CRANIOFACIAL SKELETON (WE ROBERTS, SECTION EDITOR)



# Part II: Temporomandibular Joint (TMJ)—Regeneration, Degeneration, and Adaptation

W. Eugene Roberts<sup>1,2,3</sup>  $\cdot$  David L. Stocum<sup>4</sup>

Published online: 26 June 2018 © Springer Science+Business Media, LLC, part of Springer Nature 2018

#### Abstract

Purpose of Review Elucidate temporomandibular joint (TMJ) development and pathophysiology relative to regeneration, degeneration, and adaption.

Recent Findings The pharyngeal arch produces a highly conserved stomatognathic system that supports airway and masticatory function. An induced subperiosteal layer of fibrocartilage cushions TMJ functional and parafunctional loads. If the fibrocartilage disc is present, a fractured mandibular condyle (MC) regenerates near the eminence of the fossa via a blastema emanating from the medial periosteal surface of the ramus. TMJ degenerative joint disease (DJD) is a relatively painless osteoarthrosis, resulting in extensive sclerosis, disc destruction, and lytic lesions. Facial form and symmetry may be affected, but the residual bone is vital because distraction continues to lengthen the MC with anabolic bone modeling. Extensive TMJ adaptive, healing, and regenerative potential maintains optimal, life support functions over a lifetime.

Summary Unique aspects of TMJ development, function, and pathophysiology may be useful for innovative management of other joints.

Keywords Fibrocartilage · TMJ regeneration · Airway · Deciduous first molars · Condylar hyperplasia · Osteoarthrosis · TMD · Adaptation . Conserved traits . Propagation . Condylar distraction

## Introduction

The mandible is a heavily loaded, highly mobile facial bone that articulates with the temporal bone at the base of the cranium. Temporomandibular joints (TMJs) are bilateral synovial articulations that facilitate a broad range of essential life-

This article is part of the Topical Collection on Craniofacial Skeleton

 $\boxtimes$  W. Eugene Roberts [werobert@iu.edu](mailto:werobert@iu.edu)

> David L. Stocum dstocum@iupui.edu

- <sup>1</sup> School of Dentistry, Department of Orthodontics and Oral Facial Genetics, Indiana University-Purdue University (IUPUI), Indianapolis, IN, USA
- <sup>2</sup> Department of Orthodontics, Loma Linda University, Loma Linda, CA, USA
- <sup>3</sup> Advanced Dental Education, St. Louis University, St. Louis, MO, **USA**
- <sup>4</sup> School of Science, Department of Biology, Indiana University-Purdue University (IUPUI), Indianapolis, IN, USA

support functions and social interactions. Mastication, airway, communication, and facial form contribute to mating success. Part I of the current review addressed TMJ developmental physiology in preparation for the current assessment of regeneration, pathophysiology, and adaptation mechanisms.

## Airway Development

The oropharyngeal complex (mandible, dentition, and pharynx) begins with pharyngeal arch development, involving head mesoderm, foregut endoderm, and neural crest cells. The mandible is formed from cranial neural crest cells via a hierarchy of gene regulation modules that govern formation, migration, and differentiation [\[1\]](#page-8-0). The mandible is a component of the pharyngeal arch which plays a lifelong role in development and maintenance of a patent airway. Hypoxia sensors [[2\]](#page-8-0) and respiratory reflexes [\[3\]](#page-8-0) are important regulators of respiration that evolve simultaneously.

Airway defects are potentially lethal craniofacial anomalies. Chromosomal anomalies near the SOX9 gene [\[4\]](#page-8-0) are associated with Pierre Robin syndrome (PRS), a mandibular developmental anomaly with a prevalence of 1 in 8500 live births.

Relevant features of PRS are a severely underdeveloped mandible that is often associated with cleft palate. The latter occurs because the small mandible traps the tongue high in the developing nasal cavity, thereby blocking the elevation and fusion of the palatal shelves [\[5](#page-8-0)]. If the postnatal airway and feeding problems are successfully managed, either conservatively and/or with surgery [\[6](#page-8-0)], the mandible is capable of substantial growth and adaptation to help position the tongue anteriorly to maintain a patent airway. The development and successful management of this life-threatening anomaly demonstrates the importance of the mandible and TMJ for anterior posturing of the tongue.

#### Hemifacial Microsomia

Hemifacial microsomia (HM) is a relatively common (1 in 2000 live births) unilateral deficiency of the TMJ, ear, and associated structures. This anomaly falls into the oculoauriculovertebral spectrum (OAVS) [\[7](#page-8-0)]. Most cases of HM are genetically and phenotypically heterogeneous, so the precise etiology of the syndrome is unclear. Most studies suggest a unilateral vascular deficiency during development. There are recurring patterns of environmental factors, and family case reports of preauricular appendages, microtia, mandibular hypoplasia, and facial asymmetry. Chromosomal abnormalities and candidate gene studies suggest a multifactorial inheritance model [\[7](#page-8-0)]. Despite severe facial disfigurement and compromised oropharyngeal function, TMJ growth and adaptability render a surprisingly high health-related quality of life for affected children [[8\]](#page-8-0).

TMJ mobility has an important lifelong role in posturing of the mandible to support optimal masticatory and pharyngeal function. Maintaining a patent airway is challenging because of the increasing prevalence of negative environmental factors: atmospheric pollution [\[9](#page-8-0)], allergies [[10](#page-8-0)], inflammatory disorders [\[11\]](#page-8-0), and obesity [\[12](#page-8-0)].

#### Obstructive Sleep Apnea

Obstructive sleep apnea (OSA) is an increasingly serious health problem [[13](#page-8-0), [14](#page-8-0)], with a prevalence of 6.4% in women and 13.8% in men [\[15\]](#page-8-0). Continuous positive air pressure (CPAP) therapy is the gold standard for OSA treatment, but many patients are refractive to regular use of these unattractive devices. Other treatment options are medication [[16](#page-8-0)], orthognathic surgical advancement of the jaws [[14\]](#page-8-0), hypoglossal nerve stimulation [\[17\]](#page-8-0), or dental mandibular advancing devices (MADs) [\[18](#page-8-0)]. Therapeutic repositioning of the mandible requires TMJ adaptation. MADs are usually attached to teeth so they can cause substantial orthodontic problems, resulting in an uncomfortable and unattractive occlusion. Nocturnal wear of a MAD does not appreciably increase TMJ dysfunction, but OSA patients with preexisting crepitus or other disorders may fail to cooperate in regularly wearing the appliance [\[19\]](#page-8-0).

## **Biomechanics**

The critical teeth for the biomechanics of facial development are the deciduous first molars (Ds), which emerge to provide the initial posterior stops in occlusion at  $\sim$  16 months of age [\[20\]](#page-8-0). Equal and opposite forces of posterior occlusion are evenly distributed between the cranium and mandible. Primary cartilaginous growth centers of the jaws [[21](#page-8-0), [22\]](#page-8-0) revert to skeletal biomechanics to drive jaw growth and adaptation, via secondary growth mechanisms (condyle, fossa, facial sutures, and subperiosteal surfaces). The mandibular midline synchondrosis fuses to permit unilateral chewing [[23](#page-8-0)], which is the primary mechanism of human mastication. The posterior palatal synchondrosis reverts to a midpalatal suture, which is a secondary growth site [[24](#page-8-0)]. A critical event in facial and masticatory development is the emergence of the Ds, which increases the vertical dimension of occlusion (VDO) to help maintain a patent airway and establish full masticatory capability [\[20](#page-8-0)]. Although primarily associated with prenatal, primary growth mechanisms, IGF-2 continues to play an important role after birth [[25](#page-8-0)]. Achieving posterior occlusal function (Ds eruption at  $\sim$  16 months) occurs at about the same time the brain-pituitaryliver axis switches from IGF-2 to IGF-1. The latter is the principal endocrine factor for growth, development, and lifelong stimulus of the musculoskeletal system. There are no specific reports on relative IGF-2 and IGF-1 levels during the first 16 months after birth. It is hypothesized that the biomechanics of posterior occlusal function is the critical event in converting facial development from primary growth centers (IGF-1 control) to secondary growth sites (IGF-2 control).

Primary molar development is specified early in the development of the oropharyngeal complex [[26\]](#page-8-0), and it is a highly conserved genetic trait. Even when the Ds are deformed, they erupt and perform their critical mission of establishing the centric stops in posterior occlusion [\[27](#page-8-0)]. Full masticatory function promotes the development of the TMJ, particularly the articular eminence [\[28\]](#page-8-0). The latter achieves half of its adult dimension by 2 years of age [\[29](#page-8-0)], which is only 8 months after the Ds occlude. It is clear that the adult-like form of the TMJ is secondary to posterior masticatory function.

There are no published reports of congenitally missing first deciduous molars (Ds). Agenesis is common in the permanent dentition, probably because the affected teeth serve no critical life-support role, but congenital absence of deciduous (primary) teeth is rare [\[30](#page-8-0)]. A single child presented with multiple missing deciduous teeth (oligodontia) [[31](#page-8-0)], but the Ds were present and effectively established the posterior

VDO. Collectively, these data indicate that the timely eruption of the Ds to expand occlusal function has important survival value for the human species. The authors are aware of only one patient with congenitally missing Ds. She was born with anhidrotic ectodermal dysplasia and raised in an affluent nation. At age 10, the patient presented with a complex acquired malocclusion. Correction of the severely decreased VDO and retrognathic mandible will probably require orthognathic surgery. The survival of a child, with such a severe functional disorder, would be unlikely in a primitive setting.

#### Regeneration and Adaptation

Adaptation to malocclusion, spontaneous and/or acquired, maintains adequate mastication, facial esthetics, and airway maintenance for achieving propagation. The TMJ adaptability of the stomatognathic apparatus is exposed to genetic and environmental challenges. Spontaneous mutations [\[32](#page-8-0)] affecting fundamental developmental processes may produce skeletal malocclusions that are lethal in a primitive setting [[33,](#page-8-0) [34\]](#page-8-0). In affluent society, medical and caregiver support can provide adequate airway development and nutritional needs. Individuals with debilitating malocclusions survive, and their genes enter the pool, if reproduction is achieved [\[32\]](#page-8-0).

Adult newts can regenerate the jaws and the dentition after an amputation distal to the TMJ. Blastema cells are derived primarily from muscle (mandible) and cartilage (maxilla) [[35,](#page-8-0) [36,](#page-8-0) [37](#page-8-0)••, [38](#page-8-0)]. Both larval A. maculatum and adult newt regenerate alveolar cartilage and bone across defects created by excising a quarter to a half of the mandible [\[39\]](#page-9-0). Whether the TMJ itself can regenerate in these animals is not known. There are numerous reports of condylar regeneration in mammals. The fibrous articular layer is regenerated in marmosets (small primates) after making a full-thickness defect in the condylar head without damaging the articular disc [\[40](#page-9-0)]. The mandible has known regenerative potential [[41,](#page-9-0) [42\]](#page-9-0), including regeneration of the mandibular ramus and condyle after resection and stabilization of the remaining mandible with a titanium mesh [\[43](#page-9-0)–[45\]](#page-9-0). The source of cells for repair of these defects is the periosteum [[46\]](#page-9-0). Condylar regeneration is enhanced by the use of a functional appliance that propels the mandible anteriorly [[47\]](#page-9-0).

Hayashi et al. [\[48](#page-9-0)••] showed that the presence of the disc is necessary for condylar regeneration. The disc may be an essential environmental cofactor for periosteal activation. Rats in which the disc was excised in conjunction with a condylectomy failed to regenerate the condyle, even in the presence of a functional appliance. These data indicate the disc plays a direct role in inducing condylar regeneration [\[48](#page-9-0)••], but the relationship is not reciprocal because a damaged or missing disc fails to regenerate in the presence of the intact condyle. It is unknown if disc regeneration is possible in the regenerative environment associated with intracapsular fracture. Regenerated condyles have hinge and translation function (Fig. [1](#page-3-0)), suggesting that the original disc or disclike connective tissue separates the condyle from the temporal bone.

Traumatized disc tissue can be induced to regenerate by implanting a collagen sponge into the defect [[49\]](#page-9-0). The collagen sponge stimulates ingression of surrounding cells into the void and the missing tissue (fibrocartilage) is regenerated. Condylar fibrocartilage and adjacent bone can regenerate after fracture or excision from a healthy joint, but no regeneration occurs in the presence of DJD probably because the disc is destroyed. This lack of regeneration and adaptive potential has spurred research for restoring the TMJ with tissue-engineered implants involving osteoconductive and osteoinductive scaffolds alone, or with cells and growth factors [[49](#page-9-0), [50\]](#page-9-0). Complete biomimetic joints have been constructed for the distal mandible of selected patients [[51,](#page-9-0) [52](#page-9-0)], but routine implantation of prosthetic devices is not imminent.

#### Condylar Fracture

The healing blastema for a fractured mandibular condyle emanates from the periosteum on the medial aspect of the ramus  $[53\cdot \cdot]$  $[53\cdot \cdot]$ . This process is similar to the fetal origin of the condylar process [[20\]](#page-8-0). Three-dimensional (3D) imaging with cone-beam computed tomography (CBCT) shows the sagittal and frontal views of a regenerated right condyle in a 48-year-old male, 18 months after it was fractured in a fall (Fig. [1](#page-3-0)). Note that the regenerated condyle typically occludes on the anterior eminence of the temporal fossa, probably because this is the position of the disc and fractured condylar head when it is displaced by the pull of the lateral pterygoid muscle (Fig. [1\)](#page-3-0). Assuming condylar regeneration is a genetically controlled periosteal mechanism, upregulation of the gene(s) involved could be helpful for regeneration and repair of other joints.

Clinical management of TMJ condylar fractures is controversial [\[54\]](#page-9-0). Most clinicians prefer spontaneous healing for high condylar and intracapsular fractures, particularly in children and adolescents [[53](#page-9-0)••]. A manipulative but closed management approach for intracapsular fractures is the use of an occlusal stent (orthotic) with elastic traction between the arches [\[55](#page-9-0)]. TMJ surgery may be complicated by avascular necrosis of the proximal segment [[56](#page-9-0)], and the preauricular approach poses a risk for facial nerve injury [\[57\]](#page-9-0). However, good surgical results are reported for a modified open reduction and fixation procedure [\[58](#page-9-0)]. Lateral displacement of the fractured stump of the

<span id="page-3-0"></span>Fig. 1 A TMJ series from a CBCT scan shows the regenerated condyle (RC) in the sagittal (upper views) and frontal (lower views) planes relative to the temporal fossa (F) in a 48 year-old male who fell and fractured the right mandibular condyle 18 months previously. Note the blastema for the regenerating condyle (RC) grew anteriorly and medially from the internal surface of the ascending ramus



ramus is a strong predictor of ankylosis, so surgical intervention is indicated [\[59](#page-9-0)].

dentistry (Fig. [2\)](#page-4-0) [\[61](#page-9-0)], but severe problems may require orthognathic surgery.

## Mandibular Condylar Hyperplasia

Mandibular condylar hyperplasia (MCH), also deemed hypercondylia [[60\]](#page-9-0), primarily affects women (64%) and often results in facial asymmetry and TMJ dysfunction (Fig. [2](#page-4-0)) [[62\]](#page-9-0). High condylectomy (HC) is performed when the condition is progressive. Although the literature shows large variations in etiology, diagnostic methods, and timing of the intervention, the overall conclusion is that HC is a suitable surgical method for correcting MCH [\[63\]](#page-9-0). The hyperplasia often "burns-out" (ceases to progress), so patients with modest asymmetry can be conservatively treated with orthodontics and restorative

#### Temporomandibular Disorders

A comprehensive review of temporomandibular disorders (TMDs) is beyond the present scope because many clinical problems have strong psychogenic overtones [[64](#page-9-0)], particularly relative to anxiety [[65\]](#page-9-0). However, mechanical disorders are relevant since they are compensated by skeletal adaption and may elicit ear symptoms. In modern society, processed (soft) diets result in hypofunction of the stomatognathic system, and increasingly stressful lifestyles render an increasing fraction of the population susceptible to TMD [\[66\]](#page-9-0). Animal studies have confirmed that hypofunctional TMJs are more susceptible to

<span id="page-4-0"></span>Fig. 2 a Pre-treatment of a condylar hyperplasia on the right side (dashed circle) produced an  $\sim$  1.5-cm asymmetry between the right and left mandibular planes of the mandible (\*) of a 30-yearold female. Reproduced with permission from [[61](#page-9-0)]. b The hyperplasia was no longer progressive ("burned out") so the occlusal asymmetry was managed conservatively with orthodontics and an implant-supported prosthesis (arrow). Note that the asymmetry in the mandibular planes is reduced, but not resolved. Reproduced with permission from [[61](#page-9-0)]



degeneration when loads on the jaws are increased [[67](#page-9-0)]. Early extraction (< 8 years of age) of permanent lower first molars may produce acquired malocclusions with asymmetry and/or functional retrusion of the mandible that are associated with TMD [[68](#page-9-0)].

TMJ development is distinct from other synovial joints. It is closely associated with ear development [\[20](#page-8-0)], so the signs and symptoms of TMD may include otology problems [[66,](#page-9-0) [69\]](#page-9-0). Pruritus, otalgia, and aural fullness are the most common symptoms. Ear disorders are significantly correlated with female gender, TMD severity, and frequency of symptoms [[69\]](#page-9-0).

Advancement and posterior rotation of the mandible opens the pharyngeal airway, as well as providing intraoral access for dental and medical procedures. This is a well-known procedure in emergency medicine, anesthesia, and basic life support procedures. Placing an endotracheal tube for general anesthesia or extracting third molars may require very wide opening of the mouth and result in pressure on the teeth [\[70\]](#page-9-0). The TMJ is highly mobile and usually tolerates wide opening, but when the joint is unstable or anatomical limits are exceeded, the condyle may be displaced off the disc producing intracapsular damage. TMJ dysfunction after third molar extraction has a reported prevalence of 23% for all TMD patients in the age range of 12–20 years [\[71](#page-9-0)].

#### Management of TMJ Problems

Disc displacement (internal derangement) occurs when the condyle clicks off the disc during opening and/or closing of the mandible. If the disc is displaced anterior to the condyle, a closed lock may develop because the condyle cannot translate

anteriorly. An acute closed lock can be reduced by pressing inferiorly in the retromolar area of the mandible, but only  $\sim 18\%$  of patients completely recover normal function with no subsequent signs or symptoms of TMD. Reduction is least successful for advanced internal derangements with deformed discs [[72\]](#page-9-0). Minimally invasive treatment for anterior disc displacement is successful in increasing mouth opening and reducing pain for most patients. However, TMJ pain and joint effusion are significantly related, inflammatory events that are often refractory to conservative treatment [[73\]](#page-9-0). Fortunately, inflammatory TMJ degeneration is relatively rare.

Biomechanics may contribute to chronically clicking joints because they show fewer coincident stress-field paths and flatter stress-fields than controls during jaw opening and closing [\[74\]](#page-9-0). Clicks may be associated with unilateral crossbite, but orthodontic correction does not decrease the prevalence of clicks at 10-year follow-up [[75](#page-9-0)]. Thus, disc damage incurred by a malocclusion may be irreversible with conservative measures. If a disc is damaged, manual manipulation is unlikely to effectively correct the derangement. On the other hand, relatively normal discs may reduce (click back into place), but others remain displaced (without reduction) during jaw movement. Occasional clicking with no pain or locking is usually well tolerated. Displaced discs that do not reduce may result in restricted opening (chronic closed lock) or an acquired overjet ("buck teeth") when the mandible is closed [\[76\]](#page-10-0). Disc displacement in female orthodontic patients is associated with altered skeletal morphology: decreased mandibular ramal and body length, in addition to more posterior positioning of the mandible, which is a Class II (retrognathic) malocclusion

[\[77\]](#page-10-0). Furthermore, TMD risk is associated with pneumonia, asthma, allergies, headache, general joint hypermobility, orofacial trauma, rheumatism, and orthodontic treatment [[78\]](#page-10-0).

Arthroscopic surgery for anterior displacement of the disc is successful at the initial 6-month recall [[79\]](#page-10-0), but poses increased risk of intra-articular adhesions in the long term [[80\]](#page-10-0). Disc repositioning often results in malocclusion and may be unstable [[81](#page-10-0)]. Partial or total prosthetic replacement of the TMJ and mandible may be the treatment of choice for patients with severe chronic pain [\[82](#page-10-0)], trauma, or cancer [\[83\]](#page-10-0). Previous TMJ prosthetic procedures were prone to complications such as functional overload [\[84](#page-10-0)] or persistent infections [[85\]](#page-10-0), but outcomes are expected to improve based on improvements in design and biomaterials [\[86\]](#page-10-0). Tissue engineering strategies to replace discs is emerging because TMD affects up to 25% of the population and there are often limited treatment options when the disc is badly damaged or destroyed [[87](#page-10-0)].

#### TMJ Degeneration

Congenital disc degeneration is associated with human SHOX [\[88\]](#page-10-0). A developmental delay in condyle mineralization results in subsequent degeneration of condylar fibrocartilage, that is associated with the discoidin domain receptor 2 [\[89\]](#page-10-0). Loading a mineralized condyle results in development of an underlying fibrocartilage, but TMJ overloads contribute to degeneration [\[90\]](#page-10-0), particularly with a history of hypofunction [\[67](#page-9-0)]. Within physiologic limits, the TMJ is capable of adapting to changes in functional loading [[91\]](#page-10-0), but habitual parafunction (bruxism and clenching) may result in TMD [[66,](#page-9-0) [92](#page-10-0), [93\]](#page-10-0). In a large university clinic sample  $(n = 4204)$ , clenching and/ or grinding was reported by 26.5% of TMD patients [[94\]](#page-10-0). Frequent bone changes in 283 patients with degenerative joint disease (DJD) were condylar flattening (77.4%) and erosion (59.7%) [[95](#page-10-0)]. Most DJD patients report little or no pain, but there is a positive correlation with erosion, and a negative correlation with osteophytes. A lower fractal dimension (decreased complexity) of the trabecular bone is noted in condyles of TMD patients with erosive and sclerotic changes [[96\]](#page-10-0). Magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) evaluation reveals that disc displacement, joint effusion, and degenerative changes are relatively common in TMD patients [[97](#page-10-0)]. The kinematics of TMJ motion in response to physiologic loading is best assessed with dynamic MRI [\[98\]](#page-10-0).

#### **Osteoarthrosis**

Differentiating TMJ osteoarthrosis [[99](#page-10-0)] from the osteoarthritis (OA) [\[100\]](#page-10-0) of other joints is illustrated with a clinical case. Osteoarthritis in long bone joints is inflammatory and

extremely painful [\[100\]](#page-10-0), but chronic TMJ degeneration is rarely painful, probably because there is less inflammation [[54](#page-9-0), [94,](#page-10-0) [101\]](#page-10-0). The source and the site of the pain are coincident for OA, but TMJ pain is usually refereed from inflamed muscle fascia at a distant site [[54](#page-9-0), [102](#page-10-0)]. Trigger points in inflamed muscle are associated with painful spasms, which may be related to elevated muscle cytokines [\[103\]](#page-10-0).

On the right side (Fig. [3\)](#page-6-0), DJD produced severe sclerosis (hardening or induration) of trabecular bone extending from the superior surface of the temporal bone (brain interface) to the ascending ramus of the mandible. The pathologic mechanism for this form of trabecular sclerosis is anabolic bone modeling (formation) to strengthen overloaded trabeculae. In the absence of normal remodeling, bone thickness exceeds the diffusion limit for living bone, which is 100 μm from nearest blood supply [\[105\]](#page-10-0). The internal bone core dies and hypermineralizes, so the enlarged trabeculae appear more radiodense. Microdamage accumulates and if the overloaded trabeculae fracture, a bone resorptive response produces subcondylar radiolucent lytic lesions that are defined as radiologic "cysts" [\[106](#page-10-0)] or "pseudocysts" [[95\]](#page-10-0). Little or no joint space is evidence of disc derangement or destruction (Fig. [3](#page-6-0)).

The radiographic picture on the left is relatively normal except for a single sclerotic lesion about 3 mm in diameter adjacent to a discontinuity in the subchondral cortex (Fig. [3\)](#page-6-0). The diagnosis is severe chronic osteoarthrosis on the right, with a more incipient degenerative lesion on the left. Surgical intervention is rarely indicated [\[95](#page-10-0)], but there are no documented reports for conservative management of progressive DJD. In the absence of an evidence base, clinicians must rely on basic science principles [[104](#page-10-0), [105,](#page-10-0) [107](#page-10-0)]. Conservative treatment for the clenching, associated with the progressive degeneration, is achieved with a removable oral appliance (Hawley bite-plate) worn at night [[104\]](#page-10-0). The bite-plate is constructed with premature occlusion of the lower incisors to prevent the molars from contacting. A periodontal ligament (PDL) polysynaptic reflex [[108,](#page-10-0) [109\]](#page-10-0) inhibits the forceful contraction of the powerful mandibular elevator muscles [[110\]](#page-10-0).

International arthroplasty guidelines vary but advanced joint disease (osteoarthritis of the hip or knee) is usually a strong indication for prosthetic replacement [[100\]](#page-10-0). DJD of the mandibular condyle is rarely debilitating so it is managed conservatively, if treated at all (Fig. [3](#page-6-0)). If DJD produces facial asymmetry, the problem can be corrected with a sagittal split osteotomy [\[104\]](#page-10-0). The resistance to severe debilitation under adverse environmental conditions is a highly conserved trait of the TMJ. Compromised long bone function was certainly disabling in primitive society, but apparently not as lifethreatening as a loss of mandibular function (airway and feeding).

A 72-year-old female patient presented with unilateral symptoms of the left side: uncomfortable occlusion due to an excessive curve of Spee (curvature of the mandibular occlusal plane), decreased TMJ joint space (disc destruction), and condylar degeneration (Fig. [4](#page-7-0)a). Orthopedic correction was inferior distraction of the left condyle  $\sim$  4 mm over 9 months via asymmetric adjustment of an acrylic occlusal orthotic. Removing posterior centric stops in occlusion on the right side produced a clockwise functional shift of the mandible in the frontal plane to create vertical occlusal space in the left posterior to correct the plane of occlusion (Fig. [4](#page-7-0)b). An implantsupported crown was used to restore the missing lower left first molar at the desired VDO, and the entire occlusion was aligned accordingly. Comparison of the original panoramic view (Fig. [4](#page-7-0)a) to the corresponding image after the condylar

distraction (Fig. [4](#page-7-0)b) shows the orthopedic effects in the sagittal plane. CBCT evaluation (not shown) documented that the lytic lesions on the affected side were decreased in size or resolved following distraction. After a symmetric occlusion was restored (Fig. [4](#page-7-0)b), nocturnal clenching (parafunction) was controlled with a neurologic orthotic (Hawley biteplate) [\[104](#page-10-0)]. Follow-up evaluation with CBCT 2 years later (not shown) documented a stable result, and 8 years later, there was no recurrence of TMD signs or symptoms.

## Pathophysiology

The mandible and its temporal articulation are secondary skeletal structures formed after the initial nerve patterning for cartilage anlage and intramembranous ossification centers in other parts of the body [\[20\]](#page-8-0). This unique developmental pattern is

<span id="page-6-0"></span>Fig. 3 A 64-year-old female presented with a 45-year history of bilateral closed lock and TMD. A TMJ series from a CBCT documents advanced DJD on the right side with sclerosis (S) with pseudocysts (internal radiolucent cavities) (PS). On the left side, there is an  $\sim$  3 mm degenerative lesion with sclerosis (S) beneath a break in the subarticular cortex on the superior aspect of the condyle (see text for details). This illustration was originally published in [\[104\]](#page-10-0). Reproduced with permission from Elsevier



## Distraction of a Degenerated TMJ

<span id="page-7-0"></span>

Fig. 4 a A 72-year-old female with a history of nocturnal clenching presented with a degenerated left condyle associated with an asymmetric occlusal plane (red line) in the left molar area (arrow). The lower left first molar was missing, and the three-unit fixed prosthesis that restored the edentulous space was constructed with a deep curve of Spee. Note that the superior margin of the degenerated left condyle is along a dashed line through superior margins of each internal auditory meatus (interporion line). The anterior margin of the left condyle is anteriorly positioned near a perpendicular dashed line through the articular eminence. Reproduced with permission from Elsevier. **b** The post-

associated with a less painful response to trauma, functional overload, and parafunction (Fig. [3](#page-6-0)). The difference in pathophysiology may relate to fewer pain receptors in TMJ-related tissues and/or a joint structure that is less prone to inflammation. The TMJ is the only joint formed with three separate condensations of mesenchyme [[20](#page-8-0)], a developmental process that results in a disc and both articular surfaces cushioned with fibrocartilage. This unique developmental physiology results in a joint capable of resisting high loads and adapting to DJD with minimal painful inflammation. A degenerated TMJ can increase in length when it is mechanically distracted (Fig. 4). Despite the bizarre bone morphology associated with DJD (Fig. [3](#page-6-0)), the articular surface remains a vital modified periosteum that is capable of adaptation to maintain optimal function.

Predisposition to DJD may involve deficiencies in forming and maintaining fibrocartilage. Bone tissue of a degenerated TMJ remains vital because the condyle can be lengthened, but there is no evidence that fibrocartilage is regenerated. Correcting joint overloads decreases internal bone pathology

treatment panoramic radiograph shows the left condyle was distracted in the direction of the white arrow pointed inferiorly. With the vertical space provided by  $\sim$  4 mm of condylar distraction, the asymmetric occlusal plane was corrected with an implant-supported prosthesis (black arrow pointed superiorly). Note the left condyle is positioned  $\sim$ 3 mm superior to the interporion line, and distally positioned in the temporal fossa (yellow arrow) about 5 mm distal to the perpendicular line through the eminence. See text for details. Reproduced with permission from Elsevier

(pseudocysts and sclerosis), but the irregular shape to the degenerated condyle remains (Fig. 4b).

## Conclusion

The TMJ provides adequate, relatively pain-free mobility for the mandible to achieve its critical life support functions under a variety of adverse environmental conditions. Better understanding of the pathophysiology of the TMJ may provide insights for managing disorders in other joints.

#### Compliance with Ethical Standards

Conflict of Interest David Stocum declares no conflict of interest. W.E. Roberts is a section editor of the Craniofacial Section of Current Osteoporosis Reports, but this paper was reviewed by editor in chief David Burr.

Human and Animal Rights and Informed Consent This article does not contain any studies with human or animal subjects performed by any of the authors.

#### <span id="page-8-0"></span>References

Papers of particular interest, published recently, have been highlighted as:

- •• Of major importance
	- 1. Martek ML, Bronner ME. Regulatory logic underlying diversification of the neural crest. Trends Genet. 2017;33:715–27.
	- 2. Lopez-Barneo J, Marcias D, Platero-Luengo A, Ortega-Saenz P, Pardal R. Carotid body oxygen sensing and adaptation to hypoxia. Pflugers Arch. 2016;468(1):59–70.
	- 3. Hockman D, Burns AJ, Schlosser G, Gates KP, Jevans B, Mongera A, et al. Evolution of the hypoxia-sensitive cells involved in amniote respiratory reflexes. eLife. 2017;6:e21231.
	- 4. Selvi R, Mukunda PA. Role of SOX9 in the etiology of Pierre-Robin syndrome. Iran J Basic Sci. 2013;16(5):700–4.
	- 5. Li C, Lan Y, Jiang R. Molecular and cellular mechanisms of palate development. J Dent Res. 2017;96(11):1184–91.
	- 6. Steinberg JP, Brady CM, Waters BR, Soldanska M, Burstein FD, Thomas JE, et al. Mid-term dental and nerve-related complications of infant distraction for Robin syndrome. Plast Reconstr Surg. 2016;138(1):82e–90e.
	- 7. Bragagnolo S, Colovati MES, Souza MZ, Dantas AG, F de Soares MF, Melaragno MI, et al. Clinical and cytogenomic findings in OAV spectrum. Am J Med Genet A. 2018;176:638–48.
	- 8. Khetani MA, Collett BR, Speltz ML, Werler MM. Health-related quality of life in children with hemifacial microsomia: parent and child perspectives. J Dev Behav Pediatr. 2013;34(9):661–8.
	- 9. Shuhaimi NF, Jalaludin J. Biomarker as a research tool in linking exposure to air particles and respiratory health. Biomed Res Int. 2015;Article ID 962853, Hindawi Publishing Company;2015:1– 10. <https://doi.org/10.1155/2015/962853>.
- 10. Zheng M, Wang X, Zhang L. Association between allergic and nonallergic rhinitis and obstructive sleep apnea. Curr Opin Allergy Clin Immunol. 2018;18(1):16–25.
- 11. Hu JM, Lin CS, Chen SJ, Chen CY, Lin CL, Kao CH. Association between obstructive sleep apnea and atopic dermatitis in children: a nationwide, population-based cohort study. Pediatr Allergy Immunol. 2018. <https://doi.org/10.1111/pai.12853>.
- 12. Ekström S, Hallberg J, Kull I, Protudjer LP, Per T, Bottai M, et al. Body mass index status and peripheral airway obstruction in school-age children: a population-based cohort study. Thorax. 2018;0:1–8. <https://doi.org/10.1136/ thoraxjnl-2017-210716>.
- 13. Luyster FS, Strollo PJ Jr, Thunstrom PY. Long-term use of continuous positive airway pressure therapy in coronary artery disease patients with nonsleepy obstructive sleep apnea. Wiley Clin Cardiol. 2017. <https://doi.org/10.1002/clc.22827>.
- 14. Ngo R, Pullano E, Peacock ZS, Lahey ET, August M. Does the medical comorbidity profile of obstructive sleep apnea patients treated with maxillomandibular advancement differ from that of obstructive sleep apnea patients managed nonsurgically. J Oral Maxillofac Surg. 2018. [https://doi.org/10.1016/j.joms.2018.01.](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.joms.2018.01.011) [011.](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.joms.2018.01.011)
- 15. Huang T, Lin BM, Markt SC, Stampfer MJ, Laden F, Hu FB, et al. Sex differences in the associations of obstructive sleep apnoea with epidemiologic factors. Eur Respir J. 2018. [https://doi.org/](https://doi.org/10.1183/13993003.02421-2017) [10.1183/13993003.02421-2017](https://doi.org/10.1183/13993003.02421-2017).
- 16. Osman AM, Carter SG, Carberry JC, Eckert DJ. Obstructive sleep apnea: current perspectives, a review. Nat Sci Sleep. 2018;10:21– 34.
- 17. Certal VF, Zaghi S, Riaz M, Vieira AS, Pinheiro CT, Kushida C, et al. Hypoglossal nerve stimulation in the treatment of obstructive sleep apnea: a systematic review and meta-analysis. Laryngoscope. 2015;125(5):1254–64.
- 18. Sharples LD, Clutterbuck-James AL, Glover MJ, Bennett MS, Chadwick R, Pittman MA, et al. Meta-analysis of randomised controlled trials of oral mandibular advancement devices and continuous positive airway pressure for obstructive sleep apnoeahypopnoea. Sleep Med Rev. 2016;27:108–24.
- 19. Näpänkangas R, Raunio A, Sipilä K, Raustia A. Effect of mandibular advancement device therapy on the signs and symptoms of temporomandibular disorders. J Oral Maxillofac Res. 2012;3(4):e5.
- 20. Stocum DL, Roberts WE. Part I: development and physiology of the temporormandibular joint. Curr Rep Osteoporos. 2018 (In Press).
- 21. Lee SK, Kim YS, Lim CY, Chi JG. Prenatal growth pattern of the human maxilla. Acta Anat (Basel). 1992;145(1):1–10.
- 22. Smartt JM Jr, Low DW, Bartlett SP. The pediatric mandible: a primer on growth and development. Plast Reconstr Surg. 2005;116(1):14e–23e.
- 23. Hylander WL, Ravosa MJ, Ross CF, Wall CE, Johnson KR. Symphyseal fusion and jaw-adductor muscle force: an EMG study. Am J Phys Anthropol. 2000;112(4):469–92.
- 24. Utreja A, Bain C, Turek B, Holland R, Al-Rasheed R, Roberts WE. Maxillary expansion in an animal model with light, continuous force. Angle Orthod. 2018. [https://doi.org/10.2319/070717-](https://doi.org/10.2319/070717-451.1) [451.1](https://doi.org/10.2319/070717-451.1).
- 25. Zhang S, Zhai G, Wang J, Shi W, Zhang R, Chen C. IGF-II expression and methylation in small for gestational age infants. J Pediatr Endocrinol Metab. 2015;28(5–6):613–8.
- 26. Zhang Y, Blackwell EL, McKnight MT, Knutson GR, Vu WT, Ruest B. Specific inactivation of Twist1 in the mandibular arch neural crest cells affects the development of the ramus and reveals interactions with Hand2. Dev Dyn. 2012;241(5):924–40.
- 27. Dhindsa A, Garg S, Damle SG, Opal S, Singh T. Fused primary first macromolar with a unique relation to its permanent successors: a rare tooth anomaly. Eur J Dent. 2013;7(2):289–42.
- 28. Nickel JC, McLachlan KR, Smith DM. Eminence development of the postnatal temporomandibular joint. J Dent Res. 1988;67(6): 896–902.
- 29. Katsavrias EG. Changes in articular eminence inclination during the craniofacial growth period. Angle Orthod. 2002;72(3):258–64.
- 30. Rakhshan V. Congenitally missing teeth (hypodontia): a review of the literature concerning the etiology, prevalence, risk factors, patterns and treatment. Dent Res J (Isfahan). 2015;12(1):1–13.
- 31. Shashikiran ND, Karthik V, Subbareddy VV. Multiple congenitally missing primary teeth: report of a case. Pediatr Dent. 2002;24(2):149–52.
- 32. Griffiths AJF, Miller JH, Suzuki DT. An introduction to genetic analysis. 7th ed. San Francisco: WH Freeman & Company; 2000.
- 33. Nikopensius T, Annilo T, Jagomägi T, Gilissen C, Kals M, Krjutškov K, et al. Non-syndromic tooth agenesis associated with a nonsense mutation in ectodysplasin-A (EDA). J Dent Res. 2013;92(6):507–11.
- 34. Nikopensius T, Saag M, Jagomägi T, Annilo T, Kals M, Kivistik PA, et al. A missense mutation in DUSP6 is associated with Class III malocclusion. J Dent Res. 2013;92(10):893–8.
- 35. Goss RJ, Stagg MW. Regeneration of lower jaws in adult newts. J Morphol. 1958a;102:289–310.
- 36. Goss RJ, Stagg MW. Regeneration in lower jaws of newts after removal of the intermandibular regions. J Exp Zool. 1958b;137(1):12.
- 37.•• Ghosh S, Thorogood P, Ferretti P. Regenerative capacity of upper and lower jaws in urodele amphibians. Int J Dev Biol. 1994;38: 479–90. This paper describes the spontaneous regeneration of maxilla and mandible in the urodele, Notophthalmus viridescens, which is of interest because it may give insights into how this might be accomplished in mammals.
- 38. Kurosaka H, Takano-Yamamoth T, Yamashiro Y, Agata K. Comparison of molecular and cellular events during lower jaw

<span id="page-9-0"></span>regeneration of newt (Cynops pyrrhogaster) and West African clawed frog (Xenopus laevis). Dev Dyn. 2008;237:354–65.

- 39. Graver H. The polarity of the dental lamina in the regenerating salamander jaw. J Embryol Exp Morpholog. 1972;30:635–46.
- 40. Robinson P. Articular cartilage of the temporomandibular joint: can it regenerate? Ann R Coll Surg Engl. 1993;75:231–6.
- 41. Kisner WH. Spontaneous posttraumatic mandibular regeneration. Plast Reconstr Surg. 1980;66:442–7.
- 42. Nwoku AL. Unusually rapid bone regeneration following mandibular resection. J Maxillofac Surg. 1980;8:309–15.
- 43. Boyne PJ. The restoration of resected mandible in children without use of bone graft. Head Neck. 1983;8:309–15.
- 44. Nagase M, Ueda K, Suzuki I, Nakajima T. Spontaneous regeneration of the condyle following hemimandibulectomy by disarticulation. J Maxillofac Surg. 1985;43:218–20.
- 45. Devilla GH, Chen CT, Chen YR. Spontaneous bone regeneration of the mandible in elderly patient: a case report and review of the literature. Chang Gung Med J. 2003;26:369–90.
- 46. Coen PD. Spontaneous bone regeneration after mandible resection in a case of ameloblastoma—a case report. Ann Scad Med Singapore. 2004;33(Suppl):59S–62S.
- 47. Fujita T, Hayashi H, Shirakura M, Tsuka Y, Fujii E, Kawata T, et al. Regeneration of a condyle with a functional appliance. J Dent Res. 2013;92:322–8.
- 48.•• Hayashi H, Fujita T, Shirakura M, Tsuka Y, Fujii E, Terao A, et al. Role of articular disc in condylar regeneration of the mandible. Exp Anim. 2014;63:395–401. This study shows that the presence of the articular disc is necessary for regeneration of the condyle, suggesting that the disc produces a factor(s) that activates periosteal cells, leading to condylar regeneration.
- 49. Lai W-FT, Tsai Y-H, Su S-J, Su C-Y, Stockstill JW, Burch JG. Histological analysis of regeneration of temporomandibular joint discs in rabbits by using a reconstituted collagen template. Int J Oral Maxillofac Surg. 2005;34:311–20. [https://doi.org/10.1016/j.](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijom.2004.05.003) [ijom.2004.05.003.](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijom.2004.05.003)
- 50. Willard VP, Zhang L, Athanasiou KA. Tissue engineering of the temporomandibular joint. In Comprehensive Biomaterials. Vol. 5. Elsevier. 2011. p. 221–235.
- 51. Kinoshita Y, Kobayashi M, Fukuoka S, Yoyoka S, Ikada Y. Functional reconstruction of jaw bones using poly(L-lactide) mesh and autogeneic particulate cancellous bone and marrow. Tissue Eng. 1996;2:327–41.
- 52. Warnke PH, Wiltfang J, Springer I, Acil Y, Bolte H, Kosmahl M, et al. Man as a living bioreactor: fate of an exogenously prepared customized tissue-engineered mandible. Biomaterials. 2006;27(17):3163–7.
- 53.•• Park JH, Tai K, Sato Y. Orthodontic treatment of a patient with severe crowding and unilateral fracture of the mandibular condyle. Am J Orthod Dentofac Orthop. 2016;149:899–911. This reference documents the healing blastema for a fractured mandibular condyle emanates from the periosteal surface on the medial aspect of the ascending ramus. Thus, regeneration of a fractured mandibular condyle is similar to the fetal origin of the condylar process for the mandible.
- 54. Choi YS, Choung PH, Moon HS, Kim SG. Temporomandibular disorders in 19-year-old Korean men. J Oral Maxillofac Surg. 2002;60(7):797–803.
- 55. Tang Y, Wang X, Zhu Y, Sun H, Zhu M. A comparative evaluation of CBCT outcomes of two closed treatment methods in intracapsular condylar fractures. Oral Surg Oral Med Oral Pathol Oral Radiol. 2017;123(5):e141–7. [https://doi.org/10.1016/j.oooo.](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.oooo.2016.11.019) [2016.11.019](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.oooo.2016.11.019).
- 56. Wysocki J, Reymond J, Krasucki K. Vascularization of the mandibular condylar head with respect to intracapsular fractures of the mandible. J Craniomaxillofac Surg. 2012;40(2):112–5.
- 57. Li H, Zhang G, Cui J, Liu W, Dilxat D, Liu L. A modified preauricular approach for treating intracapsular condylar fractures to prevent nerve injury: the supratemporalis approach. J Oral Maxillofac Surg. 2016;74(5):1013–22.
- 58. Cai BL, Ren R, Yu HB, Liu PC, Shen SGF, Shi J. Do open reduction and internal fixation with articular disc anatomical reduction and rigid anchorage manifest a promising prospect in the treatment of intracapsular fractures. J Oral Maxillofac Surg. 2017;76:1026– 35. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.joms.2017.12.015>.
- 59. He D, Cai Y, Yang C. Analysis of temporomandibular joint ankylosis caused by condylar fracture. J Oral Maxillofac Surg. 2014;72(4):763e1–9.
- 60. Cervelli V, Bottini DJ, Arpino A, Trimarco A, Cervelli G, Mugnaini F. Hypercondylia: problems in diagnosis abd therapeutic indictions. J Cranitofac Surg. 2008;19(2):406–10.
- 61. Lu S-W, Chang C, Roberts WE. Asymmetric crowded Class II with missing first molars: space closure or implants? Int J Orthod Implantol. 2015;40:18–41.
- 62. Salti L, Rasse M, Al-Ouf K. Hemifacial hyperplasia. Contemp Clin Dent. 2017;8(2):327–31.
- 63. Ghawsi S, Aagaard E, Thygesen TH. High condylectomy for the treatment of mandibular condylar hyperplasia: a systematic review of the literature. Int J Oral Maxillofac Surg. 2016;45:60–71. [https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijom.2015.09.002.](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijom.2015.09.002)
- 64. Greene CS, Laskin DM. Temporomandibular disorders: moving from a dentally based to a medically based model. J Dent Res. 2000;79(10):1736–9.
- 65. Tournavitis A, Tortopidis D, Fountoulakis K, Menexes G, Koidis P. Psychopathologic profiles of TMD patients with different pain locations. Int J Prosthodont. 2017;30(3):251–7.
- 66. Boughner JC. Implications of vertebrate craniodental evo-devo for human oral health. J Exp Zool B Mol Dev Evol. 2017;328(4):321–33.
- 67. Ikeda Y, Yonemitsu I, Takei M, Shibata S, Ono T. Mechanical loading leads to osteoarthritis-like changes in the hypofunctional temporomandibular joint in rats. Arch Oral Biol. 2014;59(12): 1368–76.
- 68. Lee A, Chang C, Roberts WE. MIH-related loss of mandibular first molars resulted in an acquired class II skeletal malocclusion: conservatively treated with space closure on one side and implantsupported prosthesis on the other. Int J Orthod Implantol. 2017;47: 26–48.
- 69. Vasconcelos BC, Barbosa LM, Barbalho JC, Araújo GM, Melo AR, Santos LA. Ear pruritus: a new otologic finding related to temporomandibular disorder. Gen Dent. 2016;64(5):39–43.
- 70. Kim JW, Lee KR, Hong DY, Baek KJ, Lee YH, Park SO. Efficacy of various types of laryngoscope (direct, Pentax Airway scope and GlideScope) for endotracheal intubation in various cervical immobilization scenarios: a randomised cross-over simulation study. BMJ Open. 2016;6(10):e011089. [https://doi.org/10.1136/](https://doi.org/10.1136/bmjopen-2016-011089) [bmjopen-2016-011089.](https://doi.org/10.1136/bmjopen-2016-011089)
- 71. Huang GJ, Rue TC. Third molar extraction as a risk factor for temporomandibular disorder. J Am Dent Assoc. 2006;137(11): 1547–54.
- 72. Kuritia H, Kurashina K, Ohtsuka A. Efficacy of a mandibular molar technique in reducing the permanently displaced temporomandibular joint disc. J Oral Maxillofac Surg. 1999;57(7):784–7.
- 73. Hosgor H, Bas B, Celenk C. A comparison of the outcomes of four minimally invasive treatment methods for anterior disc displacement of the temporomandibular joint. Int J Oral Maxillofac Surg. 2017;46(11):1403–10.
- 74. Gössi DB, Gallo LM, Bahr E, Palla S. Dynamic intra-articular space variation in clicking TMJs. J Dent Res. 2004;83(6):480–4.
- 75. Michelotti A, Iodice G, Piergentili M, Farella M, Martina R. Incidence of temporomandibular joint clicking in adolescents with and without unilateral posterior cross-bite: a 10-year follow-up study. J Oral Rehabil. 2016;43(1):16–22.
- <span id="page-10-0"></span>76. Al-Baghdadi M, Durham J, Araujo-Soares V, Robalino S, Errington L, Steele J. TMJ disc displacement without reduction management: a systematic review. J Dent Res. 2014;93(7 Suppl):37S–51S.
- 77. Jeon DM, Jung WS, Mah SJ, Kim TW, Ahn SJ. The effects of TMJ symptoms on skeletal morphology in orthodontic patients with TMJ disc displacement. Acta Odontol Scand. 2014;72(8):776–82.
- Fredricson AS, Khodabandehlou F, Weiner CK, Naimi-Akbar A, Adami J, Rosén A. Are there early signs that predict development of temporomandibular joint disease? J Oral Sci. 2017. [https://doi.](https://doi.org/10.2334/josnusd.17-0073) [org/10.2334/josnusd.17-0073.](https://doi.org/10.2334/josnusd.17-0073)
- 79. Zhu Y, Zheng C, Deng Y, Wang Y. Arthroscopic surgery for treatment of anterior displacement of the disc without reduction of the temporomandibular joint. Br J Oral Maxillofac Surg. 2012;50(2):144–8.
- 80. Liu XM, Cai XY, Yang C, Zhang SY, Chen MJ, Yun B, et al. Can puncture increase the risk of intra-articular adhesion in the temporomandibular joint? J Craniofac Surg. 2014;25(1):e26–9.
- 81. Wang BL, Yang C, Cai XY, Chen MJ, Zhang SY, Fang B, et al. Malocclusion as a common occurrence in temporomandibular joint arthroplastic disc repositioning: outcomes at 49 days after surgery. J Oral Maxillofac Surg. 2011;69(6):1587–93.
- 82. Kanatas AN, Jenkins GW, Smith AB, Worrall SF. Changes in pain and mouth opening at 1 year following temporomandibular joint replacement—a prospective study. Br J Oral Maxillofac Surg. 2011;49(6):455–8.
- 83. Tarsitano A, Battaglia S, Ramieri V, Cascone P, Ciocca L, Scotti R, et al. Short-term outcomes of mandibular reconstruction in oncological patients using a CAD/CAM prosthesis including a condyle supporting a fibular free flap. J Craniomaxillofac Surg. 2017;45(2):330–7.
- 84. Vilimek M, Horak Z, Baca V. Force ratio in masticatory muscles after total replacement of the temporomandibular joint. Acta Bioeng Biomech. 2016;18(3):131–6.
- 85. McKenzie WS, Louis PJ. Temporomandibular total joint prosthesis infections: a ten-year retrospective analysis. Int J Oral Maxillofac Surg. 2017;46(5):596–602.
- 86. De Meurechy N, Mommaerts MY. Alloplastic temporomandibular joint replacement systems: a systematic review of their history. Int J Oral Maxillofac Surg. 2018. [https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijom.2018.01.](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijom.2018.01.014) [014](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijom.2018.01.014).
- 87. Murphy MK, MacBarb RF, Wong ME, Athanasiou KA. Temporomandibular joint disorders: a review of etiology, clinical management, and tissue engineering strategies. Int J Oral Maxillofac Implants. 2013;28(6):e393–414.
- 88. Li X, Liu H, Gu S, Liu C, Sun C, Zheng Y, et al. Replacing Shox2 with human SHOX leads to congenital disc degeneration of the temporomandibular joint in mice. Cell Tissue Res. 2014;355(2):345–54.
- 89. Ge C, Mohamed F, Binrayes A, Kapila S, Franceschi RT. Selective role of discoidin domain receptor 2 in murine temporomandibular joint development and aging. J Dent Res. 2018;97(3):321–8.
- 90. Lin YY, Tanaka N, Ohkuma S, Iwabuchi Y, Tanne Y, Kamiya T, et al. Applying an excessive mechanical stress alters the effect of subchondral osteoblasts on chondrocytes in a co-culture system. Eur J Oral Sci. 2010;118(2):151–8.
- 91. Ravosa MJ, Kane RJ. Dietary variation and mechanical properties of articular cartilage in the temporomandibular joint: implications for the role of plasticity in mechanobiology and pathobiology. Zoology. 2017;124:42–50.
- 92. Liu F, Steinkeler A. Epidemiology, diagnosis, and treatment of temporomandibular disorders. Dent Clin N Am. 2013;57(3):465–79.
- 93. Blanco Aguilera A, Gonzalez Lopez L, Blanco Aguilera E, De la Hoz Aizpurua JL, Rodriguez Torronteras A, Segura Saint-Gerons R, et al. Relationship between self-reported sleep bruxism and pain in patients with temporomandibular disorders. J Oral Rehabil. 2014;41(8):564–72.
- 94. Chatzopoulos GS, Sanchez M, Cisneros A, Wolff LK. Prevalence of temporomandibular symptoms and parafunctional habits in a

university dental clinic and association with gender, age and missing teeth. Cranio. 2017:1–9. [https://doi.org/10.1080/08869634.](https://doi.org/10.1080/08869634.2017.1399649) [2017.1399649](https://doi.org/10.1080/08869634.2017.1399649).

- 95. Bae S-M, Park M-S, Han J-W, Kim Y-J. Correlation between pain and degenerative bony changes on cone-beam computed tomography images of temporomandibular joints. Maxillofac Plast Reconstr Surg. 2017;39:19–24. [https://doi.org/10.1186/s40902-017-0117-1.](https://doi.org/10.1186/s40902-017-0117-1)
- 96. Arsan B, Köse TE, Çene E, Özcan I. Assessment of the trabecular structure of mandibular condyles in patients with temporomandibular disorders using fractal analysis. Oral Surg Oral Med Oral Pathol Oral Radiol. 2017;123(3):382–91.
- 97. Roh H-S, Kim W, Kim Y-K, Lee J-Y. Relationships between disk displacement, joint effusion, and degenerative changes of the TMJ in TMD patients based on MRI findings. J Cranio-Maxillofac Surg. 2012;40(3):283–6.
- 98. Hopfgartner AJ, Tymofiyeva O, Ehses P, Rottner K, Boldt J, Richter E-J, et al. Dynamic MRI of the TMJ under physical load. Dentomaxillofac Radiol. 2013;42:20120436. [https://doi.org/10.](https://doi.org/10.1259/dmfr.20120436) [1259/dmfr.20120436](https://doi.org/10.1259/dmfr.20120436).
- 99. Dimitroulis G. The prevalence of osteoarthrosis in cases of advanced internal derangement of the temporomandibular joint: a clinical, surgical and histological study. Int J Oral Maxillofac Surg. 2005;34(4):345–9.
- 100. Vina ER, Ran D, Ashbeck EL, Kwoh CK. Natural history of pain and disability among African-Americans and Whites with or at risk for knee osteoarthritis: a longitudinal study. Osteoarthr Cartil. 2018;S1063-4584(18):30079–7. [https://doi.org/10.1016/j.](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.joca.2018.01.020) [joca.2018.01.020](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.joca.2018.01.020).
- 101. Matsubara R, Yanagi Y, Oki K, Hisatomi M, Santos KC, Bamgbose BO, et al. Assessment of MRI findings and clinical symptoms in patients with temporomandibular joint disorders. Dentomaxillofac Radiol. 2018;16:20170412. [https://doi.org/10.](https://doi.org/10.1259/dmfr.20170412) [1259/dmfr.20170412](https://doi.org/10.1259/dmfr.20170412).
- 102. Bertoli FMP, Bruzamolin CD, Pizzatto E, Losso EM, Brancher JA, de Souza JF. Prevalence of diagnosed temporomandibular disorders: a cross-sectional study in Brazilian adolescents. PLoS One. 2018;13(2):e0192254. [https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.](https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0192254) [0192254](https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0192254). eCollection 2018
- 103. Louca Jounger S, Christidis N, Svensson P, List T, Emberg M. Increased levels of intramuscular cytokines in patients with jaw muscle pain. J Headache Pain. 2017;18(1):30. [https://doi.org/10.](https://doi.org/10.1186/s10194-017-0737-y) [1186/s10194-017-0737-y.](https://doi.org/10.1186/s10194-017-0737-y)
- 104. Roberts WE. Bone physiology, metabolism and biomechanics in orthodontic practice. Orthodontics: current principles and techniques, Chapter 10, 5th ed., Graber LW, Vanarsdall RL Jr, Vig KWL Elsevier Mosby, St. Louis, 2012, pp 287–343.
- 105. Roberts WE, Hartsfield JK Jr. Bone development and function: genetic and environmental mechanisms. Semin Orthod. 2004;10:100–22.
- 106. Barghan S, Merrill R, Tetradis S. Cone beam computed tomography imaging in the evaluation of the temporomandibular joint. J Calif Dent Assoc. 2010;38(1):33–9.
- 107. Roberts WE, Roberts JA, Epker BN, Burr DB, Hartsfield JK Jr. Remodeling of mineralized tissues, part I: the Frost legacy. Semin Orthod. 2006;12(4):216–23.
- 108. Chen KN, Wen CY, Shieh JY, Tseng TM. The somatotopy of the masticatory neurons in the rat trigeminal motor nucleus as revealed by HRP study. Proc Natl Sci Counc Repub China B. 1988;12(3):146–55.
- 109. Fay RA, Norgren R. Identification of rat brainstem multisynaptic connections to the oral motor nuclei using pseudorabies virus. I Masticatory muscle motor systems. Brain Res Brain Res Rev. 1997;25(3):255–75.
- 110. Toro-Ibacache V, O'Higgins P. The effect of varying jaw-elevator muscle forces on a finite element model of the human cranium. Anat Rec (Hoboken). 2016;299(7):828–39.