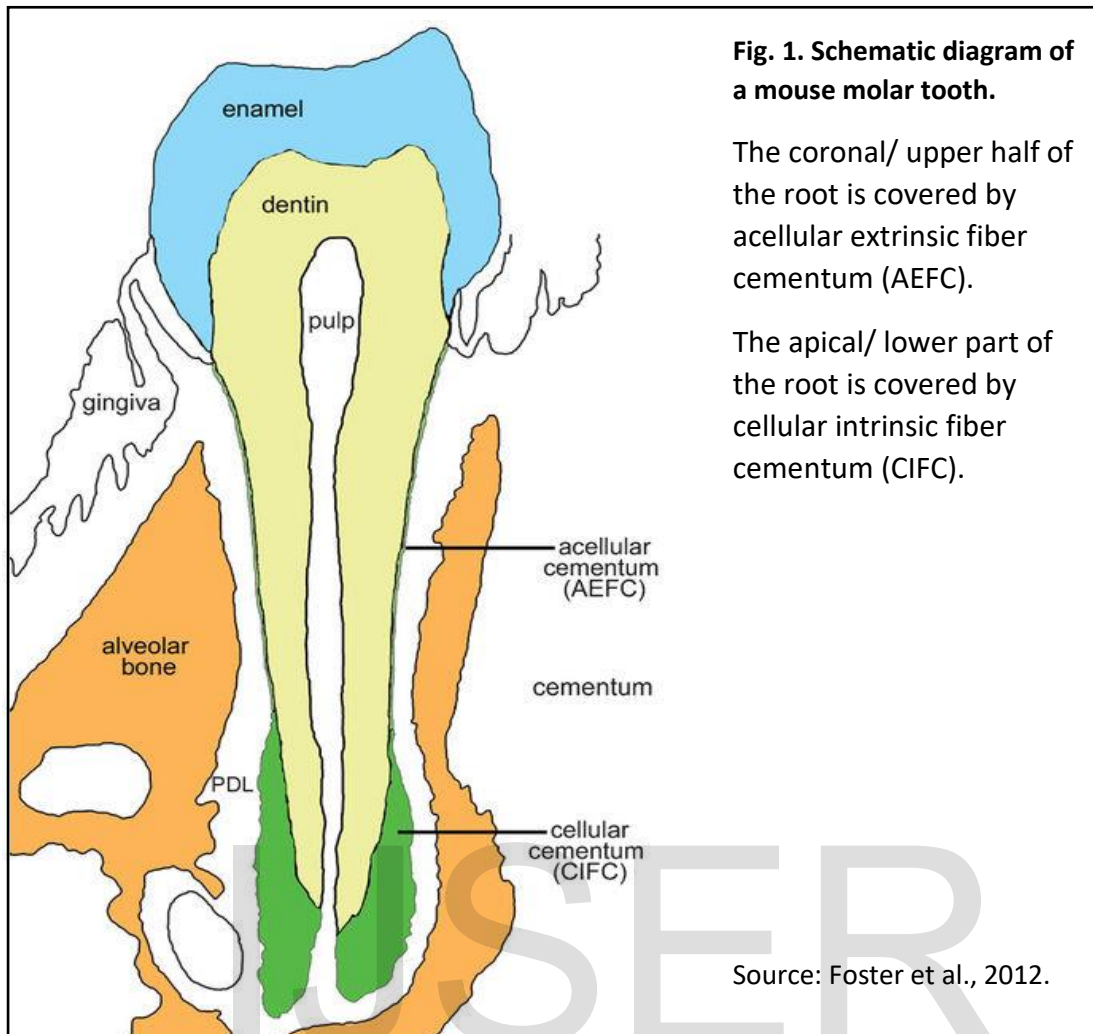


Fig. 1. Schematic diagram of a mouse molar tooth.

The coronal/ upper half of the root is covered by acellular extrinsic fiber cementum (AEFC).

The apical/ lower part of the root is covered by cellular intrinsic fiber cementum (CIFC).

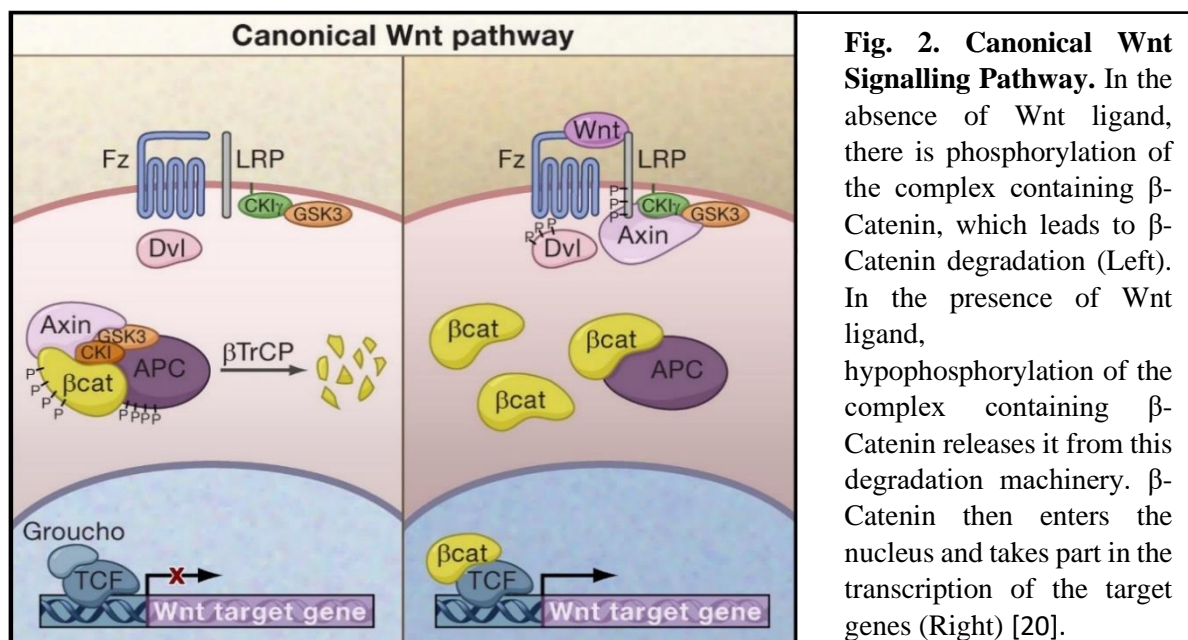
Source: Foster et al., 2012.

Homeostasis of cementum and PDL:

The understanding of the factors contributing to maintaining the normal physiological environment of cementum and PDL can give us an insight in to achieving this homeostasis during regeneration.

The Wnt/ β -catenin signalling pathway also called Canonical Wnt signalling pathway [20,76] has been shown to maintain homeostasis of PDL [21]. This is an intercellular cell signalling pathway which has been shown to play crucial role in regulating differentiation, proliferation and death of many cell types [77-79]. It employs a receptor and a ligand [20]. The receptor gets activated by the ligand. This results in an accumulation of β -catenin in the cytoplasm which is then translocated into the nucleus where it takes part in the transcription of target genes by interacting with Tcf/Lef sites (Fig. 2.) [20]. A study concluded that PDL is a Wnt-dependent tissue and that cellular fibrillar cementum is depleted in the absence of Wnt-signalling [21]. Other studies have demonstrated that an increased canonical Wnt signalling expression causes an increase in the formation of cementum [111] and vice versa [112]. This finding is a huge leap forward as this pathway has not only been shown to take part in homeostasis of several organs but is now also being considered as a major target in repair and regeneration of

tissues [80]. Recently several studies have demonstrated its pronounced involvement in cementum regeneration during tissue engineering and has been covered in this review in detail in light of these studies [22,27,36,37,43,45].



A study demonstrated that extracellular matrix (ECM) of cementum plays a vital role in maintaining physiological integrity of cementum and PDL [6]. It contains growth factors such as insulin-like growth factor (IGF), fibroblast growth factor (FGF) and bone morphogenetic proteins (BMPs) which form the basis of activities of different periodontal cell types [98,99]. The ECM proteins take part in crystal growth and regulation of mineralization [7]. The homeostasis of inorganic pyrophosphate (PP_i) in ECM (Fig. 3.) plays an important role in regulating mineralization of acellular cementum [7]. In mice deficient in PP_i the acellular cementum was found to have increased in thickness and its matrix composition was altered [7]. Pyrophosphate has been shown to regulate cementoblastic mineralization [7]. After initiation of cementogenesis, cementoblasts associated with AEFC mineralization were shown to express PP_i regulators [7]. One of these regulators is alkaline phosphatase (ALP) which plays an important role in regulating mineralization by transferring phosphate groups from the cells to the matrix [7,84-86].

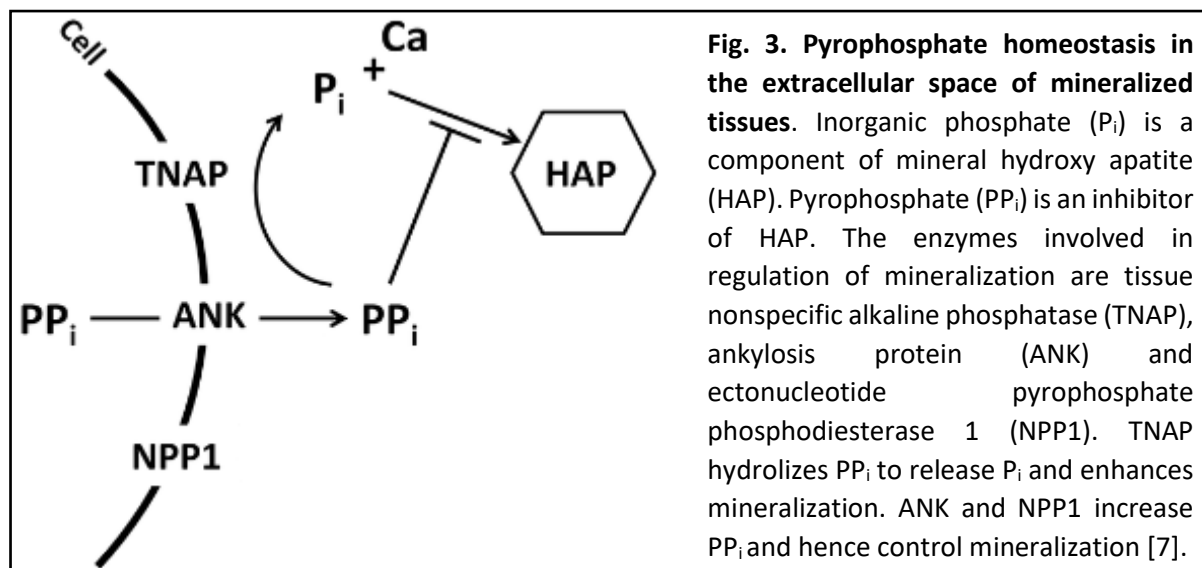


Fig. 3. Pyrophosphate homeostasis in the extracellular space of mineralized tissues. Inorganic phosphate (P_i) is a component of mineral hydroxy apatite (HAP). Pyrophosphate (PP_i) is an inhibitor of HAP. The enzymes involved in regulation of mineralization are tissue nonspecific alkaline phosphatase (TNAP), ankylosis protein (ANK) and ectonucleotide pyrophosphate phosphodiesterase 1 (NPP1). TNAP hydrolyzes PP_i to release P_i and enhances mineralization. ANK and NPP1 increase PP_i and hence control mineralization [7].

PDL has been shown to supply progenitor cells to maintain homeostasis of the periodontal tissues [61]. Osteonectin is a collagen binding protein which was found to play an important role in maintaining homeostasis of collagenous ECM of PDL where clear alterations in collagen fiber content and morphology were seen in osteonectin-null mice [56]. Collagen homeostasis is crucial to maintaining healthy PDL [56].

Challenges and triumphs in cementum regeneration:

For successful regeneration of cementum, the important factors which are prerequisites to understanding its multifactorial nature should be taken into account. These factors include the unique composition of extracellular matrix of cementum, its poorly understood developmental regulation and our poor understanding of differentiation of the cementum forming cells called cementoblasts. Cementoblastic progenitor selection and the possibility of involvement of specific integrins and signalling events in their recruitment has since created enigma about the mechanism of cementogenesis [16,18,19]. Here we are going to explore how far we have come in understanding these enigmatic factors in the light of recent research in the field.

1. Extracellular matrix of cementum:

In periodontal disease, the structural integrity of the extracellular matrix of cementum and its biochemical composition is severely compromised [6]. More over the provisional matrix that is generated during healing has a different composition [6]. Hence, in order to generate new cementum for PDL fibers attachment, local environment must be favorable for the recruitment and functioning of cementum-forming cells. Therefore, the wound matrix should be rendered conducive for cementum repair. Though cementum is a mineralized tissue, its physiology, however, is one of its kind and it contains unique molecules that have not been detected in other tissues [6].

Inorganic pyrophosphate is the naturally occurring inhibitor of mineralization in extracellular matrix of mineralized tissues [7]. The acellular cementum is the mineralized type of cementum. This acellular cementum has been shown to be exceptionally sensitive to regulation of pyrophosphate [7]. The Foster and Nagatomo et al., 2012 group demonstrated in their experiment that in mice deficient in extracellular inorganic pyrophosphate, an increase in acellular cementum deposition was seen however there was no change in the composition of cellular cementum, nor in the PDL tissue and dentine, which shows that inorganic pyrophosphate is unique to acellular cementum in the periodontal complex [7].

For a long time, efforts have been made to prepare root surfaces that would allow cell attachment and hence periodontal regeneration. Identifying important attachment proteins expressed in cementum matrix can help us in developing effective clinical treatments. A study showed that an adhesion molecule called bone sialoprotein (BSP) was expressed by cells lining the root surface of murine molar tooth germs [13,14,46]. It was suggested that this protein might be involved in differentiation of cementoblasts and early mineralization of cementum matrix [13,14,46].

Osteopontin (OPN) is another adhesion molecule that was found to be localized to non-mineralized tissues which might suggest that it has a role in mineralization inhibition and that BSP and OPN are somehow collectively involved in regulating cementogenesis [13]. It was also localized intracellularly in cementoblasts [53]. Osteocalcin (OCN) is a non-collagenous protein hormone which was found to play significant role in cementogenesis [51]. It is a prominent component of cellular cementum [53,54]. SPARC/ Osteonectin (ONN) is a protein which is concerned with regulating the cell adhesion to the extracellular matrix [55]. Cellular cementum of rat showed intense expression of mRNA for ONN [54]. ONN is also found in PDL and alveolar bone, hence it is an important protein to be taken into consideration for regenerating periodontal attachment lost due to periodontitis [56].

2. Developmental regulation of cementum:

The developmental regulation of cementum is poorly understood and hence has hampered efforts of its regeneration [7].

As cementum is essential for appropriate maturation of the periodontium, a lack of cementum markers is another major challenge in understanding the molecular mechanisms that regulate periodontal regeneration [10]. A study, however, identified and characterized cementum protein 23 (CP-23) that appeared to be PDL and cementum-specific [10]. The study found that CP-23 was localized to the cementoid matrix of cementum throughout the entire root surface and that 98% of the cementoblasts and 15% of the PDL cells expressed this marker [10]. This novel human expressed gene might be helpful to better understand the cellular and molecular events that regulate the process of cementogenesis [10].

Cementum attachment protein (*CAP*) is another putative cementoblast marker alongwith CP23 [11]. This protein has been shown to promote migration and attachment of human alveolar bone cells and human periodontal cells onto root surface. Hence, cementum attachment protein seems to play a crucial role in cementogenesis [12].

Cementum matrix protein 1 (*CEMP1*) is a cementum molecule expressed by cementoblasts, some PDL cell subpopulations and mesenchymal stem cells located in the paravascular region of the PDL [24]. This protein is a human cementoblastoma derived marker of cementogenic differentiation and it has been shown to increase the expression of *CAP* when transfected to human gingival fibroblasts [24].

3. Differentiation of cementoblasts:

The cells that form the cementum are called cementoblasts. Their function is to deposit and mineralize the matrix of cementum [50]. Their origin and the molecular factors responsible for their recruitment and differentiation are not fully understood [6]. Dental follicle cells have been shown to differentiate into cementoblasts in response to stimuli from epithelial components [8]. It has been shown that BMP-2 induces these cells towards cementoblastic phenotype [107]. The Liu et al., 1997 suggested that PDL may be the source of cementoblast progenitors [16]. Bar-kana et al., 1998 demonstrated that cells cultured from human PDL formed cementum-like mineralized nodules and showed cementum-specific markers [17]. It was suggested in a study that cementoblasts may be derived from stem cells in the PDL, gingiva and alveolar bone [6].

The role of *CEMP1* in cementoblastic differentiation of PDL stem cells was explored by a study done in 2012 [47]. It was demonstrated that its over-expression increases differentiation of PDL stem cells to cementoblastic phenotype and reduces their differentiation towards periodontal and osteoblastic lineages [47].

Cementum and bone are similar mineralized tissues and hence cementoblasts and osteoblasts have number of similar characteristics [91,92]. Both of these tissues express BSP, OCN and OPN [91,92]. Cementum, however, lacks vasculature and innervation [91,92]. Prostaglandin E₂ (PGE₂) receptor and its signalling pathway has been used as a target for therapeutic utility in treating various bone diseases [93]. A study demonstrated its role in cementoblastic differentiation in OCCM 30 mouse cell line [94]. The results showed that PGE₂ decreased proliferation of cementoblasts and increased activity of ALP and BSP [94]. Hence it might imply that it has a regulatory role in cementogenesis. Sclerostin is a small protein marked by *SOST* gene which is an inhibitor of osteoblastic activity and hence bone formation [87]. Its effect on proliferation and differentiation of cementoblasts was demonstrated by Bao et al., 2013. The results indicated that it not only inhibits the cementoblastic proliferation and differentiation but also increases their apoptosis [88]. Sclerostin inhibitors have been shown to increase bone formation and decrease its resorption [87]. Strontium, in this regard, has been used to treat bone resorption diseases [89]. The effect of strontium on cementoblasts was investigated in 2014 as an inhibitor of sclerostin [90]. Strontium was found to inhibit sclerostin in cementoblasts in vitro and facilitated cementogenesis by promoting

differentiation of cementoblasts [90]. Strontium had been previously considered as a potential agent for cementum regeneration. It was incorporated into a mesoporous glass scaffold seeded with PDL stem cells where it induced cementogenic differentiation of these cells with enhanced expression of cementogenesis-related genes including *CEMP1* [35].

Osterix (*Osx*) is a transcriptional factor which is essential for osteogenesis [83]. Investigations regarding its role in cementogenesis revealed that cementoblasts have a mesenchymal origin and hence this factor has a primary role in the formation of cellular cementum [42]. In a later study, *Osx* over-expression in cementoblasts was found to not only upregulate expression of cementogenesis markers such as OPN, OCN and BSP but also *DKK1* which is a canonical Wnt antagonist [43]. It was hence concluded that *Osx* enhances cementoblastic proliferation and differentiation by downregulation of canonical Wnt signalling expression [43]. Another study demonstrated that transforming growth factor beta (TGF- β) signalling pathway [48,82] is an upstream regulator of *Osx* in maintaining differentiation of cementoblasts and formation of cellular cementum through a Smad-dependent pathway [49]. It is a canonical signalling pathway which employs a receptor and a ligand (Fig. 4.). *Osx* expression was found to be decreased in a TGF- β receptor II (T β RII) lacking mouse cementoblast cell line OCCM-30 [49]. In these cells, activity of ALP and expression of cementogenesis related genes was decreased [49]. ALP is considered as an early marker of cementoblastic differentiation [84]. The cells also had an abnormal phenotype and were partially rescued by transduction of *Osx* [49]. In-vivo, in *osteocalcin-Cre* mediated *Tgfb2* conditional knockout mice, which lack functional T β RII, a sharp reduction was seen in cellular cementum, matrix secretion and mineral apposition rates [49]. Hence, TGF- β signalling pathway appears to play a major role in cementoblastic differentiation and cementum formation [49].

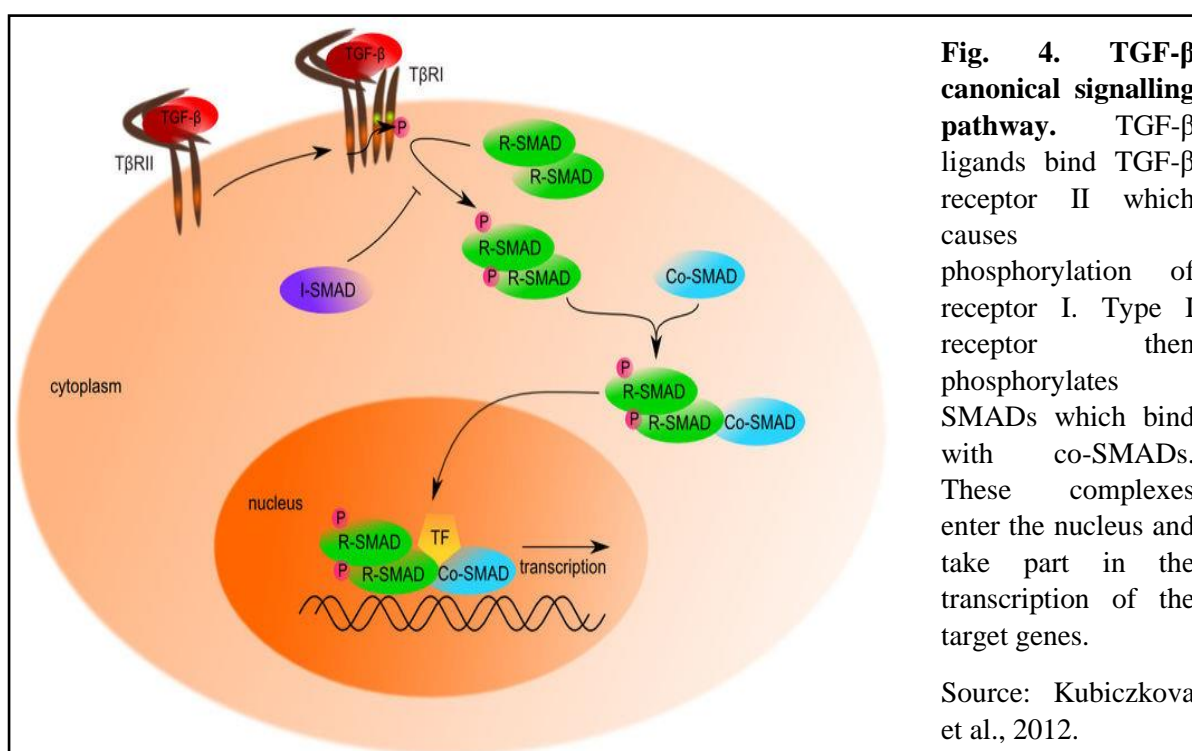


Fig. 4. TGF- β canonical signalling pathway. TGF- β ligands bind TGF- β receptor II which causes phosphorylation of receptor I. Type I receptor then phosphorylates SMADs which bind with co-SMADs. These complexes enter the nucleus and take part in the transcription of the target genes.

Source: Kubiczkova et al., 2012.

BMP-2 is a member of TGF- β superfamily [106]. It has been shown to enhance cementoblastic differentiation [107, 108]. BMP-signalling pathways in cementoblasts have been shown to downregulate canonical Wnt signalling expression by activation of Wnt/ β -Catenin inhibitors: Dkk1 and sclerostin [109,110]. However, as already mentioned by Bao et al., 2013 that sclerostin causes inhibition of cementoblastic differentiation [88], which might suggest that there might be an optimum expression of canonical Wnt signalling which might be required to achieve appropriate cementoblastic differentiation. The discussion under 'homeostasis of cementum and PDL' shows that cementogenesis might not be dependent solely on Wnt/ β -Catenin signalling expression of cementoblasts. The balance may be achieved by an interplay of its expression in cementoblasts and some other component/s during different stages of cementogenesis. As during physiological repair of cementum after resorption during orthodontic tooth movement, reparative cementum was shown to be produced by epithelial-mesenchymal transition of epithelial rest cells of Malassez by upregulation of Wnt/ β -Catenin signalling expression [42,109]. This resulted in cementoblast-like mesenchymal cells which then formed reparative cementum [42,109].

Box. 1. Cementoblasts and Osteoclasts. Cementoblasts have been shown to form and recruit osteoclasts (bone resorbing cells) [95,115,116]. Osteoclasts are always found in close association with cementum/ tooth root. Does that mean that during orthodontic tooth movement, the remodelling of alveolar bone proper is mediated mainly by cementoblasts and do these cells have osteoclastogenic memory which causes post-treatment relapse of teeth?

This cementum remodelling that occurs during orthodontic tooth movement can give us an insight into the factors necessary for cementum repair and subsequently regeneration. It was demonstrated that the cells laying down reparative cementum within the resorption lacunae expressed a transcription factor *Runx 2* which then upregulated ALP, collagen type 1, OCN and OPN [113,114]. It was shown that during this cementum repair, components of ECM (OPN, OCN) from resorbed cementum caused cementoblastic progenitor recruitment to the root surface and then their adhesion, proliferation and differentiation. These processes were facilitated by local cytokines and growth factors (IGF, FGF, BMP, TGF- β) [113].

4. Cementum Tissue Engineering:

Tissue engineering is defined as an interdisciplinary field that applies the principles of engineering and life sciences towards the development of biological substitutes that restore, maintain and improve tissue function [31]. The goal of tissue engineering is to design bioactive, bioresorbable 3D scaffolds that can mimic the structure and integrity of the natural tissues even under load-bearing conditions [28].

Tissue engineering is based on the concept of combining a scaffold [29] with living cells/ bioactive molecules that in the presence of sufficient bloody supply will be able to promote repair/ regeneration of the tissues [59]. Bioactivity, is referred to as the capability of a material to affect its surroundings [29]. Upon implantation, such materials form a bond with the surrounding tissues [30]. In PDL regeneration, it is important to

generate hard and soft tissues of the complex and create attachment conducive environment for both of these tissues [67].

- Cementum regeneration using PDL stem cells:

Periodontal ligament stem cells were isolated from extracted human third molars in 2004 [41]. These cells expressed mesenchymal stem cell markers, had the ability of self-renewal and were able to differentiate into cementoblasts, osteoblasts and adipocytes [41]. On ectopic transplantation into immunocompromised mice, these cells formed cementum-like and PDL-like structures [41].

When seeded onto the scaffold, cementogenic differentiation of these cells is essential to be able to use them for cementum regeneration. Several different approaches have been used to induce cementogenic differentiation of PDL stem cells in the recent times. Here we are going to briefly discuss some recent work regarding successful induction of cementogenic differentiation of PDL stem cells.

It was found in 2012 that Lithium ions possess the cementogenic potential [36]. Studies showed that incorporation of Lithium ions into mesoporous bioactive glass scaffolds or β -tricalcium phosphate bioactive ceramics seeded with PDL cells enhanced the proliferation, differentiation and cementogenic gene expression of these cells by upregulating the expression of Wnt/ β -Catenin signalling [36,37]. In 2013, inorganic stimuli derived from bioactive bredigite bioceramic extract upregulated *CEMP1* and *CAP* expression in PDL cells along with Wnt/ β -Catenin activation indicating that this can be an interesting tissue engineering technique to stimulate cementogenic differentiation of PDL cells [27]. In 2014, a study revealed that $\text{Ca}_3\text{ZrSi}_2\text{O}_9$ ceramic disks can enhance expression of *CEMP1* and *CAP* in these cells along with the expression of *AXIN2* and *Ctnnb* which are the Wnt/ β -Catenin pathway related genes [38]. In 2015, a study demonstrated that hydroxyapatite bioceramics with micro-nano-hybrid surface when seeded with PDL cells enhanced the expression of *CEMP1*, *CAP*, *LRP5* and β -*Catenin* in these cells. Moreover, they found that the expression of the cementogenic genes was repressed when Wnt-signalling was inhibited [45].

However, in another study it was found that activation of Wnt signalling inhibited the cementogenic differentiation of PDL stem cells and promoted their differentiation towards osteoblastic lineage [22]. The study also explored the role of hypoxia in cementogenic differentiation of these cells, as hypoxia is known to maintain stemness of PDL stem cells by enhanced expression of pluripotency markers [23]. Hypoxia was found to inhibit β -Catenin expression which caused down regulation of Wnt signalling and an increased expression of cementum protein 1 (*CEMP1*). It was concluded that hypoxia enhances cementogenic differentiation of PDL cells by down regulating Wnt signalling [22].

It was suggested in 2012 that *CEMP1* has the potential to be used for PDL bioengineering since it was found to stimulate PDL cells into different phenotypes in three-dimensional

culture conditions [25]. *CEMP1* has since been used for cementum bioengineering as a cementum-specific protein that induces cementogenic differentiation of PDL stem cells [47]. When loaded in an electrospun multiphase scaffold [63] in the form of recombinant *CEMP1*, its controlled release was found to suppress PDL stem cell proliferation and upregulation of cementoblastic markers which included *CEMP1* and *CAP*. Hence this construct can be used for cementum tissue engineering [26].

Nagelschmidite is another bioactive bioceramic which has been used to stimulate cementogenic differentiation of PDL cells [32]. The NAGEL scaffold made with this material has been shown to have supported the attachment as well as proliferation of PDL cells. It has been shown to enhance the cementogenesis-related gene expression of PDL cells in-vivo [32]. Another study produced similar results using DIOP ceramics to prepare bioactive scaffolds for cementum regeneration [33]. Ionic products from a ceramic powder $\text{Ca}_7\text{Si}_2\text{P}_2\text{O}_{16}$ were found to possess excellent mineralization ability in stimulated body fluids and it also induced cementogenic differentiation of PDL cells with enhanced expression of cementogenesis-related genes including *CEMP1* [34]. Similar results were produced with strontium-containing mesoporous bioactive glass scaffolds [35].

Vitamin C was regarded as a useful stimulus for cementogenic differentiation of PDL stem cells by a study done in 2016 [39]. This group treated PDLSCs in-vitro with Vitamin C and qPCR showed an upregulation of *CAP* and *CEMP1* cementogenic genes in these cells. Moreover, when these cells were transplanted into immunocompromised mice, it resulted in the formation ectopic cementum and bone-like tissues [39].

A study done in 2012 demonstrated the effect of pre-existing root cementum on cementogenic differentiation of PDL cells [11]. When PDL cells were inoculated onto root slices in culture in absence of pre-existing root cementum, fibrous tissue formed along the root surface and splits were seen between new fibrous tissue and dentine surface [11]. New cementum was either not formed or poorly formed. However, in presence of pre-existing cementum, PDL cells inoculation onto root surface produced cementum-like matrix on old cementum. Furthermore, there were no splits seen between new and old layers of cementum [11]. This might explain why cementum mediated attachment is successful if the avulsed tooth is immediately replanted. There might be a survival threshold for the cementum

Box. 2. Scurvy and Vitamin C. Scurvy was a menace for 18th century sailors. Its first symptoms were swollen and bleeding gums which soon led to lose or lost teeth and other systemic signs. This disease was finally ascribed to Vitamin C deficiency. Vitamin C was then discovered to play an essential role in the formation of collagen [118]. Collagen is an essential component of ECM of cementum and PDL fibres. Hence, the lose teeth were a result of loss of these important components of the tooth attachment apparatus!



From 'Fundamentals of Dental Histology' by S. L. Verma copyright 2002 by Mosby/Year Book Inc. NY.
Fig. 2-5 Periodontal disease seen in scurvy.

when its exposed to unfavorable conditions above which cementum fails to survive and hence late replantation results in ankylosis [15].

- Cementum regeneration using other stem cells:

A mixed cell sheet was designed in 2011 by coculturing human PDL stem cells with human bone marrow mesenchymal stem cells (BMMSCs) and mixed by ceramic bovine powder in a mixed-type stem cell-pellet cultivation system [65]. Cells contracted into a pellet when they were detached from the system. Transplantation of this pellet into immunocompromised mice resulted in the formation of cementum and PDL-like tissues in-vivo with neovascularization. This pellet can therefore potentially be used to repair periodontal defect as it mimics the microenvironment of PDL [65].

Periapical follicle SCs were found to generate cementum/ PDL- like tissues in-vivo and hence they can be regarded as a promising candidate for cementum/ PDL regeneration [66]. These cells were isolated from the apical end of developing human third molars [66].

- Other scaffolds for cementum regeneration:

Cloned cementoblasts were seeded onto three-dimensional polymer scaffolds for cementum engineering in 2003 [81]. In-vitro, these polylactic-co-glycolic acid (PGLA) scaffolds were shown to enhance cell attachment. In-vivo, when subcutaneously implanted in immunocompromised mice these scaffolds demonstrated mineral formation in these implants after retrieval. These implants showed presence of OCN and BSP [81].

Biomimetic hybrid scaffolds were made in 2010 by combining polycaprolactone (PCL) and polyglycolic acid (PGA) [60]. These polymeric scaffolds were used for targeted delivery of genetically modified cells in-vivo. When transplanted into the socket, new tissues formed within the construct of the scaffold depicting cementum, PDL and bone-like structures [60].

Cell delivery system with the help of PDL cell sheets and biphasic scaffold was developed in 2012 [40]. It made use of a Fused Deposition Modeling scaffold for bone compartment and electrospun [63] membrane for PDL. Not only did this scaffold was able to deposit mineralized cementum-like tissue on dentine in-vivo in rats but it also showed better attachment to dentine. *CEMP1* was localized at the cementum-dentine interface with immunohistochemistry [40].

Polycaprolactone scaffolds with growth factors such as connective tissue growth factor and bone morphogenetic proteins 2 and 7 were seeded with PDL cells in 2016 [44]. These protein- releasing scaffolds were placed on exposed surface of dentine in-vitro. This resulted in the formation of cementum-like layer on dentine surface along with the expression of *CEMP1* [44]. Efforts have been made to specifically design cementum-

dentin interface with compartmentalized triphasic scaffolds. In the presence of growth factors, PDL and alveolar bone stem cells, in-vivo implantation of these scaffolds produced *CEMP1*-positive and dentin sialophosphoprotein-positive dentine/cementum-like tissues [58].

A novel scaffold was made by Chung et al., group by combining degradable polymer, Poly-DL-lactide (PDLLA) and degradable bioceramics, toothapatite (TA) and β -tricalciumphosphate (TCP). When loaded with PDL stem cells and dental follicle stem cells (DFSCs), it resulted in the formation of cementum-like mineralized tissue in-vivo. Thus, this is another potential scaffold for cementum regeneration [57].

Kuboki et al., 2014 used bovine bone morphogenetic protein (BMP) incorporated in a double layer of fibrous collagen membrane [71]. This double layer technique regenerated cementum in furcation defects in monkey molars with collagen fibers arranged perpendicular to the cementum surface [71].

A study done in 2017 demonstrated periodontal regeneration using a porous tri-layered nanocomposite hydrogel scaffold [62]. The cementum layer was composed of chitin-poly(lactic-co-glycolic acid) (PGLA), nanobioactive glass ceramic and *CEMP1*. PDL and alveolar bone layers were composed of PGLA and growth factors. Histological analysis revealed formation of new cementum, PDL and alveolar bone at the site of the periodontal defect where the scaffold was placed in rabbit molars [62]. Such multiphasic scaffolds allow compartmentalized tissue healing which is then integrated into one cohesive structure. These compartments include a bony compartment and the PDL compartment. The main focus with regards to PDL compartment is to first facilitate cementum formation onto the root surface, then PDL fiber formation and then insertion of these fibers into cementum on one end and bone on the other [64].

5. Miscellaneous products for cementum regeneration:

- Emdogain:

Hertwig's epithelial root sheath is an extension of dental organ that forms enamel [68]. The cells of the sheath secrete enamel related matrix proteins onto the dentin which are temporarily deposited on the surface of root [69]. This provides a surface for the expression of cementum-forming cells, which forms the initial step in the formation of acellular cementum [69]. When matrix lays down on the surface of these proteins then the attachment apparatus develops [68].

This enamel matrix layer that exists between dentin and the developing cementum laid down the basis for the development of enamel matrix derivative (EMD) or Emdogain. This was then used for EMD-supported PDL tissue engineering [68].

A study done in 2014 showed that when diseased cementum was conservatively treated with EMD, it showed an increase in cementoblastic differentiation in-vitro [70]. Human PDL stem cells inoculated onto root slices were transplanted into nude mice. These cells formed cementum-like tissue and this in-vivo effect of these cells was enhanced in the presence of EMD [70].

- Osteogain:

Recently a liquid carrier system on an absorbed collagen sponge was developed for EMD [72]. It was named Osteogain. It resulted in better connective tissue attachment, cementum formation and bone area in furcation defects in monkey molars than Emdogain [72].

- Cyclosporin A:

Cyclosporin A is an immunosuppressive drug that was found to induce deposition of new cementum in-vivo in rats [73] and in-vitro in human cementoblastoma cells [74]. In another study it was found that after the termination of treatment in rats, the cementum thickness did not decrease. It was concluded that this cementum deposition which occurred as a result of Cyclosporin A treatment was therefore not reversible [75].

Conclusion:

To achieve the appropriate cementum regeneration, we will have to therefore take in to account the imperative roles that its mineral surface topography and molecular environment play in maintaining the integrity of the periodontal ligament complex [52]. From the discovery of cementum in 1800s to understanding its functional importance in the late 19th and early 20th centuries to understanding its ultrastructure and genetics and now repair and regeneration in the 21st century [117], we have indeed come a long way! Only the time will tell how far we still have to go until we will be able to successfully regenerate a fully functional cementum along with its surrounding hard and soft tissues.

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