

Titanium Dioxide Nanoparticles in Dentistry: Multifaceted Applications and Innovations

Radwan Ali^{1,*} and Abdulkareem Hussain Alwan²

¹College of Dentistry, Ilam University, Ilam, Iran.

²Department of Periodontics, Department of Dentistry, Al-Rafidain University College, Baghdad 10011, Iraq.

*Corresponding author name: Radwan Ali, Email: r.gatea@ilam.ac.ir



Access this article online

REVIEW ARTICLE

Received: 07.07.2023 Revised: 11.08.2023

Accepted: 19.08.2023 DOI: 10.57238/fdr.2023.144821.1001



ABSTRACT

At present, titanium dioxide nanoparticles (TiO₂ NPs) find effective application in human consumables, pharmaceuticals, beauty products, cutting-edge healthcare, and dental care due to their non-toxic, non-allergenic, and biocompatible properties when in direct proximity to the human body. These NPs exhibit exceptional versatility in terms of their satisfactory chemical steadiness, cost-effectiveness, potent oxidation characteristics, elevated refractive index, and improved visual appeal. These NPs are produced using traditional techniques (both physical and chemical) as well as modern biological methods (biological, eco-friendly, and derived from biological sources), each carrying its own set of strengths and weaknesses in this current era. The importance of TiO₂ NPs in the medical field encompasses applications in drug delivery, cancer treatment, orthopedic implants, biosensors, instruments, and devices. In dentistry, they play a crucial role as biomaterials in items like toothpaste, oral antibacterial solutions, teeth whitening products, and adhesives. Furthermore, TiO₂ NPs hold a significant position in various dental specialties. They are utilized in orthodontics for wires and brackets, in endodontics for sealers and obturating materials, in maxillofacial surgeries for implants and bone plates, in prosthodontics for veneers, crowns, bridges, and acrylic resin dentures, and in restorative dentistry for glass ionomer cement (GIC) and composites.

Keywords: Dental zirconia, Fixed dental prosthesis, Implant abutments.

1 Introduction

The emergence of nanotechnology has resulted in a significant increase in the utilization of nanoparticles (NPs) in various fields such as biomaterials, antibacterial agents, drug delivery systems, electronics, sunscreens, and cosmetics [1]. Nanomaterials have been described as substances of either natural, synthetic, or accidental origin, composed of particles grouped together or existing freely, where at least 50% of the particles have one or more dimensions falling within the 1–100 nm range. Furthermore, for a substance to be classified as a nanoparticle, one of its three dimensions must fall within the range of 1–100 nm. Oxide NPs exhibit distinctive chemical and physical characteristics as a result of their constrained size and the higher density of surface sites at their corners. The physicochemical attributes of fine particles (FPs) differ

from those of NPs with a similar composition. The solubility of TiO₂ FPs is limited, and they exhibit low levels of toxicity [2]. TiO₂ NPs demonstrate superior catalytic performance in comparison to FPs, resulting in their increased usage in both consumer and industrial goods. The characteristics of TiO₂ NPs may present a potential concern for human health and contribute to the unique biological effects associated with these NPs. TiO₂ NPs are widely recognized and versatile oxides. They are produced in larger quantities owing to their satisfactory chemical stability, affordability, potent oxidation capabilities, elevated refractive index, and robust oxidation properties [3]. TiO₂ NPs are utilized in the optical industry as semiconductors, mainly because they possess the crucial characteristic of a wide band gap. Additionally, their distinct ionic and

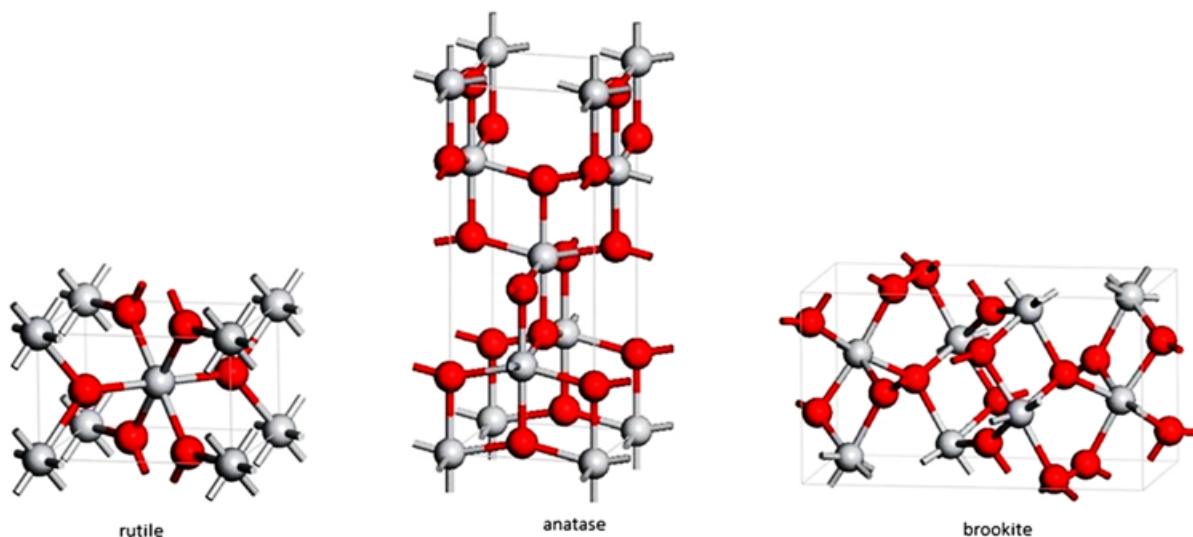


Fig. 1. Tetragonal structures of crystalline forms of rutile, anatase and brookite TiO_2 NPs [4].

electrical properties have made them valuable in electronic devices and sensor applications. Since these NPs are in the form of a water-insoluble white powder, they can be employed in the paint industry as pigments [5].

Naturally, there are three polymorphic variations of TiO_2 NPs: rutile, brookite, and anatase, each possessing distinct crystalline structures (Fig.1). These forms have found extensive use in the gemstone industry. TiO_2 NPs have been utilized as photocatalysts for breaking down waterborne pollutants, as additives in food, and as agents with antibacterial and antimicrobial properties [6]. TiO_2 NPs have the potential to eliminate fungi, viruses, bacteria, and cancer cells. TiO_2 NPs have been employed in cancer treatment through both sonodynamic and photodynamic therapy (PDT) methods [7]. These NPs possess the capacity to transform light energy into heat during photothermal therapy. This is facilitated by their high water affinity, robust chemical and thermal stability within living organisms, minimal toxicity, effective light absorption, and efficient thermal conductivity. The nanoscale structure of TiO_2 has found application in delivering a range of anticancer drugs, including temozolomide, cisplatin, doxorubicin, and daunorubicin [8]. In the past, NPs coated with polyethylene glycol have been employed in photothermal therapy for treating melanoma. TiO_2 NPs have been incorporated into dental applications to improve the mechanical characteristics of biomaterials while preserving their biocompatibility [9].

Past research has employed TiO_2 NPs to enhance the adhesive strength and antimicrobial attributes of composites [10]. TiO_2 NPs have additionally been applied to enhance the duration for which cements remain workable, their setting time, push-out bond strength, and compressive strength. By introducing titania NPs, the mechanical characteristics of the resins have been fine-tuned [11]. Furthermore, dental polymers have been infused with silver-

doped titania NPs to yield strong bactericidal effects [12].

2 TiO_2 NPs

These NPs are frequently referred to as TiO_2 or titania since they are metal oxides. Titania is accessible in the form of a fine, white powder and/or a thin film. There are four natural crystal forms of titanium oxide: TiO_2 (B), brookite, anatase, and rutile [13]. The blend of anatase and rutile crystal phases in TiO_2 NPs, commonly found, demonstrates greater inertness and stability when compared to the anatase crystal phase, which exhibits higher chemical reactivity. The chemical reactivity of the anatase crystal phase form might be advantageous in effectively targeting and eliminating cancer cells. The TiO_2 NPs are renowned for their widely recognized appealing attributes, encompassing magnetic, optical, thermal, physicochemical, electrical, rheological, mechanical, and biological properties. Due to their cost-effectiveness, insolubility, and high refractive index ($n = 2.4$), these NPs find extensive applicability in various fields even under standard conditions. Their exceptional whiteness further augments their value across diverse industries. Furthermore, due to their diminutive size, TiO_2 NPs find extensive application in a wide range of products including anti-odor textiles, water disinfectants, dietary supplements, cosmetics, indoor sprays, household appliances, paper, plastics, food packaging materials, sunscreens, electronic devices, pharmaceuticals, fibers, baked goods, sensors, glazes, and food coloring agents [14].

2.1 Methods for Producing TiO_2 NPs

The production of NPs is accomplished through two primary approaches known as conventional (top-down) and

biocompatible (bottom-up) methods. In the conventional (top-down) techniques, synthesis relies on physical and chemical methods, while the biocompatible (bottom-up) methods extensively utilize biological, green, and biological derivative approaches [15].

The top-down approach encompasses processes that fragment bulk materials into NPs using physical methods like thermal decomposition, sputtering, laser ablation, nanolithography, and milling. On the other hand, chemical techniques in this category involve co-precipitation, laser pyrolysis, the sol-gel process, spray pyrolysis, chemical vapor deposition, the aerosol process, reverse micelle, atomic/molecular condensation, the microemulsion process, and the hydrothermal method. The synthesis procedure significantly influences the transition phase, which involves changing from an amorphous state to either anatase, rutile, or brookite [16]. Yet, this approach introduces imperfections in the surface structure and form of the resulting material. This becomes a primary constraint since the surface chemistry and physical attributes of the NPs heavily rely on both the surface structure and morphology [17]. The chemical method is the preferred choice for producing TiO₂ NPs because of its straightforward manufacturing process and its ability to precisely regulate the size and morphology of the NPs. However, its application is restricted by its costly manufacturing process, potential harm to the environment, high energy requirements, and a lack of sustainability. Additionally, the need for elevated temperature and pressure hinders large-scale production, limiting its use in various fields [18]. Furthermore, the electrophoretic production of TiO₂ NPs is both convenient and efficient, but it necessitates the use of hazardous non-aqueous solvents, as noted by Boccaccini et al. in earlier investigations [19]. These non-aqueous solvents lead to detrimental consequences, such as contamination of aquatic and land environments, environmental degradation, and harm to wildlife and their habitats. Moreover, when these non-aqueous solvents evaporate into the surrounding air, they can pose health risks due to their toxicity [19]. The microwave-assisted method for producing TiO₂ NPs is widely embraced for its time efficiency and its ability to uniformly and rapidly heat the reaction mixture to the desired temperature, which is a notable advantage. While cost-effective, it can be relatively costly due to the higher heating power required. While cost-effective, it can be relatively costly due to the higher heating power required. Since this method demands a substantial amount of energy, it is not conducive for producing TiO₂ NPs in significant quantities [20].

The sol-gel method for producing TiO₂ NPs has been thoroughly explored to create NPs with greater crystallinity. This involves the formation of a sol, followed by gelation and solvent extraction. This approach comes with a high cost due to the use of pricey raw materials, which can result in the formation of cracks and a reduction in volume for the newly formed TiO₂ NPs during the drying stage [21].

The solvothermal technique involves subjecting the mixture to elevated pressure and temperature over an extended period (pressure < 1 atm and temperature > boiling point of water). This procedure demands a significant amount of time and involves substantial upkeep expenses for autoclaves, as the equipment used is rather costly. Furthermore, the introduction of extra surfactants in this procedure not only complicates the reaction but also results in an overabundance of impurities [22].

Presently, hydrothermal synthesis methods have gained widespread use because of their simplicity in producing TiO₂ NPs, which can be applied on a large scale, such as in the case of TiO₂ nanotubes. The hydrothermal process tends to be costly as it necessitates higher levels of energy, surfactants, pressure, and temperature. Furthermore, this is a lengthy procedure, resulting in a lower yield of TiO₂ NPs [22]. Reports indicate that alterations in temperature within the range of 100 to 200 °C do not provide precise control over the size, shape, and crystallinity of the nanotubes. As a result, the structure and other characteristics of the resulting NPs undergo alterations, such as the transformation from nanotubes to nanofibers [23]. Chemical synthesis involves the use of elevated temperatures, high pressure, as well as costly and potentially hazardous chemicals, which can have detrimental effects in specific medical applications [24].

2.1.1 Traditional (Top-Down) fabrication

The top-down approach encompasses processes that fragment bulk materials into NPs using physical methods like thermal decomposition, sputtering, laser ablation, nanolithography, and milling. On the other hand, chemical techniques in this category involve co-precipitation, laser pyrolysis, the sol-gel process, spray pyrolysis, chemical vapor deposition, the aerosol process, reverse micelle, atomic/molecular condensation, the microemulsion process, and the hydrothermal method. The synthesis procedure significantly influences the transition phase, which involves changing from an amorphous state to either anatase, rutile, or brookite [16]. Yet, this approach introduces imperfections in the surface structure and form of the resulting material. This becomes a primary constraint since the surface chemistry and physical attributes of the NPs heavily rely on both the surface structure and morphology [17]. The chemical method is the preferred choice for producing TiO₂ NPs because of its straightforward manufacturing process and its ability to precisely regulate the size and morphology of the NPs. However, its application is restricted by its costly manufacturing process, potential harm to the environment, high energy requirements, and a lack of sustainability. Additionally, the need for elevated temperature and pressure hinders large-scale production, limiting its use in various fields [18]. Furthermore, the electrophoretic production of TiO₂ NPs is both convenient and efficient, but it necessitates the use of hazardous non-aqueous solvents, as noted by Boccaccini et al.

in earlier investigations [19]. These non-aqueous solvents lead to detrimental consequences, such as contamination of aquatic and land environments, environmental degradation, and harm to wildlife and their habitats. Moreover, when these non-aqueous solvents evaporate into the surrounding air, they can pose health risks due to their toxicity [19]. The microwave-assisted method for producing TiO₂ NPs is widely embraced for its time efficiency and its ability to uniformly and rapidly heat the reaction mixture to the desired temperature, which is a notable advantage. While cost-effective, it can be relatively costly due to the higher heating power required. While cost-effective, it can be relatively costly due to the higher heating power required. Since this method demands a substantial amount of energy, it is not conducive for producing TiO₂ NPs in significant quantities [20].

The sol-gel method for producing TiO₂ NPs has been thoroughly explored to create NPs with greater crystallinity. This involves the formation of a sol, followed by gelation and solvent extraction. This approach comes with a high cost due to the use of pricey raw materials, which can result in the formation of cracks and a reduction in volume for the newly formed TiO₂ NPs during the drying stage [21].

The solvothermal technique involves subjecting the mixture to elevated pressure and temperature over an extended period (pressure < 1 atm and temperature > boiling point of water). This procedure demands a significant amount of time and involves substantial upkeep expenses for autoclaves, as the equipment used is rather costly. Furthermore, the introduction of extra surfactants in this procedure not only complicates the reaction but also results in an overabundance of impurities [25].

Presently, hydrothermal synthesis methods have gained widespread use because of their simplicity in producing TiO₂ NPs, which can be applied on a large scale, such as in the case of TiO₂ nanotubes. The hydrothermal process tends to be costly as it necessitates higher levels of energy, surfactants, pressure, and temperature. Furthermore, this is a lengthy procedure, resulting in a lower yield of TiO₂ NPs [22]. Reports indicate that alterations in temperature within the range of 100 to 200 °C do not provide precise control over the size, shape, and crystallinity of the nanotubes. As a result, the structure and other characteristics of the resulting NPs undergo alterations, such as the transformation from nanotubes to nanofibers [23]. Chemical synthesis involves the use of elevated temperatures, high pressure, as well as costly and potentially hazardous chemicals, which can have detrimental effects in specific medical applications [24].

2.1.2 Biosynthesis (Bottom-Up)

The bottom-up approach entails biological creation utilizing microorganisms (including bacteria, algae, fungi, and parasites), green synthesis utilizing various parts of

plants (such as roots, leaves, shrubs, herbs, and seeds), and biological synthesis using derivatives (like eggshell, albumin, lignin, etc.). In this method, smaller-sized atoms or molecules undergo reduction or oxidation processes to produce NPs. These atoms or molecules naturally come together, without the need for toxic chemicals or solvents, to create NPs. The resulting NPs exhibit minimal imperfections and defects in their surface structure, topography, and physicochemical attributes, including size, shape, crystalline phase, functional groups, structure, and texture. Primarily, TiO₂ NPs generated through biological and green methods are highly compatible with biological systems and safe, as they do not produce toxic byproducts [26].

Likewise, recent studies demonstrate the effective contribution of microorganisms in the biological synthesis process due to its simplicity and time efficiency. NPs of TiO₂ generated through various microorganisms yield high quantities that exhibit stability, sustainability, cost-effectiveness, as well as being safe and compatible with biological systems. This is attributed to the utilization of natural enzymes and proteins inherent in microorganisms, which serve as both capping and reducing agents. Therefore, in biological synthesis, a diverse range of life forms and organisms is employed, spanning from basic prokaryotic bacterial cells to intricate eukaryotic cells like angiosperms [27]. Various green synthesis techniques incorporate biological compounds like polyoxometalates, polysaccharides, Tollens reagent, and phytochemicals (including phenols, terpenoids, flavonoids, and cofactors) found in plants. These compounds serve as both capping and stabilizing agents, working to enhance and fortify the stability of the freshly formed TiO₂ NPs. Biological compounds like albumin, eggshell, gelatin, lignin cellulose, starch, arginine, peptides, polyamine, lysozyme, pomelo peel, and protamine have been employed in the synthesis of biocompatible, biosafe, and cost-effective TiO₂ NPs. The direct synthesis approach is the most biocompatible technique for producing TiO₂ NPs, as it does not require the use of additional externally introduced templates, capping agents, reducing agents, etc. Therefore, the natural biological extracts and their derivatives employed in the synthesis process can form a robust capping layer, contributing to the biocompatibility and stability of these NPs [28]. Furthermore, this approach enables the cost-effective and high-yield mass production of TiO₂ NPs. These NPs are dependable and safe for use, as the method does not involve high temperatures, high pressure, excessive energy, or toxic chemicals [29].

The biocompatible synthesis technology represents a modern and advanced approach compared to conventional methods. The traditional techniques for synthesizing TiO₂ NPs are expensive and have negative impacts on both human health and the environment [30]. The distinctions between biocompatible and conventional TiO₂ NPs are outlined in [31].

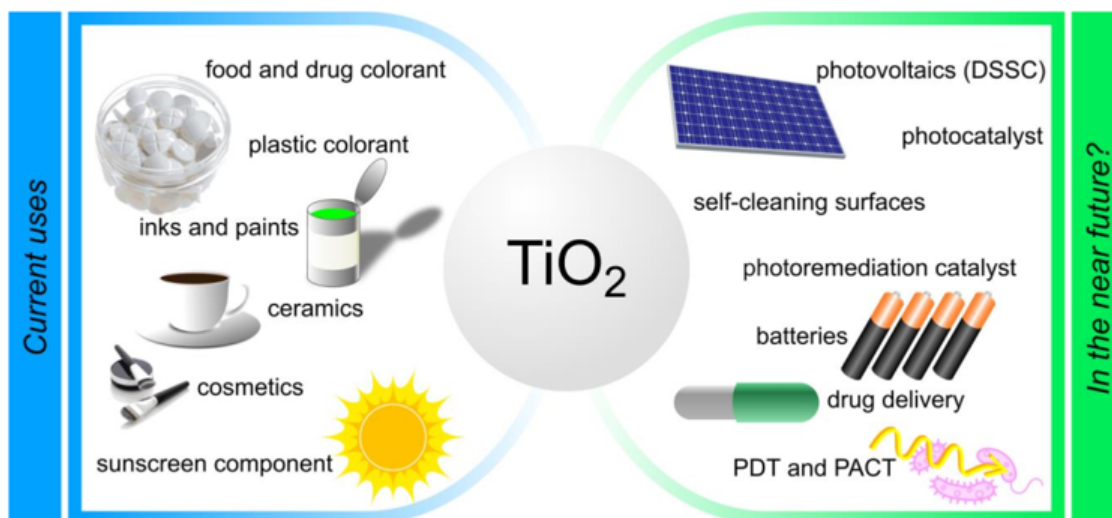


Fig. 2. Existing applications and potential future use of TiO_2 ; PACT – antimicrobial photodynamic therapy; PDT – photodynamic therapy; DSSC – dye-sensitized solar cell [32].

2.1.3 Traditional and biological production

Several factors play a role in regulating the synthesis of TiO_2 NPs, rendering them suitable for applications in medical and dental fields. These key factors that contribute significantly encompass the overall duration, environmental parameters, temperature, synthesis procedures, pH of the solution, extract concentration, and the choice of raw materials, as illustrated. Temperature is a crucial factor that governs the synthesis of TiO_2 NPs through three different approaches. Physical methods demand the highest temperatures ($>350\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$), whereas chemical methods necessitate temperature levels below $350\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$. Conversely, TiO_2 NPs are synthesized through microbial means at temperatures below $100\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$, while plants utilize ambient temperature or lower. Therefore, the characteristics of the TiO_2 NPs are influenced by the temperature of the reaction medium [33].

The pressure applied to the reaction medium significantly affects the size and shape of biological and green TiO_2 NPs. Studies have shown that the rate of metal ion reduction in biological and green TiO_2 NPs is accelerated under ambient pressure, attributed to the use of natural biological agents. The overall incubation time in the reaction medium significantly affects both the type and quality of TiO_2 NPs produced through biological and green synthesis methods. Moreover, factors such as exposure to light, the synthesis procedure, and storage conditions play a substantial role in determining the characteristics of TiO_2 NPs synthesized through these methods. Over time, particle aggregation may occur, leading to either the growth or reduction in size of the particles, ultimately affecting their effectiveness and shelf life [33].

Modifying the shape and size of TiO_2 NPs has allowed for control over their melting point, subsequently influenc-

ing their properties. This implies that as the size of TiO_2 NPs falls within the nanometer scale range, their melting point is lowered. It is relatively straightforward to induce a shape transformation in TiO_2 NPs that exhibit various configurations but possess similar energy levels. These adaptable characteristics also have an impact on their various chemical properties [33]. The attributes of TiO_2 NPs are significantly affected by the surrounding environment. Individual TiO_2 NPs undergo a transformation into core-shell TiO_2 NPs either through interaction with substances or absorption by materials in the nearby environment. This transformation occurs through either corrosion or oxidation processes within the environment. The biological TiO_2 NPs exhibit greater thickness and size as a result of the coating that forms around them [38]. This coating may contribute to their potent characteristics. In a research study, zinc sulfide NPs swiftly altered their crystalline structure when transitioning from a wet to a dry environment. In a different investigation, the chemical properties of cerium-nitrate NPs underwent alterations when peroxide was introduced into their suspension medium [33].

3 TiO_2 NPs in Dental Applications

In the past, graphene and other NPs were extensively used due to their versatile features, which encompass excellent biocompatibility, physicochemical attributes, and antimicrobial effectiveness. Moreover, it exhibited high conductivity along with a substantial surface area. It demonstrated resistance to wear and friction and could serve as a stabilizing substrate for the NPs [34]. Moreover, graphene was a preferred material for a range of dental uses including bone grafting, tissue engineering, regeneration of pulp and periodontium, dental cements and adhesives, resins, teeth whitening agents, dental implants, col-

lagen membranes, and oral saliva biomarkers. Employing graphene in dentistry led to improved favorable results, however, its production for industrial applications posed significant challenges in terms of time and complexity [35]. This marked the first step towards introducing other biocompatible and economically viable nanomaterials in the future of nano dentistry. Out of these, a TiO₂ nanoparticle was ranked among the top five most prevalent, readily accessible, and suitable NPs for industrial applications. There has been a continuous increase in the global production of TiO₂ NPs, leading to greater availability for various industries. At present, TiO₂ NPs exhibit high biocompatibility, coupled with minimal toxicity and low allergenic potential, rendering them exceptionally well-suited for applications in the medical fields (Fig.2). TiO₂ NPs are versatile and flexible due to their remarkable properties, including enhanced strength, light weight, brightness, UV resistance, high density, cost efficiency, pure white color, and high resistance to corrosion. They also exhibit long-lasting chemical stability and durability [36]. Furthermore, these NPs exhibit elevated mechanical strength, excellent electrical conductivity, reduced thermal diffusivity, chemical stability, resistance to corrosion and wear, and limited thermal conductivity. In their pure state, these NPs are malleable and can be readily molded into various shapes and types, rendering them resistant to fatigue.

The favorable mechanical and physicochemical attributes of TiO₂ NPs, including size, shape, surface features, structure, texture, crystallinity, and phase state, can be readily achieved, rendering them superior to other metal oxide NPs. As stated in previous studies, the biocompatibility of these TiO₂ NPs is further attributed to their low ion release and stability. When inadvertently exposed to air, these NPs have the ability to form a protective TiO₂ layer on their surface. This prevents the metal inside the NPs from dissolving and undergoing alterations. The chemically inactive TiO₂ layer is pivotal for ensuring the biosafety and compatibility of these NPs within the human body [37]. Due to these diverse attributes, the application of TiO₂ NPs in the dental and medical sectors has witnessed a swift surge. Based on earlier studies, significant amounts of pure titanium, approximately 99.5%, with a small proportion of interstitial elements like carbon, oxygen, and nitrogen (around 0.5%), have been deemed secure, biocompatible, and devoid of allergenic properties for use in both dental and medical contexts. The findings of this study suggest that substantially higher quantities of titanium oxide would be necessary to elicit any allergic or toxic reactions in humans [38].

3.1 TiO₂ NPs in Orthodontics

Lately, TiO₂ NPs have been integrated into dental composite resin adhesives, enhancing their mechanical resilience and adding antimicrobial characteristics, particularly beneficial for bonding applications in orthodontics. Various

concentrations of TiO₂ NPs in standard composite resin demonstrated strong antibacterial effectiveness against *S. sanguinis* and *S. mutans*, with the highest shear bond strength to enamel observed at a 5% weight concentration [39]. TiO₂ NPs find application in orthodontic wires because of their enhanced stability, durability, biocompatibility, and lack of allergenic potential. TiO₂ NPs were also employed in surface treatments of orthodontic wires. Researchers observed that orthodontic wires lacking a surface coating of TiO₂ NPs exhibited increased bacterial adhesion (specifically *S. mutans*) in the oral cavity compared to orthodontic wires with a TiO₂ NPs surface coating [40]. Another study concluded that ceramic orthodontic brackets, when coated with TiO₂ NPs on their surface, exhibited the highest antimicrobial effectiveness against pathogenic bacteria (*S. mutans* and *C. albicans*) [41]. This highlights the significant contribution of TiO₂ NPs in the field of orthodontics [42].

3.2 TiO₂ NPs in dental implants

Dental implants are frequently composed of titanium owing to its robust mechanical and chemical characteristics. Dental implants incorporating TiO₂ NPs exhibit improved osteogenic and antibacterial properties. However, there remains a slight risk of periimplantitis, which can be mitigated by surface modification of the TiO₂ implant with additional materials. TiO₂ NPs are highly versatile and can be seamlessly integrated with various other elements without generating any harmful effects. Coating TiO₂ implants with zinc not only rendered them novel and cytocompatible but also heightened their antibacterial capabilities against *S. mutans* and *Porphyromonas gingivalis* [43].

Furthermore, enhancing the TiO₂ implant with multiple layers of TiO₂ NPs improved its adhesion and strength within the bone. The TiO₂ implants subjected to heat treatment also demonstrated robust viability of osteoblasts and exhibited antibacterial effectiveness against *Porphyromonas gingivalis* [44]. The TiO₂ implant treated hydrothermally demonstrated non-cytotoxicity towards mammalian cell lines and promoted increased calcium deposition from osteoblasts, along with displaying antimicrobial activity against methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* [45]. Therefore, it is crucial to hinder bacterial adhesion on implant surfaces, aiming to extend their lifespan, stability, and resilience by averting infections. Another noteworthy feature of TiO₂ NPs is their robust compatibility with blood, enabling straightforward surface modifications when utilized in conjunction with compatible implants [46]. The regeneration of nerves through Schwann cells towards dental implants is facilitated by the ceramic coating of HA nanocomposites onto the TiO₂ NPs [47]. Presently, innovative dental implants incorporating multiple layers of TiO₂ NPs are being introduced for use [48]. Because of the enhanced cell adhesion, proliferation, migration, differentiation, and superior wettability

of surfaces incorporating TiO₂ NPs, these particles have emerged as a promising method for producing robust scaffolds for implants. In a prior investigation, titanium surfaces were utilized for the growth of TiO₂ NPs in the form of nanotubes. These nanotubes were integrated with ZnO NPs, which had a diameter ranging from 20 to 50 nm, and they were firmly attached to the walls of the TiO₂ nanotubes. Implants primarily based on TiO₂ NPs exhibited potent antibacterial effects against *S. mutans* and *Porphyromonas gingivalis*, achieved through a gradual and steady release of zinc ions [49]. In a separate study, TiO₂ NPs were employed to create TiO₂ nanorod arrays (TNFRs) for the surface modification of implants. The Ti substrate modified with TiO₂ nano-arrays encouraged the attachment, growth, and differentiation of human periodontal ligament stem cells towards bone-forming cells. Furthermore, TiO₂ nanorod arrays (TNFRs) demonstrated enhanced antifungal and antibacterial characteristics [50]. The implants based on TiO₂ NPs and coated with hydroxyapatite nanocomposites were also effective in facilitating robust osseointegration with bone tissue [51].

3.3 TiO₂ NPs in oral disinfectants and mouthwashes

Dental caries, also known as tooth decay, is a prevalent oral disease characterized by the erosion of enamel and dentin surfaces of teeth caused by acid-producing bacteria. As a result, this initially results in the formation of white spots, which can ultimately lead to the loss of the tooth. The worldwide issue of tooth decay can be effectively prevented by using modern oral disinfectants containing metal oxide NPs, in contrast to conventional options like chlorhexidine [52]. Earlier studies have demonstrated the strong antimicrobial effectiveness of oral disinfectants containing TiO₂ NPs against *Streptococcus mutans*, the pathogenic species responsible for tooth decay or dental caries [53]. Furthermore, these oral disinfectants and mouthwashes incorporating TiO₂ NPs play a role in averting the development of white spots on the surfaces of teeth following orthodontic treatment [42].

3.4 TiO₂ NPs in dental restoration materials

The effectiveness of dental restorative materials relies heavily on their biological durability and chemical, mechanical, and physical characteristics. TiO₂ NPs have demonstrated highly efficient antimicrobial properties in various applications such as bases, composites, sealants, cements, adhesives, and lining materials. In a prior study, Garcia-Contreras et al. [26] demonstrated that the incorporation of TiO₂ NPs in glass ionomer cement introduces a new and durable restorative material in dentistry. This material exhibits stability, longevity, and the ability to resist strong chewing forces, thanks to its antimicrobial properties. The introduction of TiO₂ NPs into traditional com-

posite restorations led to the development of advanced nanocomposites. These exhibit compatibility with living cells and demonstrate antimicrobial effectiveness against *E. coli* and *S. aureus*, common culprits in the development of tooth decay or dental caries [54]. Furthermore, the incorporation of Ag into TiO₂ NPs has been employed as a restorative material because of its potent antimicrobial properties against *S. aureus* [55]. Incorporating varying concentrations of TiO₂ NPs into GIC restorative materials significantly affects their mechanical and physicochemical characteristics. In a research endeavor, GIC restorative material was enriched with TiO₂ NPs averaging a particle size of approximately 21 nm, aiming to scrutinize its mechanical and physicochemical attributes. When TiO₂ NPs were introduced, the titanium oxide NP-infused GIC exhibited a notable augmentation in flexural strength, hardness strength, compressive strength, enamel shear bond strength, and dentin shear bond strength compared to the conventional GIC restorative material [56]. In a separate investigation, introducing a blend of 2 wt% TiO₂ NPs and 1 wt% of CnC into the standard GIC restorative material resulted in an 18.9% increase in compressive strength and an impressive 151% surge in tooth enamel shear bond strength compared to the conventional GIC restorative material [57]. TiO₂, ZnO, and Ag NPs were integrated into the standard GIC at a concentration of 10% wt and subjected to assessments for their mechanical and physicochemical characteristics. The TiO₂ NPs employed in this investigation possessed a porous structure, rendering them more robust compared to ZnO NPs and Ag NPs. The TiO₂ NPs and ZnO NPs exhibited notably greater compressive strength, whereas the compressive strength of the Ag NPs was on par with the control group using conventional GIC restorative material [58]. Incorporating 3% (w/w) TiO₂ NPs into the GIC restorative material enhanced both its mechanical strength and antibacterial attributes, without compromising the material's fluoride release capacity. This highlights a distinct advantage of TiO₂ NP-induced GIC [59]. In various prior studies conducted by Elaska et al. and J. Sun et al., the introduction of TiO₂ NPs led to a notable enhancement in both mechanical strength and antibacterial properties, albeit limited to a concentration of up to 3% [60].

In a recent study conducted by A. Mansoor et al. [26], it was affirmed that the incorporation of 3 and 5 wt% TiO₂ NPs into the standard GIC led to a noteworthy augmentation in both flexural strength and compressive strength in comparison to the traditional GIC.

3.5 TiO₂ NPs in teeth whitening products

A TiO₂ nanoparticle has demonstrated enhanced cosmetic effects in teeth whitening in the field of dentistry. In a research study, TiO₂ NPs were introduced into a 3.5% hydrogen peroxide (H₂O₂) teeth whitening agent, leading to improved enamel aesthetics and color when compared to

the conventional 3.5% H₂O₂ whitening agent lacking TiO₂ NPs [61]. Nitrogen-doped TiO₂ NPs have demonstrated both antimicrobial properties and enhanced teeth whitening effects, while also reducing sensitivity [62]. Moreover, a blend of TiO₂/Ag NPs was employed in H₂O₂ as a teeth whitening agent and subsequently evaluated for its in vivo cytotoxicity. The blend of TiO₂/Ag NPs exhibited reduced cytotoxicity in comparison to the whitening agent containing only H₂O₂ [63].

In a prior investigation, a gel containing a combination of TiO₂ NPs and hydrogen peroxide (H₂O₂) was utilized to enhance the teeth whitening effectiveness of H₂O₂. Consequently, by incorporating TiO₂ NPs, the H₂O₂ concentration could be lowered to 6% without any discernible disparity in the whitening outcome compared to 35% H₂O₂. Moreover, tooth sensitivity was diminished when the H₂O₂ concentration was reduced to 6% along with the application of TiO₂ NPs [64].

3.6 TiO₂ NPs in acrylic resins

Poly-methyl-methacrylate (PMMA) stands out as the top choice for denture base resin, employed in the fabrication of dental prosthetics like complete and partial dentures. PMMA is preferred due to its compatibility with the body, safety, pleasing appearance, lightweight nature, and cost-effectiveness in dental prosthetics. The dental prostheses made from PMMA may experience a decrease in their physical, chemical, and mechanical attributes, leading to potential issues like voids, irregularities, pores, and cracks. Such imperfections diminish the mechanical characteristics [65] and elevate the proliferation of microorganisms on these prostheses. *Candida albicans* is the most harmful microorganism that adheres to these dental prostheses. If left unmanaged, it can lead to serious infections in the oral cavity [66]. The attributes of PMMA can be enhanced through the integration of nanotechnology [67].

TiO₂ NPs are also incorporated into PMMA acrylic resins to enhance their mechanical strength and hardness. Additionally, the incorporation of these NPs demonstrated improved photopolymerization and biocompatibility with minimal levels of cytotoxicity, mutagenicity, and genotoxicity [68]. The adhesive properties of TiO₂ NPs in PMMA of acrylic resins have been significantly improved for dental prosthesis. This has been achieved through the formation of a robust bond between the carbonyl group of PMMA and the hydroxyl group of TiO₂ NPs. This has led to enhanced physical, chemical, and mechanical properties of these prostheses [69]. Furthermore, it lessens the likelihood of pathogenic microorganisms, particularly *Candida albicans*, from thriving and multiplying. This is due to the augmented antimicrobial potency achieved by incorporating TiO₂ NPs [70]. TiO₂ NPs are viewed as the most favorable choice for incorporation into PMMA due to their comparatively lower explored toxicity on living cells compared to other types of NPs [71].

TiO₂ NPs exhibit a broad spectrum of activity against various microorganisms, encompassing both Gram-negative and Gram-positive bacteria as well as fungi. Previously, elevating the proportion of TiO₂ NPs in PMMA resulted in a notable enhancement of PMMA's antimicrobial properties, leading to a substantial reduction in bacterial adhesion [68]. The combination of TiO₂ and silicon dioxide nanofillers in PMMA exhibited enhanced antibacterial properties when exposed to UV light, leading to the degradation of microorganisms with extended exposure. This research affirmed that the incorporation of TiO₂ NPs with other elements, metals, and alloys for dental applications is both compatible and safe [72].

3.7 TiO₂ NPs in toothpaste formulations

Titanium Dioxide NPs are included in oral toothpaste formulations at concentrations ranging from 1% to 10% by weight, aiming to prevent sensitivity and tooth decay. They use these NPs in oral toothpaste formulations with an average particle size falling between 100 and 300 nm. These particles readily dissolve in enamel, dentin, and cementum, effectively preventing the development of tooth decay and sensitivity [73].

The robust connection between organic compounds in dental tissues (enamel) and TiO₂ NPs enables a controlled release of fluoride from oral dentifrices, which becomes embedded in the tooth's structure. Over time, the tooth's matrix experiences reduced solubility and a gradual decrease in fluoride release [74]. Moreover, earlier studies provide evidence that heightened adherence of TiO₂ NPs to dental tissues, specifically enamel, leads to a reduction in the size of hydroxyapatite crystals in enamel. This results in enhanced hue, value, and chroma, which preserves the natural color of human tooth enamel [75].

3.8 TiO₂ NPs in dental bonding agents

Dental bonding agents are minimally invasive restorative materials commonly utilized in dentistry. Dentin adhesives are the most frequently employed bonding agents in dentistry. Over time, the connection between the dentin adhesive and the dentin surface weakens and becomes less secure [76]. This happens because of the collagen-rich, water-absorbing characteristics of dentin and the breakdown of the robust covalent bond between them due to hydrolytic degradation. Ultimately, the adhesive bond to the dentin surface completely breaks down. The addition of TiO₂ NPs in adhesives has been explored to study their adherence to human teeth [77]. In a recent study where TiO₂ NPs were integrated into dental adhesives, it was determined that they exhibited improved biocompatibility along with reduced solubility and water absorption in comparison to traditional adhesives utilized in dentistry. Therefore, it is strongly advised to incorporate these NPs in the present adhesive dentistry practices

. A different study explained that the inclusion of TiO₂ NPs in self-adhesive cements resulted in a higher degree of conversion (DC) compared to traditional varieties [78]. TiO₂ NPs, when employed as fillers, have the potential to enhance the mechanical and physicochemical characteristics of adhesives. Therefore, TiO₂ NPs exhibit significant potential as strengthening additives in dental adhesives, offering a range of benefits [79].

In the past, researchers combined TiO₂ NPs with a light-curable orthodontic composite paste to create resin composite adhesives enriched with TiO₂ NPs. These adhesives effectively minimized enamel demineralization and added antibacterial features to dental adhesive systems. The shear bond strength and adhesive remnant index of the nanocomposites containing TiO₂ NPs closely matched those of the control composite [75]. In a separate study, nanocarbons that included TiO₂ NPs were combined to create a biomineralized adhesive material used in dentistry. The newly developed nano-adhesive, which includes TiO₂, demonstrated photocatalytic properties that disrupted bacterial acidity. Furthermore, it showed a beneficial influence on tooth re-mineralization in simulated body fluids [80].

3.9 TiO₂ NPs in dental prosthesis (Veneers, Crowns, and Bridges)

Enhancing both the strength and visual appeal of teeth involves substituting the outer enamel layers with synthetic materials like sapphire, diamond, and ceramics, chosen for their excellent biocompatibility and aesthetic qualities. The susceptibility of these materials to breakage due to their brittleness is mitigated by the incorporation of NPs, thereby enhancing their mechanical attributes [81].

Presently, titanium dioxide NPs (TiO₂ NPs) are integrated into ceramics to elevate both the visual appeal and mechanical strength of crowns and bridges. The inclusion of TiO₂ NPs in ceramics not only improved their visual appeal but also their mechanical attributes compared to conventional ceramics lacking TiO₂ NPs. This was achievable thanks to its pure white appearance, resistance to fatigue, light weight, low elastic modulus, biocompatibility, corrosion resistance, and strength [82].

Titanium is a naturally occurring, abundant, and pure element known for its low toxicity and absence of allergic reactions, distinguishing it from other metals and elements utilized in dental prosthetics like cobalt, beryllium, nickel, iron, steel, stainless steel, chromium, and so forth. Therefore, TiO₂ NPs are regarded as biologically safe, compatible with living tissues, readily accessible, and cost-effective nanomaterials suitable for incorporation in dental prosthetics like veneers, crowns, and bridges utilized in the oral cavity [83].

3.10 TiO₂ NPs in Scaffolds/Bone grafting for maxillofacial applications

Naturally, bone is a material on a nano-scale, with dimensions smaller than 100 nm. The materials employed for bone grafts in the maxillofacial regions, encompassing the face, oral cavity, head, neck, ear, and nose, typically consist of composites primarily composed of organic compounds (predominantly collagen) reinforced with inorganic elements. The nano-crystallites exhibit an open microstructure, with nanopores distributed among the crystallites. The structure of this material will be finalized by filling the pores on the micrometer scale. Through this process, a textured surface area is generated at the interface between the biomaterial and the cell, which is crucial for promoting rapid cell proliferation. Bone graft materials should possess specific characteristics, including the ability to induce bone formation, easy processability, non-sintering properties, synthetic composition, high porosity, nanostructured form, and the capacity to undergo degradation through osteoclast activity [84].

TiO₂ NPs find application in bone grafting due to the heightened strength, biocompatibility, low elasticity modulus, corrosion resistance, and remarkably lightweight nature of titanium in graft compositions, surpassing other metals and elements. These attributes collectively render titanium an excellent biomaterial, particularly for its incorporation into the human body in the shape of metal prostheses. Furthermore, titanium is the preferred material for crafting internal metal plates, wires, and meshes, including fracture fixations, cranioplasty plates, cranioplasty meshes, cranioplasty wires, and coronary artery stents [85]. Moreover, titanium scaffolds and meshes, along with prostheses, are widely recognized for their use in procedures involving nose, eye, maxilla, mandible, ear reconstruction, and ossicular replacements [86].

3.11 TiO₂ NPs in endodontics

Titanium and its metal oxide alloy, also referred to as titanium oxide, are employed in the fabrication of maxillary and mandibular obturators, as well as in the production of files, spreaders, carvers, and reamers [86]. Dental tools crafted from a blend of nickel and titanium are highly favored for endodontic procedures due to their flexibility, which renders them resistant to fractures. Examples include files, spreaders, carvers, and more [87].

4 TiO₂ NPs: A Highly Compatible Material for Medical and Dental Uses

The perfect oral biomaterial should demonstrate excellent thermal, optical, electrical, biological, mechanical, physical, and chemical characteristics, coupled with exceptional biocompatibility. The TiO₂ NPs encompass nearly all the attributes of an optimal oral biomaterial. Hence, they are

employed as antimicrobial agents, in dental restorative materials, dental prosthetics, to diminish bacterial adherence to tooth surfaces, offering defense against dental caries, acting as bleaching agents, contributing to dental implants, and playing a role in orthodontics. These TiO₂ NPs demonstrated lasting benefits for dental implants. Surface modifications offer numerous advantages, including reduced bacterial attachment, increased hardness, biocompatibility, minimal toxicity, chemical stability, low density, notable adsorption capacity, cost-effectiveness, potent antimicrobial properties, and enhanced mechanical characteristics. They also demonstrated exceptional functionality, enduring stability, robustness against fatigue, high mechanical strength, low thermal diffusion, exceptional lightness, resistance to corrosion and wear, elevated electrical conductivity, and low thermal conductivity. This serves to bolster their stability, sustainability, and overall longevity. Due to their significantly augmented mechanical strength, hardness, lightweight nature, and pale coloration, they have emerged as the most versatile, cutting-edge, and flexible nanomaterials. TiO₂ NPs exhibit a wide range of antimicrobial properties, including antibacterial, anti-bactericidal, antiparasitic, and antifungal activity, targeting various pathogenic microorganisms such as Gram-negative bacteria, Gram-positive bacteria, parasites, and fungi. TiO₂ NPs are considered safe, and they have received approval from the FDA for use in human food, pharmaceuticals, cosmetics, and materials that come into contact with food [88]. Earlier studies [89] investigating biosafety and biocompatibility found no cytotoxic effects within various concentration ranges (1–20) mg/cm² following oral administration. Even at the highest dosage of 1000 mg/kg BW/day, no signs of toxicity or allergic reactions were observed upon exposure to TiO₂. Numerous studies have indicated that the ingestion of varying doses of TiO₂ NPs per kilogram of body weight did not result in significant uptake of TiO₂ from the gastrointestinal tract into the bloodstream or various internal organs. It was also observed that absorption from the gastrointestinal tract into the blood, urine, and other organs was minimal.

5 Conclusions and futures prospects

TiO₂ NPs are considered safe for use in advanced medical and dental applications due to their compatibility with biological systems, lack of adverse effects, and absence of allergic reactions with human tissues. To date, attributes such as size, shape, phase structure, surface morphology, coating, and surface texture have been recognized as key factors influencing their biocompatibility. Recent investigations into TiO₂ NPs emphasize that the synthesis method plays a crucial role in determining their biocompatibility, further supporting their suitability for medical and dental uses. This is attributed to the controllability of the synthesis process, which involves factors such as temperature, pressure, pH, melting point, environment, and stability of the solution medium employed in the production of these

NPs. Furthermore, these TiO₂ NPs are both cost-effective and readily accessible, which is the primary factor driving their utilization. Hence, upcoming research should integrate the optimal synthesis method to generate TiO₂ NPs that are both biologically safe and compatible, as well as environmentally friendly. These can then be employed in cutting-edge nanomedicine and nano dentistry.

Conflict of Interest: The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

Financing: The study was performed without external funding.

Ethical consideration: The study was approved by College of Dentistry, Ilam University.

Data Availability: No data was used for the research described in the article.

REFERENCES

- [1] Besegato JF, de Melo PBG, Tamae PE, Alves APAR, Rondón LF, Leanse LG, et al. How can biophotonics help dentistry to avoid or minimize cross infection by SARS-CoV-2? Photodiagnosis and Photodynamic Therapy. 2022;37:102682. doi:10.1016/j.pdpdt.2021.102682.
- [2] Olin SS. The relevance of the rat lung response to particle overload for human risk assessment: a workshop consensus report. Inhalation toxicology. 2000;12(1-2):1-17. doi:10.1080/08958370050029725.
- [3] Aslam M, Abdullah AZ, Rafatullah M. Recent development in the green synthesis of titanium dioxide nanoparticles using plant-based biomolecules for environmental and antimicrobial applications. Journal of Industrial and Engineering Chemistry. 2021;98:1-16. doi:10.1016/j.jiec.2021.04.010.
- [4] Baranowska-Wójcik E, Szwajgier D, Oleszczuk P, Winiarska-Mieczan A. Effects of titanium dioxide nanoparticles exposure on human health—a review. Biological trace element research. 2020;193:118-29. doi:10.1007/s12011-019-01706-6.
- [5] Nabi G, Khalid N, Tahir MB, Rafique M, Rizwan M, Hussain S, et al. A review on novel eco-friendly green approach to synthesis TiO₂ nanoparticles using different extracts. Journal of Inorganic and Organometallic Polymers and Materials. 2018;28:1552-64. doi:10.1007/s10904-018-0812-0.
- [6] Kubacka A, Diez MS, Rojo D, Bargiela R, Cioridia S, Zapico I, et al. Understanding the antimicrobial mechanism of TiO₂-based nanocomposite films in a pathogenic bacterium. Scientific reports. 2014;4(1):4134. doi:10.1038/srep04134.

- [7] Yin ZF, Wu L, Yang HG, Su YH. Recent progress in biomedical applications of titanium dioxide. *Physical chemistry chemical physics*. 2013;15(14):4844-58. doi:10.1039/C3CP43938K.
- [8] Comune M, Rai A, Palma P, TondaTuro C, Ferreira L. Antimicrobial and pro-angiogenic properties of soluble and nanoparticle-immobilized LL37 peptides. *Biomaterials Science*. 2021;9(24):8153-9. doi:10.1039/D1BM01034D.
- [9] Abushowmi TH, AlZaher ZA, Almaskin DF, Qaw MS, Abualsaud R, Akhtar S, et al. Comparative effect of glass fiber and nano-filler addition on denture repair strength. *Journal of Prosthodontics*. 2020;29(3):261-8. doi:10.1111/jopr.13124.
- [10] Sodagar A, Akhoundi MSA, Bahador A, Jalali YF, Behzadi Z, Elhaminejad F, et al. Effect of TiO₂ nanoparticles incorporation on antibacterial properties and shear bond strength of dental composite used in Orthodontics. *Dental press journal of orthodontics*. 2017;22:67-74. doi:10.1590/2177-6709.22.5.067-074.oar.
- [11] Bertani R, Bartolozzi A, Pontefisso A, Quaresimin M, Zappalorto M. Improving the antimicrobial and mechanical properties of epoxy resins via nanomodification: An Overview. *Molecules*. 2021;26(17):5426. doi:10.3390/molecules26175426.
- [12] Chambers C, Stewart S, Su B, Jenkinson H, Sandy J, Ireland A. Silver doped titanium dioxide nanoparticles as antimicrobial additives to dental polymers. *Dental Materials*. 2017;33(3):e115-23. doi:10.1016/j.dental.2016.11.008.
- [13] Wang WN, Lenggoro IW, Terashi Y, Kim TO, Okuyama K. One-step synthesis of titanium oxide nanoparticles by spray pyrolysis of organic precursors. *Materials Science and Engineering: B*. 2005;123(3):194-202.
- [14] Balayeva NO, Mamiyev Z, Dillert R, Zheng N, Bahnemann DW. Rh/TiO₂-photocatalyzed acceptorless dehydrogenation of N-heterocycles upon visible-light illumination. *ACS Catalysis*. 2020;10(10):5542-53. doi:10.1021/acscatal.0c00556.
- [15] Roy A, Elzaki A, Tirth V, Kajoak S, Osman H, Algahani A, et al. Biological synthesis of nanocatalysts and their applications. *Catalysts*. 2021;11(12):1494. doi:10.3390/catal11121494.
- [16] Giacaman RA. Sugars and beyond. The role of sugars and the other nutrients and their potential impact on caries. *Oral Diseases*. 2018;24(7):1185-97. doi:10.1111/odi.12778.
- [17] Thakkar KN, Mhatre SS, Parikh RY. Biological synthesis of metallic nanoparticles. *Nanomedicine: nanotechnology, biology and medicine*. 2010;6(2):257-62.
- [18] Nadeem M, Tungmunthum D, Hano C, Ab-basi BH, Hashmi SS, Ahmad W, et al. The current trends in the green syntheses of titanium oxide nanoparticles and their applications. *Green chemistry letters and reviews*. 2018;11(4):492-502. doi:10.1080/17518253.2018.1538430.
- [19] Joshi DR, Adhikari N. An overview on common organic solvents and their toxicity. *Journal of Pharmaceutical Research International*. 2019;28(3):1-18. doi:10.9734/jpri/2019/v28i330203.
- [20] Grewal AS, Kumar K, Redhu S, Bhardwaj S. Microwave assisted synthesis: a green chemistry approach. *International Research Journal of Pharmaceutical and Applied Sciences*. 2013;3(5):278-85.
- [21] Rahimi HR, Doostmohammadi M. Nanoparticle synthesis, applications, and toxicity. *Applications of nanobiotechnology*. 2019;10. doi:10.5772/intechopen.87973.
- [22] Kumar N, Ali S, Kumar B, Zafar MS, Khurshid Z. Hydroxyapatite and nanocomposite implant coatings. In: *Dental Implants*. Elsevier; 2020. p. 69-92. doi:10.1016/B978-0-12-819586-4.00005-6.
- [23] Liu N, Chen X, Zhang J, Schwank JW. A review on TiO₂-based nanotubes synthesized via hydrothermal method: Formation mechanism, structure modification, and photocatalytic applications. *Catalysis Today*. 2014;225:34-51. doi:10.1016/j.cattod.2013.10.090.
- [24] Kumar N, Fareed MA, Zafar MS, Ghani F, Khurshid Z. Influence of various specimen storage strategies on dental resin-based composite properties. *Materials Technology*. 2021;36(1):54-62. doi:10.1080/10667857.2020.1728058.
- [25] Ebnalwaled A, Essai MH, Hasaneen B, Mansour HE. Facile and surfactant-free hydrothermal synthesis of PbS nanoparticles: the role of hydrothermal reaction time. *Journal of Materials Science: Materials in Electronics*. 2017;28:1958-65. doi:10.1007/s10854-016-5749-x.
- [26] Mansoor A, Khan MT, Mehmood M, Khurshid Z, Ali MI, Jamal A. Synthesis and characterization of titanium oxide nanoparticles with a novel biogenic process for dental application. *Nanomaterials*. 2022;12(7):1078. doi:10.3390/nano12071078.
- [27] AbdelRahim K, Mahmoud SY, Ali AM, Almaary KS, Mustafa AEZM, Husseiny SM. Extracellular biosynthesis of silver nanoparticles using *Rhizopus stolonifer*. *Saudi journal of biological sciences*. 2017;24(1):208-16. doi:10.1016/j.sjbs.2016.02.025.
- [28] Kharissova OV, Dias HR, Kharisov BI, Pérez BO, Pérez VMJ. The greener synthesis of nanoparticles. *Trends in biotechnology*. 2013;31(4):240-8. doi:10.1016/j.tibtech.2013.01.003.

- [29] Ramaswamy V, Jagtap N, Vijayanand S, Bhange D, Awati P. Photocatalytic decomposition of methylene blue on nanocrystalline titania prepared by different methods. *Materials Research Bulletin*. 2008;43(5):1145-52. doi:10.1016/j.materresbull.2007.06.003.
- [30] Irshad MA, Nawaz R, ur Rehman MZ, Adrees M, Rizwan M, Ali S, et al. Synthesis, characterization and advanced sustainable applications of titanium dioxide nanoparticles: A review. *Ecotoxicology and environmental safety*. 2021;212:111978. doi:10.1016/j.ecoenv.2021.111978.
- [31] Li H, Duan X, Liu G, Jia X, Liu X. Morphology controllable synthesis of TiO₂ by a facile hydrothermal process. *Materials Letters*. 2008;62(24):4035-7. doi:10.1016/j.matlet.2008.05.056.
- [32] Ziental D, Czarczynska-Goslinska B, Mlynarczyk DT, Glowacka-Sobotta A, Stanisiz B, Goslinski T, et al. Titanium dioxide nanoparticles: prospects and applications in medicine. *Nanomaterials*. 2020;10(2):387. doi:10.3390/nano10020387.
- [33] Jameel MS, Aziz AA, Dheyab MA. Green synthesis: Proposed mechanism and factors influencing the synthesis of platinum nanoparticles. *Green processing and synthesis*. 2020;9(1):386-98. doi:10.1515/gps-2020-0041.
- [34] Kolahalam LA, Viswanath IK, Diwakar BS, Govindh B, Reddy V, Murthy Y. Review on nanomaterials: Synthesis and applications. *Materials Today: Proceedings*. 2019;18:2182-90. doi:10.1016/j.matpr.2019.07.371.
- [35] Li X, Liang X, Wang Y, Wang D, Teng M, Xu H, et al. Graphene-based nanomaterials for dental applications: principles, current advances, and future outlook. *Frontiers in Bioengineering and Biotechnology*. 2022;10:804201. doi:10.3389/fbioe.2022.804201.
- [36] Tamirat Y. The role of nanotechnology in semiconductor industry: Review article. *J Mater Sci Nanotechnol*. 2017;5:202. doi:10.15744/2348-9812.5.202.
- [37] Bhuvaneswarri J, Alam M, Chandrasekaran S, Sathya M. Future impact of nanotechnology in dentistry—A review. *Int J Nanotechnol App*. 2013;3:15-20.
- [38] Moghimi SM, Hunter AC, Murray JC. Nanomedicine: current status and future prospects. *The FASEB journal*. 2005;19(3):311-30. doi:10.1096/fj.04-2747rev.
- [39] Poosti M, Ramazanzadeh B, Zebarjad M, Javadzadeh P, Naderinasab M, Shakeri MT. Shear bond strength and antibacterial effects of orthodontic composite containing TiO₂ nanoparticles. *European journal of orthodontics*. 2013;35(5):676-9. doi:10.1093/ejo/cjs073.
- [40] Chun MJ, Shim E, Kho EH, Park KJ, Jung J, Kim JM, et al. Surface modification of orthodontic wires with photocatalytic titanium oxide for its antiadherent and antibacterial properties. *The Angle Orthodontist*. 2007;77(3):483-8. doi:10.2319/0003-3219(2007)077[0483:SMOOWW]2.0.CO;2.
- [41] Özyıldız F, Güden M, Uzel A, Karaboz I, Akil O, Bulut H. Antimicrobial activity of TiO₂-coated orthodontic ceramic brackets against *Streptococcus mutans* and *Candida albicans*. *Biotechnology and Bioprocess Engineering*. 2010;15:680-5. doi:10.1007/s12257-009-3005-4.
- [42] Amin F, Rahman S, Khurshid Z, Zafar MS, Seftat F, Kumar N. Effect of nanostructures on the properties of glass ionomer dental restoratives/cements: A comprehensive narrative review. *Materials*. 2021;14(21):6260. doi:10.3390/ma14216260.
- [43] Li H, Zhang S, Du Z, Long T, Yue B, et al. The antimicrobial peptide KR-12 promotes the osteogenic differentiation of human bone marrow stem cells by stimulating BMP/SMAD signaling. *RSC advances*. 2018;8(28):15547-57. doi:10.1039/C8RA00750K.
- [44] Ji MK, Oh G, Kim JW, Park S, Yun KD, Bae JC, et al. Effects on antibacterial activity and osteoblast viability of non-thermal atmospheric pressure plasma and heat treatments of TiO₂ nanotubes. *Journal of Nanoscience and Nanotechnology*. 2017;17(4):2312-5. doi:10.1166/jnn.2017.13328.
- [45] Vishnu J, Manivasagam VK, Gopal V, Garcia CB, Hameed P, Manivasagam G, et al. Hydrothermal treatment of etched titanium: a potential surface nano-modification technique for enhanced biocompatibility. *Nanomedicine: Nanotechnology, Biology and Medicine*. 2019;20:102016. doi:10.1016/j.nano.2019.102016.
- [46] Cheng Y, Yang H, Yang Y, Huang J, Wu K, Chen Z, et al. Progress in TiO₂ nanotube coatings for biomedical applications: a review. *Journal of Materials Chemistry B*. 2018;6(13):1862-86. doi:10.1039/C8TB00149A.
- [47] Yuan Q, He G, Tan Z, Gong P, Li XY, Chen ZQ, et al. Biocompatibility of nano-TiO₂/HA bioceramic coating for nerve regeneration around dental implants. *Key Engineering Materials*. 2007;330:1393-6. doi:10.4028/www.scientific.net/KEM.330-332.1393.
- [48] Yang WE, Huang HH. Multiform TiO₂ nano-network enhances biological response to titanium surface for dental implant applications. *Applied Surface Science*. 2019;471:1041-52. doi:10.1016/j.apsusc.2018.11.244.
- [49] Liu W, Su P, Chen S, Wang N, Ma Y, Liu Y, et al. Synthesis of TiO₂ nanotubes with ZnO nanoparticles to achieve antibacterial properties and stem cell compatibility. *Nanoscale*. 2014;6(15):9050-62. doi:10.1039/c4nr01531b.
- [50] Li Z, Qiu J, Du LQ, Jia L, Liu H, Ge S. TiO₂ nanorod arrays modified Ti substrates promote the adhesion, proliferation and osteogenic differentiation of human periodontal ligament stem cells. *Ma-*

- terials Science and Engineering: C. 2017;76:684-91. doi:10.1016/j.msec.2017.03.148.
- [51] Faria HAM, de Queiroz AAA. A novel drug delivery of 5-fluorouracil device based on TiO₂/ZnS nanotubes. *Materials Science and Engineering: C*. 2015;56:260-8. doi:10.1016/j.msec.2015.06.008.
- [52] Panpaliya NP, Dahake PT, Kale YJ, Dadpe MV, Kendre SB, Siddiqi AG, et al. In vitro evaluation of antimicrobial property of silver nanoparticles and chlorhexidine against five different oral pathogenic bacteria. *The Saudi dental journal*. 2019;31(1):76-83. doi:10.1016/j.sdentj.2018.10.004.
- [53] Besinis A, De Peralta T, Handy RD. The antibacterial effects of silver, titanium dioxide and silica dioxide nanoparticles compared to the dental disinfectant chlorhexidine on *Streptococcus mutans* using a suite of bioassays. *Nanotoxicology*. 2014;8(1):1-16. doi:10.3109/17435390.2012.742935.
- [54] Chen S, Yang J, Li K, Lu B, Ren L. Carboxylic acid-functionalized tio₂ nanoparticle-loaded pmma/peek copolymer matrix as a dental resin for 3d complete denture manufacturing by stereolithographic technique. *International Journal of Food Properties*. 2018;21(1):2557-65. doi:10.1080/10942912.2018.1534125.
- [55] Bilek O, Fialova T, Otahal A, Adam V, Smerkova K, Fohlerova Z. Antibacterial activity of AgNPs–TiO₂ nanotubes: influence of different nanoparticle stabilizers. *RSC advances*. 2020;10(72):44601-10. doi:10.1039/d0ra07305a.
- [56] Martin J, Vildosola P, Bersezio C, Herrera A, Bortolatto J, Saad J, et al. Effectiveness of 6% hydrogen peroxide concentration for tooth bleaching—A double-blind, randomized clinical trial. *Journal of dentistry*. 2015;43(8):965-72. doi:10.1016/j.jdent.2015.05.011.
- [57] Sun J, Xu Y, Zhu B, Gao G, Ren J, Wang H, et al. Synergistic effects of titanium dioxide and cellulose on the properties of glassionomer cement. *Dental Materials Journal*. 2019;38(1):41-51. doi:10.4012/dmj.2018-001.
- [58] Gjorgievska E, Van Tendeloo G, Nicholson JW, Coleman NJ, Slipper IJ, Booth S. The incorporation of nanoparticles into conventional glass-ionomer dental restorative cements. *Microscopy and microanalysis*. 2015;21(2):392-406. doi:10.1017/S1431927615000057.
- [59] Yang J, Mei S, Ferreira JM. Hydrothermal synthesis of nanosized titania powders: influence of tetraalkyl ammonium hydroxides on particle characteristics. *Journal of the American Ceramic Society*. 2001;84(8):1696-702. doi:10.1111/j.1151-2916.2001.tb00901.x.
- [60] Elsaka SE, Hamouda IM, Swain MV. Titanium dioxide nanoparticles addition to a conventional glass-ionomer restorative: influence on physical and antibacterial properties. *Journal of dentistry*. 2011;39(9):589-98.
- [61] Monteiro NR, Basting RT, Amaral FLBd, França FMG, Turssi CP, Gomes OP, et al. Titanium dioxide nanotubes incorporated into bleaching agents: physicochemical characterization and enamel color change. *Journal of Applied Oral Science*. 2020;28. doi:10.1590/1678-7757-2019-0771.
- [62] Zane A, Zuo R, Villamena FA, Rockenbauer A, Di-george Foushee AM, Flores K, et al. Biocompatibility and antibacterial activity of nitrogen-doped titanium dioxide nanoparticles for use in dental resin formulations. *International journal of nanomedicine*. 2016:6459-70. doi:10.2147/IJN.S117584.
- [63] Kurzmann C, Verheyen J, Coto M, Kumar RV, Divitini G, Shokoohi-Tabrizi HA, et al. In vitro evaluation of experimental light activated gels for tooth bleaching. *Photochemical & Photobiological Sciences*. 2019;18:1009-19. doi:10.1039/c8pp00223a.
- [64] Endo K, Ueno T, Kondo S, Wakisaka N, Muroso S, Ito M, et al. Tumor-targeted chemotherapy with the nanopolymer-based drug NC-6004 for oral squamous cell carcinoma. *Cancer science*. 2013;104(3):369-74. doi:10.1111/cas.12079.
- [65] Sakaguchi R. JM. Restorative materials composite and polymers. ed. Philadelphia: Elsevier Health Sci; 2012. doi:10.4103/0972-4052.246658.
- [66] Mehendale AV. 47. Adherence of candida albicans on polyamides in comparison with conventional acrylic surfaces—a short study. *The Journal of the Indian Prosthodontic Society*. 2018;18(Suppl 2):S71.
- [67] Ali Sabri B, Satgunam M, Abreeza N, N Abed A. A review on enhancements of PMMA denture base material with different nanofillers. *Cogent Engineering*. 2021;8(1):1875968. doi:10.1080/23311916.2021.1875968.
- [68] Alrahlah A, Fouad H, Hashem M, Ni-azy AA, AlBadah A. Titanium oxide (TiO₂)/polymethylmethacrylate (PMMA) denture base nanocomposites: mechanical, viscoelastic and antibacterial behavior. *Materials*. 2018;11(7):1096. doi:10.3390/ma11071096.
- [69] Cierech M, Szerszeń M, Wojnarowicz J, Łojkowski W, Kostrzewa-Janicka J, Mierzwińska-Nastalska E. Preparation and Characterisation of Poly (methyl metacrylate)-Titanium Dioxide Nanocomposites for Denture Bases. *Polymers*. 2020;12(11):2655. doi:10.3390/polym12112655.
- [70] Yoshijima Y, Murakami K, Kayama S, Liu D, Hirota K, Ichikawa T, et al. Effect of substrate surface hydrophobicity on the adherence of yeast and hyphal *Candida*. *Mycoses*. 2010;53(3):221-6. doi:10.1111/j.1439-0507.2009.01694.x.

- [71] Zaidi SJA, Shaikh AH, Kazmi S, Ahmad M, Afaq A, Mansoor A. Emergency Management Readiness of Pakistani Dentists at Public Sector Teaching Hospitals. *Pak J Med Dent*. 2022;11:78-84. doi:10.36283/PJMD11-1/013.
- [72] Xu HH, Moreau JL, Sun L, Chow LC. Nanocomposite containing amorphous calcium phosphate nanoparticles for caries inhibition. *Dental Materials*. 2011;27(8):762-9. doi:10.1016/j.dental.2011.03.016.
- [73] Afonso RL, Pessan JP, Igreja BB, Cantagallo CF, Danelon M, Delbem ACB. In situ protocol for the determination of dose-response effect of low-fluoride dentifrices on enamel remineralization. *Journal of Applied Oral Science*. 2013;21:525-32. doi:10.1590/1679-775720130309.
- [74] Koray M, Oner-Iyidogan Y, Soyman M, Gurdol F. The effects of fluorides and/or trace elements on the solubilities of enamel and cementum. *Journal of trace elements in medicine and biology*. 1996;10(4):255-9. doi:10.1016/S0946-672X(96)80044-7.
- [75] Ghadimi E, Eimar H, Marelli B, Nazhat SN, Asgharian M, Vali H, et al. Trace elements can influence the physical properties of tooth enamel. *SpringerPlus*. 2013;2:1-12.
- [76] Ferracane J. Models of caries formation around dental composite restorations. *Journal of dental research*. 2017;96(4):364-71. doi:10.1177/0022034516683395.
- [77] Sun J, Petersen EJ, Watson SS, Sims CM, Kassman A, Frukhtbeyn S, et al. Biophysical characterization of functionalized titania nanoparticles and their application in dental adhesives. *Acta biomaterialia*. 2017;53:585-97. doi:10.1016/j.actbio.2017.01.084.
- [78] Ramos-Tonello CM, Lisboa-Filho PN, Arruda LB, Tokuhara CK, Oliveira RC, Furuse AY, et al. Titanium dioxide nanotubes addition to self-adhesive resin cement: Effect on physical and biological properties. *Dental Materials*. 2017;33(7):866-75.
- [79] Ibrahim MA, Meera Priyadarshini B, Neo J, Fawzy AS. Characterization of chitosan/TiO₂ nano-powder modified glass-ionomer cement for restorative dental applications. *Journal of Esthetic and Restorative Dentistry*. 2017;29(2):146-56. doi:10.1111/jerd.12282.
- [80] Srinivasan S, Jayasree R, Chennazhi K, Nair S, Jayakumar R. Biocompatible alginate/nano bioactive glass ceramic composite scaffolds for periodontal tissue regeneration. *Carbohydrate Polymers*. 2012;87(1):274-83. doi:10.1016/j.carbpol.2011.07.058.
- [81] Huang L, Dai T, Xuan Y, Tegos GP, Hamblin MR. Synergistic combination of chitosan acetate with nanoparticle silver as a topical antimicrobial: efficacy against bacterial burn infections. *Antimicrobial agents and chemotherapy*. 2011;55(7):3432-8. doi:10.1128/AAC.01803-10.
- [82] Lautenschlager EP, Monaghan P. Titanium and titanium alloys as dental materials. *International dental journal*. 1993;43(3):245-53.
- [83] Chang HP, Tseng YC. Miniscrew implant applications in contemporary orthodontics. *The Kaohsiung journal of medical sciences*. 2014;30(3):111-5. doi:10.1016/j.kjms.2013.11.002.
- [84] Takahashi N, Nyvad B. The role of bacteria in the caries process: ecological perspectives. *Journal of dental research*. 2011;90(3):294-303. doi:10.1177/0022034510379602.
- [85] Agnihotry A, Fedorowicz Z, Nasser M, Gill KS. Resorbable versus titanium plates for orthognathic surgery. *Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews*. 2017;(10). doi:10.1002/14651858.CD006204.pub3.
- [86] Schmeidl K, Janiszewska-Olszowska J, Grocholewicz K, et al. Clinical features and physical properties of gummetal orthodontic wire in comparison with dissimilar archwires: a critical review. *BioMed Research International*. 2021;2021. doi:10.1155/2021/6611979.
- [87] Manoor A, Moeen F, Mehmood M, Hassan SMU, Ullah MU, Khan T. Correlation between microhardness and mineral content in the healthy tooth enamel of humans belonging to different age groups. *Pakistan Armed Forces Medical Journal*. 2019;69(6):1204-9.
- [88] Dąbrowska S, Chudoba T, Wojnarowicz J, Łojkowski W. Current trends in the development of microwave reactors for the synthesis of nanomaterials in laboratories and industries: a review. *Crystals*. 2018;8(10):379. doi:10.3390/cryst8100379.
- [89] Mansoor A, Hussain A, Hussain MW, Ahmad F, Mansoor E, et al. Effectiveness of bcg vaccination against sars-cov-2. *Pakistan Journal of Physiology*. 2021;17(3):40-4.

How to cite this article

Ali R.; Alwan A.H.; Titanium Dioxide Nanoparticles in Dentistry: Multifaceted Applications and Innovations. *Future Dental Research (FDR)*. 2023;1(1):12-25. doi: 10.57238/fdr.2023.144821.1001