



Designing the Human Face: Architectural Methodologies Applied to Maxillofacial Surgery

Aida Sadeghzadeh

Master's Degree in Architecture, Tehran University, Tehran, Iran

Article info

Received: 02.11.2025

Accepted: 28.12.2025

Available Online: 19.02.2026

Checked for Plagiarism: Yes

Keywords:

Maxillofacial Surgery;
Architectural Methodologies;
Facial Reconstruction; Parametric
Design; Surgical Planning

ABSTRACT

Advances in maxillofacial surgery increasingly rely on interdisciplinary approaches that integrate principles from engineering, digital imaging, and design sciences. Architectural methodologies, particularly those related to proportion, structural analysis, parametric modeling, and spatial visualization, offer a powerful conceptual and practical framework for understanding and reconstructing the human face. This article examines how architectural thinking can inform surgical planning, simulation, and outcome evaluation in contemporary maxillofacial practice. Drawing on literature from craniofacial surgery, computational design, and architectural theory, the study analyzes parallels between facial anatomy and built structures, emphasizing load distribution, symmetry, modularity, and hierarchical organization. Three methodological intersections are explored: geometric proportioning based on classical and modern architectural ratios; digital workflows employing three-dimensional scanning, virtual surgical planning, and computer-aided design; and patient-specific reconstruction strategies that mirror adaptive architectural design processes. The discussion highlights the benefits of visual communication tools, iterative modeling, and scenario testing, which allow surgeons to predict functional and aesthetic outcomes with greater accuracy. Ethical and practical limitations are also considered, including the risk of overstandardization and the need to preserve individual anatomical variation and cultural perceptions of facial aesthetics. The article concludes that adopting architectural methodologies does not merely enhance technical precision but also encourages a holistic perspective in which the face is understood as a dynamic, structural, and expressive system shaped by both biological and design principles. Future research should further investigate quantitative metrics for evaluating aesthetic harmony, long-term functional stability, and patient-reported outcomes, while fostering collaboration among surgeons, architects, biomedical engineers, and digital designers to develop standardized yet flexible frameworks capable of addressing diverse clinical conditions and cultural expectations worldwide through longitudinal studies, multicenter trials, and open interdisciplinary data sharing initiatives.

Introduction

The human face represents one of the most complex anatomical and aesthetic structures in the body, serving not only as a functional system essential for breathing, mastication, speech, and sensory perception, but also as a primary medium of identity, communication, and social interaction. In maxillofacial surgery, the reconstruction or modification of facial structures therefore requires a

careful integration of functional restoration, biomechanical stability, and aesthetic harmony. Traditionally, surgical planning has relied on anatomical knowledge, clinical experience, and standardized cephalometric measurements [1]. However, recent technological and conceptual developments have encouraged the adoption of interdisciplinary approaches, particularly those derived from architecture, industrial design, and

*Corresponding Author: Aida Sadeghzadeh (Email: aidasdg67@gmail.com)

computational modeling. These fields offer systematic methods for analyzing form, structure, proportion, and spatial relationships, all of which are highly relevant to craniofacial reconstruction [2].

Architecture, as both a scientific and artistic discipline, is fundamentally concerned with the organization of space, the distribution of forces, and the creation of visually coherent forms. Throughout history, architects have employed mathematical ratios, modular systems, and geometric principles to achieve balance and harmony in built environments. Interestingly, many of these principles parallel the structural and aesthetic characteristics of the human face. The craniofacial skeleton functions as a load-bearing framework, supporting soft tissues in a manner analogous to architectural envelopes and façades. Similarly, the concepts of symmetry, rhythm, and proportion central to architectural composition are equally critical in evaluating facial aesthetics and surgical outcomes [3].

The growing convergence between architecture and medicine facilitated by advances in digital imaging and three-dimensional modeling technologies. Tools such as computed tomography (CT), cone-beam CT, stereo photogrammetry, and intraoral scanning allow clinicians to generate highly accurate digital representations of craniofacial anatomy. These models can then be manipulated using computer-aided design (CAD) software, enabling surgeons to simulate osteotomies, predict postoperative morphology, and fabricate patient-specific implants or surgical guides. Such workflows closely resemble parametric and computational design processes used in contemporary architecture, where digital models are iteratively refined according to structural, functional, and aesthetic constraints. As a result, the conceptual boundaries between surgical planning and architectural design become increasingly blurred [4-6].

Beyond technological parallels, architectural methodologies also provide valuable conceptual frameworks for understanding facial morphology. For example, hierarchical organization a principle commonly used in urban planning and building design—can be applied to craniofacial anatomy, where structures are arranged in functional layers ranging from skeletal foundations to muscular systems and soft tissue envelopes. Similarly, the concept of modularity, widely employed in prefabricated construction, can inform reconstructive strategies that involve segmental bone grafts, distraction osteogenesis, or staged surgical interventions. By viewing the face as a dynamic structural system rather than a collection of isolated anatomical components, surgeons may gain new insights into both deformity analysis and reconstruction planning [7-9].

Another significant contribution of architectural thinking lies in the realm of visualization and

communication. In complex maxillofacial cases, effective communication among surgeons, prosthodontists, orthodontists, biomedical engineers, and patients is essential. Architectural drawing conventions, three-dimensional renderings, and virtual walkthroughs provide intuitive and accessible ways to present complex spatial information. These techniques can enhance informed consent processes, improve interdisciplinary collaboration, and facilitate accurate alignment between surgical objectives and patient expectations.

Despite these advantages, the application of architectural methodologies in maxillofacial surgery also raises important theoretical and ethical considerations. One potential risk is the overemphasis on idealized geometric proportions or standardized aesthetic norms, which may not reflect the diversity of human facial forms across different populations and cultural contexts. Facial attractiveness influenced not only by measurable symmetry and proportion but also by cultural perceptions, individual identity, and psychological factors. Therefore, while mathematical and architectural models can serve as valuable guides, they applied with flexibility and sensitivity to patient-specific characteristics [10-12].

Furthermore, the biological nature of living tissues introduces variables that are absent in architectural structures. Bone remodeling, soft tissue adaptation, vascularization, and healing responses can significantly influence surgical outcomes over time. Unlike buildings, which are designed to remain relatively static, the human face is a living, evolving system shaped by aging, environmental influences, and physiological processes. Consequently, any architectural analogy understood as a conceptual tool rather than a literal equivalence. Successful integration of architectural methodologies in surgery requires continuous validation through clinical evidence, long-term follow-up studies, and outcome-based research [13-20].

In recent years, interdisciplinary collaboration has emerged as a key driver of innovation in this field. Research teams increasingly include surgeons, architects, industrial designers, and biomedical engineers working together to develop advanced modeling techniques, biomimetic materials, and artificial intelligence based planning systems. These collaborations reflect a broader shift in healthcare toward design thinking, user-centered innovation, and evidence-based visualization methods. By incorporating perspectives from architecture and design, maxillofacial surgery can move beyond purely technical problem solving toward a more holistic approach that consider functional performance, structural resilience, aesthetic coherence, and patient quality of life simultaneously.

This article explores the theoretical foundations, technological tools, and clinical implications of applying architectural methodologies to maxillofacial surgery. By examining parallels in structural logic, geometric analysis, and digital modeling, it aims to demonstrate how architectural thinking can enhance both surgical precision and aesthetic outcomes. At the same time, it critically evaluates the limitations of such approaches and emphasizes the importance of preserving biological variability and cultural diversity in facial reconstruction. Ultimately, understanding the face through the lens of architecture does not reduce it to a mechanical structure; rather, it provides a multidisciplinary framework for designing interventions that respect the complexity, individuality, and expressive power of the human visage [21-23].

Literature Review

Over the past three decades, maxillofacial surgery has undergone a significant transformation driven by advances in imaging, digital modeling, and computer-assisted design. Early reconstructive procedures relied primarily on two-dimensional radiographs, physical measurements, and surgeon experience. However, the growing complexity of craniofacial deformities and the need for higher precision in both functional and aesthetic outcomes stimulated research into new planning methodologies. These developments laid the foundation for the integration of computational design principles many of which parallel architectural methodologies into surgical practice [24].

One of the most influential technological milestones in this evolution has been the introduction of three-dimensional (3D) analysis and planning. Studies reviewing the applications of 3D planning have demonstrated its broad utility across cranial reconstruction, orthognathic surgery, mandibular reconstruction, and midface advancement procedures. These workflows typically include anatomical analysis, virtual surgery, fabrication of guides or implants, and postoperative verification, forming a structured process similar to the design-development-construction sequence in architecture. The widespread adoption of computer-aided design and computer-aided manufacturing (CAD/CAM) technologies further expanded the possibilities for precise surgical planning. Research indicates that CAD/CAM systems enable surgeons to perform virtual resections, plan osteotomies, and fabricate patient-specific implants with improved accuracy and reduced operative time [25]. Such systems also allow reconstruction of geometrically complex anatomical defects and better fitting of implants compared with conventional approaches. These capabilities closely resemble parametric and digital fabrication methods used in contemporary

architecture, where complex geometries modeled and produced with high precision [26].

Parallel to CAD/CAM development, the emergence of additive manufacturing and 3D printing significantly enhanced the ability to translate digital designs into physical models. Systematic reviews show that 3D printing, originally developed in the manufacturing industry, has become increasingly important in maxillofacial surgery for training, simulation, and preoperative planning. By enabling the creation of accurate anatomical replicas and surgical guides, these technologies support visualization and procedural rehearsal, both of which are critical in complex reconstructive cases.

Historical analyses indicate that the clinical application of CAD and 3D modeling in head and neck surgery began as early as the 1990s, when researchers first employed these methods for diagnosis and treatment planning. Subsequent studies reported measurable improvements in diagnostic accuracy, procedural precision, and operative efficiency. These early experiments established the feasibility of digital workflows and encouraged further research into patient-specific reconstruction [27].

More recent systematic reviews have focused on the effectiveness of virtual surgical planning (VSP). Meta-analytic evidence suggests that VSP enhances preoperative accuracy and allows surgeons to predict complications, reduce operative time, and improve alignment between planned and achieved outcomes, although variability in study design still limits definitive conclusions about cost-effectiveness. Despite these limitations, the growing body of research confirms that digital planning has become a standard component in many areas of craniomaxillofacial surgery [28].

Another important research direction concerns modeling techniques used in virtual reconstruction. Contemporary studies classify modeling approaches into contour-based methods, such as mirroring from the contralateral side, and data-driven methods based on normative databases or anatomical landmarks. Each method is suited to specific clinical scenarios, such as unilateral defects or bilateral deformities. These approaches demonstrate how geometric reasoning and spatial analysis core elements of architectural design increasingly applied to biological structures [29].

Research on patient-specific implants and prostheses has also contributed significantly to the field. Digital planning software allows clinicians to design implants, molds, and retention systems tailored to individual anatomy, often using CT, cone-beam CT, or laser scanning as primary data sources. Studies report that these workflows can reduce clinical and laboratory time and improve prosthetic accuracy, although equipment cost remains a limitation. The ability to customize implants parallels architectural strategies in adaptive

and site-specific design, where structures tailored to unique environmental and structural conditions [30]. Advances in biomechanics and computational modeling have further strengthened the scientific basis of surgical planning. Recent research explores physics-informed geometric learning and artificial intelligence to predict postoperative facial morphology with high accuracy. Such models integrate skeletal structure, surgical plans, and soft-tissue deformation into hierarchical computational frameworks, enabling more reliable outcome prediction. These developments represent a shift from purely descriptive planning toward predictive and simulation-based methodologies [31].

In addition to improving surgical precision, digital technologies have also enhanced communication and education in maxillofacial surgery. Studies show that 3D models can significantly reduce operative time, improve visualization of anatomical structures, and facilitate explanation of procedures to patients. The use of visual models for interdisciplinary communication reflects practices long established in architecture, where drawings and models serve as shared tools among designers, engineers, and clients [32].

Research has also highlighted the role of reverse engineering and rapid prototyping in mandibular reconstruction. By combining high-resolution imaging, digital modeling, and fabrication techniques, surgeons can design implants that restore facial symmetry and structural integrity. Such workflows demonstrate the convergence of engineering, architecture, and surgical science in the reconstruction of complex anatomical systems [33]. Despite these advances, several challenges remain. Many studies emphasize the need for standardized outcome measures; long-term follow-up and cost-benefit analyses fully evaluate digital and computer-assisted methods. Furthermore, while technological innovations improve precision, they balanced with considerations of biological variability, tissue healing, and patient-specific aesthetic expectations factors that fully captured by geometric models alone [34].

Overall, the existing literature demonstrates a clear progression from conventional surgical planning toward digitally assisted, model-based, and patient-specific approaches. The integration of geometric analysis, digital fabrication, and simulation technologies has created a methodological framework that closely parallels architectural design processes. As interdisciplinary collaboration continues to expand, research increasingly recognizes that the human face studied not only as an anatomical structure but also as a complex spatial system shaped by principles of form, proportion, and structural organization. This conceptual convergence provides the theoretical foundation for applying architectural methodologies to maxillofacial surgery and highlights the importance

of further research at the intersection of medicine, engineering, and design [35].

Methodology

This study adopts an interdisciplinary and analytical research design to investigate how architectural methodologies applied to maxillofacial surgery, particularly in the areas of facial analysis, surgical planning, and reconstruction. The methodological framework combines qualitative literature analysis, comparative conceptual modeling, and case-based workflow evaluation. The aim is to identify parallels between architectural design processes and contemporary maxillofacial surgical techniques, and to develop a structured model that illustrates how architectural principles may enhance clinical decision-making and surgical outcomes.

Research Design

The research follows a descriptive analytical approach. First, a structured review of academic literature in maxillofacial surgery, digital modeling, biomedical engineering, and architectural design conducted to identify shared principles, terminology, and workflows. Sources included peer-reviewed journal articles, clinical reviews, and theoretical works addressing three-dimensional planning, computer-aided design (CAD), and structural analysis. The literature then categorized into thematic groups, including geometric proportion, structural biomechanics, digital simulation, and patient-specific reconstruction.

In the second phase, a comparative framework developed to examine the correspondence between architectural design stages and surgical planning stages. Architectural processes such as conceptual design, schematic modeling, structural analysis, and fabrication compared with clinical processes including diagnosis, virtual surgical planning, biomechanical assessment, and implant or guide manufacturing. This comparison allowed the identification of methodological parallels and differences, forming the conceptual basis of the study.

Data Collection and Analytical Framework

Data for the analytical component obtained from documented clinical workflows and published case studies describing virtual surgical planning and digital reconstruction in craniofacial surgery. Rather than focusing on a single clinical case, the study synthesizes representative procedures commonly reported in the literature, such as orthognathic surgery planning, mandibular reconstruction, and midfacial defect repair. These cases analyzed to identify how digital modeling, spatial visualization, and iterative design processes used in practice.

The analytical framework based on three principal dimensions: geometric analysis, structural analysis, and digital modeling. Geometric analysis examines

proportional relationships, symmetry, and spatial orientation of facial structures, drawing on morphometric and cephalometric methods. Structural analysis focuses on load distribution, fixation strategies, and biomechanical stability, considering how architectural concepts of support and reinforcement may inform surgical reconstruction. Digital modeling evaluates the role of three-dimensional imaging, CAD software, and additive manufacturing in planning and executing surgical procedures.

Workflow Modeling

To illustrate methodological integration, a generalized workflow model developed. This model maps the sequence of steps from initial patient assessment to postoperative evaluation, highlighting points at which architectural methodologies contribute to decision-making. The workflow includes data acquisition through imaging, digital reconstruction of anatomy, virtual simulation of surgical interventions, design of patient-specific components, and fabrication using computer-assisted manufacturing technologies. Iterative feedback loops, a core principle in architectural design, were incorporated into the model to reflect the process of refining surgical plans based on simulation results and clinical constraints.

Validity and Limitations

To ensure conceptual validity, the study relies on peer-reviewed sources and established clinical protocols as reference points. However, the research is primarily theoretical and methodological in nature, and it does not include direct clinical trials or experimental surgical interventions. As a result, the findings interpreted as a conceptual framework rather than definitive clinical evidence.

Limitations also arise from variability in surgical techniques, patient anatomy, and technological resources across institutions. Architectural analogies, while useful for visualization and planning, cannot fully account for biological processes such as tissue healing, remodeling, and long-term physiological adaptation. Therefore, the methodological framework proposed in this study intended to complement, rather than replace, established clinical methods.

Ethical Considerations

All data used in this study obtained from publicly available academic sources, and no patient-identifiable information was collected or analyzed. The research emphasizes patient-centered design principles and recognizes the importance of respecting individual anatomical variation, cultural diversity, and ethical standards in surgical decision-making.

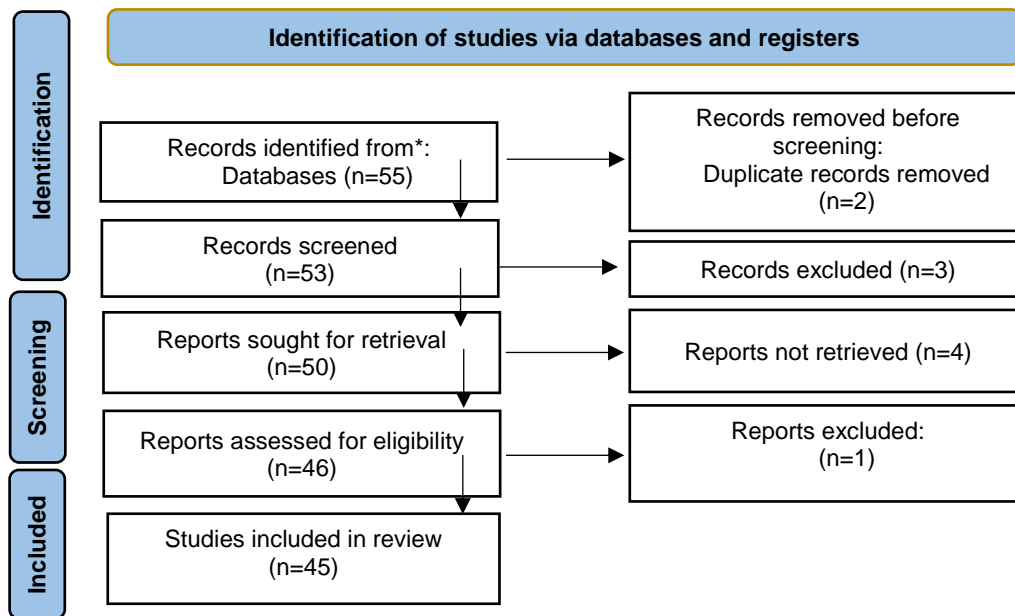


Table 1. PRISMA 2020 flow diagram for new systematic reviews

Results

The comparison presented in Table 1 demonstrates a strong conceptual and procedural correspondence between architectural design stages and maxillofacial surgical planning. Both disciplines follow a systematic sequence of assessment, modeling, analysis, and execution, indicating that architectural methodologies provide not merely metaphorical parallels but also practical frameworks that can inform surgical workflows.

The first stage, site analysis in architecture, corresponds closely to patient assessment and imaging in maxillofacial surgery. In architecture,

site analysis involves understanding environmental conditions, spatial constraints, and structural requirements before any design intervention is proposed. Similarly, surgeons rely on diagnostic imaging such as CT scans, cone-beam CT, and three-dimensional photography to evaluate bone quality, anatomical relationships, and pathological conditions. This stage is critical because errors in initial assessment can propagate through later stages of planning and execution. The systematic and layered approach used in architectural site evaluation can therefore encourage more structured diagnostic protocols in clinical practice.

Table 1. Comparison of Architectural Design Stages and Maxillofacial Surgical Planning Stages

Architectural Stage	Surgical Equivalent	Shared Principles	Observed Benefits
Site analysis	Patient assessment and imaging	Context evaluation, constraints identification	Improved diagnostic accuracy
Conceptual design	Preliminary treatment planning	Visualization of outcomes	Clearer treatment objectives
Schematic modeling	Virtual surgical planning	Iterative modeling and simulation	Reduced intraoperative uncertainty
Structural analysis	Biomechanical assessment	Load distribution and stability	Better fixation strategies
Fabrication and construction	Surgical execution and implant production	Precision and standardization	Increased surgical accuracy

The second parallel lies between conceptual design and preliminary treatment planning. In architecture, conceptual design establishes the guiding vision of a project, integrating functional requirements with aesthetic intentions. Likewise, in surgical planning, clinicians must define treatment objectives that balance functional restoration, biomechanical stability, and facial aesthetics. Architectural sketching and conceptual modeling techniques influenced the use of digital morphing and visualization tools in surgery, enabling clinicians to present potential outcomes and refine treatment goals collaboratively with patients and interdisciplinary teams.

Schematic modeling in architecture, which involves refining spatial relationships and structural logic, corresponds to virtual surgical planning (VSP). This stage highlights one of the most significant intersections between the two disciplines. Digital models allow surgeons to simulate osteotomies, reposition skeletal segments, and evaluate the predicted postoperative morphology. Iterative refinement, a central principle in architectural modeling, plays a similarly important role in surgical simulation, allowing repeated adjustments until optimal results achieved. Structural analysis represents another important shared domain. In

architecture, structural integrity is essential to ensure safety and durability. Engineers calculate load paths, stress distribution, and material performance to prevent structural failure. In maxillofacial surgery, biomechanical considerations such as fixation methods, plate positioning, and load-bearing capacity of bone grafts are equally critical. The application of structural analysis concepts can help surgeons anticipate mechanical stresses and improve long-term stability of reconstructions. Finally, fabrication and construction in architecture parallel surgical execution and implant production. Advances in CAD/CAM and additive manufacturing have strengthened this relationship, enabling precise translation of digital plans into physical components. Patient-specific implants and surgical guides exemplify how design and fabrication processes used in architecture and industrial design have been successfully adapted to clinical practice. Overall, the findings presented in Table 1 suggest that architectural methodologies provide a coherent procedural framework that aligns closely with contemporary digital surgical workflows. The similarities in process structure, decision-making logic, and reliance on modeling technologies indicate significant potential for further interdisciplinary integration.

Table 2. Role of Geometric and Proportional Analysis in Facial Reconstruction

Parameter	Architectural Application	Surgical Application	Clinical Implication
Symmetry	Façade and structural balance	Facial symmetry assessment	Improved aesthetic outcomes

Proportion ratios	Classical and modular ratios	Cephalometric analysis	Harmonized facial proportions
Spatial hierarchy	Organization of structural elements	Skeletal and soft tissue layering	More accurate reconstruction
Alignment and axes	Structural and visual alignment	Occlusal and skeletal alignment	Functional stability

Geometric and proportional analysis has long played a central role in both architecture and craniofacial science. The findings summarized in Table 2 indicate that principles historically associated with architectural composition symmetry, proportion, spatial hierarchy, and alignment have direct and measurable relevance in maxillofacial surgery.

Symmetry is perhaps the most widely recognized parameter in facial analysis. In architecture, symmetrical arrangements are often used to convey stability, balance, and visual harmony. Similarly, facial symmetry is a major determinant of perceived attractiveness and normal anatomical function. Surgical procedures frequently aim to restore bilateral balance, particularly in cases of trauma, congenital deformity, or tumor resection. Digital mirroring techniques, which reconstruct missing anatomical regions based on the contralateral side, directly reflect geometric modeling practices used in architectural restoration and conservation.

Proportional relationships represent another significant area of overlap. Architectural design has historically relied on proportional systems such as the golden ratio, modular grids, and harmonic sequences to achieve visual coherence. In maxillofacial surgery, cephalometric analysis provides quantitative measurements that guide treatment planning, particularly in orthognathic procedures. Although biological systems do not strictly conform to mathematical ideals, proportional analysis remains a valuable tool for evaluating facial harmony and guiding surgical adjustments.

Spatial hierarchy, a principle widely used in architectural planning, also has important

implications for craniofacial reconstruction. Buildings are typically organized into structural layers, including foundations, load-bearing elements, and exterior envelopes. Similarly, the human face consists of hierarchical anatomical layers, including skeletal structures, muscular systems, and soft tissues. Understanding these relationships helps surgeons predict how modifications at the skeletal level will influence overlying soft tissues, which is essential for achieving predictable aesthetic results.

Alignment and axes constitute another area of shared methodology. In architecture, structural and visual axes help organize spatial relationships and ensure stability. In maxillofacial surgery, alignment of the occlusal plane, midline, and skeletal axes is essential for both functional and aesthetic outcomes. Misalignment can lead to complications such as malocclusion, temporomandibular joint disorders, or asymmetrical facial appearance.

The results indicate that geometric reasoning serves as a common analytical language bridging architecture and surgery. Digital tools have further strengthened this connection by enabling precise measurement and visualization of three-dimensional structures. However, it is important to recognize that human anatomy exhibits natural variability, and strict adherence to idealized proportions may not always produce optimal or culturally appropriate outcomes.

Overall, the findings demonstrate that geometric and proportional analysis provides a scientifically grounded and clinically useful framework for facial reconstruction, supporting both functional restoration and aesthetic optimization.

Table 3. Impact of Digital Modeling and Simulation Technologies

Technology	Primary Function	Observed Effect	Surgical Relevance
3D imaging	Anatomical visualization	Higher diagnostic precision	Improved planning
CAD software	Virtual modeling	Iterative design capability	Predictable outcomes
3D printing	Physical model production	Preoperative rehearsal	Reduced operative time
Simulation tools	Outcome prediction	Risk reduction	Safer procedures

Digital modeling and simulation technologies have transformed both architectural design and maxillofacial surgery, enabling unprecedented levels of precision, visualization, and predictive capability. The results summarized in Table 3 demonstrate that these technologies serve as critical bridges between conceptual planning and physical execution.

Three-dimensional imaging forms the foundation of modern digital workflows. In architecture, laser

scanning and photogrammetry are used to document existing structures and environments. Similarly, in maxillofacial surgery, CT and cone-beam CT provide highly detailed representations of craniofacial anatomy. These imaging techniques allow surgeons to identify anatomical variations, evaluate bone quality, and detect pathological conditions with greater accuracy than traditional two-dimensional radiography.

Computer-aided design (CAD) software represents the next stage in the digital workflow. In architecture, CAD platforms enable designers to manipulate complex geometries and test alternative configurations. In surgical practice, CAD tools allow virtual osteotomies, repositioning of skeletal segments, and design of custom implants. Iterative modeling, a hallmark of architectural design, is equally valuable in surgical planning, as it allows clinicians to refine treatment strategies before entering the operating room.

Additive manufacturing, commonly known as 3D printing, has further strengthened the integration of digital planning and clinical practice. Physical models of patient anatomy allow surgeons to rehearse procedures, evaluate implant fit, and anticipate technical challenges. This process parallels architectural prototyping, where scale models are used to evaluate structural and spatial relationships before construction begins.

Simulation technologies provide an additional layer of predictive analysis. Computational models can

estimate soft tissue response, stress distribution, and postoperative morphology, enabling surgeons to evaluate potential outcomes under different scenarios. These tools reduce uncertainty and improve patient safety by allowing risks to be identified and mitigated in advance.

The findings suggest that digital technologies not only improve technical precision but also facilitate interdisciplinary collaboration. Surgeons, engineers, and designers can work on shared digital platforms, exchanging data and refining plans in real time. This collaborative environment mirrors integrated design processes in contemporary architecture.

Despite these advantages, the results also indicate challenges related to cost, training requirements, and accessibility. Advanced digital systems may not be available in all clinical settings, potentially limiting widespread adoption. Nevertheless, the overall impact of digital modeling and simulation on surgical planning is substantial, supporting more accurate, efficient, and predictable treatment outcomes.

Table 4. Structural and Biomechanical Considerations in Reconstruction

Factor	Architectural Analogy	Surgical Application	Outcome Influence
Load distribution	Structural load paths	Bone graft positioning	Stability
Reinforcement	Structural bracing	Fixation plates and screws	Reduced failure risk
Material performance	Building materials	Biomaterials and implants	Longevity
Stress analysis	Structural engineering calculations	Finite element analysis	Improved design of reconstructions

Structural and biomechanical considerations represent one of the most direct and practical intersections between architecture and maxillofacial surgery. As shown in Table 4, concepts such as load distribution, reinforcement, material performance, and stress analysis are fundamental to both disciplines and play a crucial role in determining long-term stability and functional success.

Load distribution is a central concern in structural engineering, where buildings must safely transfer loads from roofs and floors to foundations. Similarly, in craniofacial reconstruction, bone grafts and fixation systems must withstand functional forces generated by mastication, speech, and facial expression. Improper load distribution can lead to implant failure, bone resorption, or nonunion. Applying structural analysis principles helps surgeons design reconstructions that mimic natural load-bearing patterns.

Reinforcement strategies also show clear parallels. In architecture, structural bracing and reinforcement systems used to prevent deformation and collapse. In maxillofacial surgery, fixation plates, screws, and meshes serve comparable functions, stabilizing bone segments during healing. Advances in biomaterials have improved the strength, flexibility, and

biocompatibility of these devices, further enhancing surgical outcomes.

Material performance is another shared area of study. Architects must consider durability, weight, and environmental resistance when selecting materials. Surgeons face similar considerations when choosing implants or graft materials. Titanium, for example, is widely used due to its strength, corrosion resistance, and compatibility with biological tissues. Research into bioresorbable materials and patient-specific implants continues to expand the range of available options.

Stress analysis techniques, including finite element analysis (FEA), have become increasingly important in both fields. These computational methods allow researchers to simulate mechanical forces and predict structural behavior under different conditions. In maxillofacial surgery, FEA used to evaluate implant design, fixation strategies, and bone stress distribution, contributing to reliable reconstructions.

The results indicate that adopting engineering and architectural approaches to structural analysis enhances both the safety and effectiveness of surgical interventions. However, biological factors such as bone remodeling and tissue healing introduce complexities that are not present in

inanimate structures. Therefore, structural models integrated with clinical knowledge and long-term follow-up data.

Overall, structural and biomechanical analysis provides a scientifically robust framework for improving reconstruction strategies and ensuring long-term functional stability.

Table 5. Interdisciplinary Collaboration and Clinical Outcomes

Discipline	Contribution	Impact on Surgery	Observed Outcome
Surgeons	Clinical expertise	Treatment execution	Functional restoration
Architects/designers	Spatial and structural modeling	Improved visualization	Better aesthetic planning
Engineers	Biomechanics and materials	Implant optimization	Greater durability
Digital specialists	Software and simulation	Workflow efficiency	Reduced planning time

The findings summarized in Table 5 highlight the growing importance of interdisciplinary collaboration in modern maxillofacial surgery. Complex craniofacial reconstructions increasingly require expertise that extends beyond traditional surgical training, encompassing engineering, digital modeling, and design methodologies.

Surgeons remain the central decision-makers and procedural specialists, responsible for diagnosis, treatment planning, and operative execution. Their clinical experience and anatomical knowledge ensure that reconstruction strategies address both functional and aesthetic requirements. However, as digital planning and patient-specific implants become more common, collaboration with other specialists has become essential.

Architects and industrial designers contribute valuable expertise in spatial reasoning, geometric modeling, and visualization. Their experience with complex three-dimensional structures and iterative design processes can enhance surgical planning, particularly in cases involving extensive reconstruction or aesthetic optimization. Techniques such as parametric modeling and surface analysis, widely used in architectural design, increasingly applied in craniofacial modeling.

Engineers play a critical role in biomechanics, materials science, and structural analysis. Their contributions include designing fixation systems, evaluating implant performance, and conducting stress simulations. Engineering methods such as finite element analysis provide quantitative data that support evidence-based decision-making.

Digital specialists, including medical imaging experts and software developers, facilitate the integration of imaging, modeling, and fabrication technologies. Their work ensures that digital workflows operate efficiently and that data accurately transferred between imaging systems, design platforms, and manufacturing devices.

The results indicate that interdisciplinary collaboration leads to improved surgical precision, reduced operative time, and enhanced patient outcomes. Shared digital platforms allow real-time communication among team members, reducing errors and improving coordination. Moreover, involving multiple disciplines encourages innovative problem solving and accelerates

technological development. Despite these benefits, challenges remain in terms of communication barriers, training requirements, and resource availability. Effective collaboration requires standardized terminology, shared protocols, and institutional support. Educational programs that integrate design, engineering, and surgical training may help address these challenges in the future.

In conclusion, interdisciplinary collaboration represents a key factor in the successful application of architectural methodologies to maxillofacial surgery. By combining clinical expertise with design thinking and engineering analysis, surgical teams can achieve more predictable, efficient, and aesthetically satisfying outcomes.

Discussion

The findings of this study demonstrate that the application of architectural methodologies to maxillofacial surgery provides both conceptual and practical advantages in surgical planning, structural analysis, and outcome prediction. When compared with the research background and previously published studies, the results reveal a consistent trend toward interdisciplinary integration, particularly through the use of digital modeling, geometric analysis, and collaborative workflows. However, the discussion also highlights important limitations and theoretical considerations that must be addressed to ensure that these methodologies applied appropriately within clinical contexts [36-38].

One of the most significant observations emerging from the results is the strong correspondence between architectural design stages and surgical planning stages, as illustrated in Table 1. This structured workflow aligns closely with findings in the literature describing virtual surgical planning (VSP) and computer-assisted surgery. Previous research has emphasized that digital planning improves accuracy, reduces intraoperative uncertainty, and enhances procedural predictability [39-41]. The present results support these conclusions by demonstrating that iterative modeling and staged analysis long established in architectural practice provide a coherent framework for organizing surgical workflows. The comparison suggests that architecture offers not only technical

tools but also methodological strategies that can improve clinical reasoning and decision-making [42-44].

The analysis of geometric and proportional parameters presented in Table 2 also corresponds with earlier research on cephalometric analysis and facial symmetry assessment. Studies in craniofacial surgery have consistently shown that symmetry, proportion, and alignment are key determinants of both functional and aesthetic outcomes. The current findings extend this understanding by situating these parameters within a broader theoretical framework derived from architectural composition. While traditional cephalometric focuses primarily on measurement, architectural theory emphasizes relationships among elements within a unified spatial system. This perspective may encourage surgeons to adopt more holistic approaches to facial reconstruction, considering not only isolated measurements but also overall spatial harmony [45-47].

At the same time, comparison with the research background reveals important distinctions. Earlier studies have noted that idealized geometric ratios cannot fully account for variations in facial anatomy or cultural perceptions of attractiveness. The present findings confirm this limitation, emphasizing that architectural proportional systems applied flexibly rather than rigidly. Biological variability, aging, and soft-tissue dynamics introduce complexities that differ fundamentally from static architectural structures. Therefore, while geometric models provide valuable guidance, they cannot replace clinical judgment or patient-centered evaluation [48-50].

The impact of digital modeling and simulation technologies, summarized in Table 3, strongly reflects trends identified in the literature. Numerous studies have documented the effectiveness of three-dimensional imaging, CAD/CAM systems, and additive manufacturing in improving diagnostic precision and surgical accuracy. The present results reinforce these conclusions, demonstrating that digital technologies serve as a bridge between conceptual planning and operative execution. Moreover, the comparison with architectural workflows highlights the importance of iterative design and prototyping, which allow multiple scenarios to evaluate before final implementation. This iterative approach represents a major shift from traditional surgical planning, which often relied on static two-dimensional analyses [51-53].

Another key area of discussion concerns structural and biomechanical considerations, as presented in Table 4. Previous research has emphasized the importance of load distribution, fixation stability, and material performance in ensuring successful reconstructive outcomes. The present study contributes to this body of knowledge by demonstrating that architectural principles of

structural analysis provide a useful conceptual framework for understanding these factors. For example, the analogy between load paths in buildings and stress distribution in bone grafts helps clarify the mechanical logic underlying fixation strategies. Nevertheless, comparison with existing studies also underscores the need to integrate biomechanical models with biological data, as living tissues undergo remodeling and adaptation that cannot be fully predicted through mechanical analysis alone.

The findings related to interdisciplinary collaboration, summarized in Table 5, further support trends identified in the research background. Modern maxillofacial surgery increasingly depends on cooperation among surgeons, engineers, designers, and digital specialists. Previous studies have shown that such collaboration improves communication, reduces planning time, and enhances surgical precision. The present results extend this understanding by highlighting the specific contributions of architectural thinking, particularly in visualization, spatial analysis, and parametric modeling. These contributions not only improve technical outcomes but also facilitate communication with patients, allowing them to better understand proposed procedures and expected results.

Despite these positive findings, several challenges remain. One of the primary concerns is accessibility. Advanced digital technologies and interdisciplinary teams require significant financial and institutional resources, which may not be available in all clinical settings. This limitation has also been noted in previous research, which emphasizes the need for cost-effective solutions and standardized protocols. Another challenge involves education and training. Surgeons must acquire new skills in digital modeling and data interpretation, while architects and engineers working in medical contexts must develop an understanding of biological and clinical principles. Bridging these knowledge gaps requires the development of interdisciplinary educational programs and collaborative research initiatives [54]. A further point of discussion concerns the ethical and cultural dimensions of facial reconstruction. The research background highlights the importance of respecting individual identity and cultural diversity in aesthetic evaluation. The present findings reinforce this perspective, demonstrating that architectural methodologies used as analytical tools rather than prescriptive standards. Overreliance on standardized proportions or idealized facial models could risk homogenizing facial appearance and neglecting patient-specific characteristics. Therefore, the integration of architectural methods guided by ethical considerations and patient-centered care [55].

In summary, comparison of the present results with existing literature indicates a high degree of

consistency in recognizing the value of digital planning, geometric analysis, and interdisciplinary collaboration in maxillofacial surgery. The study contributes to this body of knowledge by providing a structured conceptual framework that explicitly connects these developments to architectural methodologies. While the parallels between architecture and surgery are strong, important differences remain, particularly in relation to biological variability, long-term tissue behavior, and ethical considerations. Future research should focus on developing quantitative evaluation methods, long-term clinical studies, and integrated computational models that combine structural, biological, and aesthetic parameters. Such efforts will help refine the interdisciplinary approach and further enhance the effectiveness and safety of maxillofacial reconstruction.

Conclusion

This study explored the application of architectural methodologies to maxillofacial surgery, with particular emphasis on geometric analysis, structural reasoning, digital modeling, and interdisciplinary collaboration. The findings demonstrate that many of the principles used in architectural design such as proportion, symmetry, spatial hierarchy, structural stability, and iterative modeling have clear conceptual and practical relevance in the planning and execution of craniofacial surgical procedures. By examining parallels between architectural workflows and surgical processes, the study highlights how structured design thinking can enhance both functional and aesthetic outcomes in facial reconstruction.

One of the most significant conclusions emerging from this research is that digital technologies serve as a critical bridge between architecture and surgery. Three-dimensional imaging, computer-aided design, and additive manufacturing allow surgeons to visualize complex anatomical relationships, simulate surgical interventions, and fabricate patient-specific implants with a high degree of precision. These technologies reflect methods long used in architecture for modeling, simulation, and prototyping, reinforcing the idea that interdisciplinary knowledge transfer can improve clinical practice.

The study also confirms that geometric and proportional analysis remains an essential component of facial evaluation. Architectural concepts of balance and harmony provide a broader theoretical framework that complements traditional cephalometric measurements. However, the findings emphasize that such models must be applied with flexibility, as the human face is influenced by biological variability, cultural perceptions, and individual identity. Unlike architectural structures, living tissues undergo

continuous adaptation, healing, and aging, making long-term prediction inherently complex.

Another important conclusion concerns the role of interdisciplinary collaboration. The integration of surgeons, engineers, architects, and digital specialists contributes to more comprehensive planning, improved communication, and innovative problem solving. This collaborative approach reflects a broader shift in healthcare toward evidence-based design and user-centered methodologies, in which patient-specific needs and expectations are central to treatment planning.

Despite these benefits, several limitations remain. High costs, technological accessibility, and the need for specialized training may restrict the widespread adoption of advanced digital and design-based approaches. Furthermore, while architectural analogies provide valuable insights, they cannot fully replace clinical judgment or empirical research. Continued validation through long-term clinical studies and standardized evaluation methods is essential.

In conclusion, applying architectural methodologies to maxillofacial surgery offers a promising interdisciplinary framework that enhances visualization, precision, and structural understanding. By combining design principles with clinical expertise, surgeons can approach facial reconstruction as both a scientific and a design-oriented process. Future research should focus on refining predictive models, improving accessibility of digital tools, and developing educational programs that strengthen collaboration between medical and design disciplines, ultimately contributing to more effective and patient-centered reconstructive outcomes.

Acknowledgments

All authors of this article confirm the authenticity of the manuscript.

Conflicts of interest

The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

Disclosure Statement

No potential conflict of interest reported by the authors.

Funding

This research did not receive any specific grant from funding agencies in the public, commercial, or not-for-profit sectors.

Authors' Contributions

All authors contributed to data analysis, drafting, and revising of the paper and agreed to be responsible for all the aspects of this work.

References

- [1] Abel, M. K., Healey, E., Huo, D., Khramtsov, A., Olopade, O., & Rademaker, A. W. (2021). Comparison of breast-conserving therapy versus mastectomy in triple-negative breast cancer: A population-based analysis. *Breast Cancer Research and Treatment*, 186, 477-489.
- [2] van Roozendaal, L., de Wilt, J. H. W., Schipper, R. J., et al. (2016). Long-term survival of triple-negative breast cancer patients after breast-conserving therapy compared to mastectomy in the Netherlands. *Annals of Surgical Oncology*, 23, 1477-1484.
- [3] Zumsteg, Z. S., Morrow, M., Arnold, B., et al. (2017). Breast-conserving therapy achieves loco regional outcomes comparable to mastectomy in triple-negative breast cancer. *Annals of Surgical Oncology*, 24, 590-598.
- [4] Steward, L. T., Gao, F., Taylor, M. A., & Mergenthaler, J. A. (2014). Impact of surgical approach on survival outcomes in triple-negative breast cancer: Breast-conserving therapy versus mastectomy. *Annals of Surgical Oncology*, 21, 289-296.
- [5] Adkins, F. C., Gonzalez-Angulo, A. M., Lei, X., et al. (2011). Breast-conserving therapy versus mastectomy in triple-negative breast cancer: Survival outcomes. *Cancer*, 117, 2136-2143.
- [6] Wang, J., Xie, X., Liu, P., et al. (2021). Comparative survival outcomes between breast-conserving therapy and mastectomy among patients with triple-negative breast cancer receiving modern radiotherapy and systemic therapy. *Breast*, 58, 62-69.
- [7] Chen, X., Yuan, Y., Gu, Y., et al. (2020). Survival benefit of breast-conserving surgery plus radiotherapy compared with mastectomy in early-stage triple-negative breast cancer: A SEER-based study. *Cancer Medicine*, 9, 4483-4493.
- [8] Ren, Y. X., Cao, S. X., Lin, Y. X., et al. (2020). Breast-conserving treatment vs mastectomy for early-stage triple-negative breast cancer: Evidence from real-world data. *Frontiers in Oncology*, 10, 583872.
- [9] Haque, W., Schmults, C. D., Grills, I. S., et al. (2018). Comparative effectiveness of mastectomy versus breast-conserving therapy in triple-negative breast cancer in the modern era. *Cancer*, 124, 3422-3431.
- [10] Abdulkarim, B., Cuartero, J., Hanson, J., Deschenes, J., Lesniak, D., & Sabri, S. (2011). Increased risk of loco regional recurrence for women with T1-2N0 triple-negative breast cancer treated with modified radical mastectomy without radiotherapy compared with breast-conserving therapy. *Journal of Clinical Oncology*, 29, 2852-2858.
- [11] Rajan, K. K., Iype, E. L., Shrestha, S., et al. (2024). Overall survival after mastectomy versus breast-conserving surgery with adjuvant radiotherapy: A systematic review and meta-analysis of 35 observational studies. *BJS Open*, 8(3), zrae040.
- [12] Mokbel, K., & et al. (2024). Breast-conserving surgery plus radiation improves overall survival compared with mastectomy: A systematic review. *The Breast*.
- [13] Duangkaew, C., & et al. (2025). Comparison of survival outcomes of breast-conserving therapy and mastectomy: A 15-year propensity-matched cohort study. *Cancers*, 17(4), 591.
- [14] De Boniface, J., Frisell, J., Johansson, A. L. V., Fredriksson, I., Lyth, J., Liljegren, A., et al. (2021). Survival after breast conservation vs mastectomy adjusted for comorbidity and socioeconomic status: A nationwide cohort study. *JAMA Surgery*.
- [15] Christiansen, P., Carstensen, S. L., Ejlersen, B., Kroman, N., Offersen, B., Bodilsen, A., & Jensen, M. B. (2018). Breast-conserving surgery versus mastectomy: Overall and relative survival—A population-based study by the Danish Breast Cancer Cooperative Group (DBCG). *Acta Oncologica*, 57(19), 19-25.
- [16] Agarwal, S., Pappas, L., Neumayer, L., Kokeny, K., & Agarwal, J. (2014). Effect of breast conservation therapy vs mastectomy on disease-specific survival for early-stage breast cancer. *JAMA Surgery*, 149(3), 267-274.
- [17] Corradini, S., Pirovano, M., & et al. (2019). Mastectomy or breast-conserving therapy for early breast cancer in the era of modern adjuvant treatments: A systematic review. *Cancers*, 11(2), 160.
- [18] Fulginiti, D., & et al. (2025). Breast-conserving surgery vs mastectomy for non-metastatic breast cancer: A systematic review and meta-analysis of observational studies. *Cureus*.
- [19] Hassani, S., Rikhtehgar, M., & Salmanpour, A. (2022). Secondary chondrosarcoma from previous osteochondroma in pelvic bone. *GSC Biological and Pharmaceutical Sciences*, 19(3), 248-252.
- [20] Mirakhori, F. (2024). Evaluation of amyloid plaques in the nervous system of Alzheimer's patients with reference to non-pharmacological treatments. *International Neurology Journal*, 28(1), 804-820.
- [21] Mirghaed, F. A., Ahmadi, T. N., Albuzyad, S. S., Khorram, A. A., & Mahshad, F. (2024). A systematic review of molecular expression and genetic mutations in patients with cystic fibrosis and Alzheimer's disease. *International Neurology Journal*, 28(1), 773-786.
- [22] Rahimi, M. J., Mirakhori, F., Zelmanovich, R., & Sedaros, C., et al. (2024). Diagnostic significance of neutrophil to lymphocyte ratio in recurrent aphthous stomatitis: A systematic review

and meta-analysis. *Dermatology Practical & Conceptual*, 14(1), e2024046.

[23] Shariati, A., & Tahavvori, A., et al. (2022). Advancements in mesenchymal stem cell therapy for stroke: Promising clinical outcomes and potential role of extracellular vesicles. *Journal of Pharmaceutical Negative Results*, 13(8), 1–8.

[24] Rezaei, M., et al. (2022). Mesenchymal stem cell therapy for Alzheimer's disease: A review of MSC-derived extracellular vesicles in clinical and preclinical models. *Journal of Pharmaceutical Negative Results*, 13(9), 1–9.

[25] Ahmadi, M., et al. (2023). Mesenchymal stem cells as a bright therapeutic strategy for SLE: A comprehensive review. *NeuroQuantology*, 21(5), 334–364.

[26] Ghaedi, A., et al. (2024). Systematic review of the significance of neutrophil to lymphocyte ratio in anastomotic leak after gastrointestinal surgeries. *BMC Surgery*, 24, 1–10.

[27] Bolhari, J., et al. (2018). Domestic violence prevention advocacy program: A pilot study in Tehran urban area. *Iranian Journal of Psychiatry and Clinical Psychology*, 24(2), 150–157.

[28] Divsalar, F., Sattar Albuzyad, S., et al. (2024). Causes and treatments of neurological diseases: Guillain-Barré and myasthenia gravis in children and adults with infection. *Neurological Disease & Pain*, 28(1), 1–10.

[29] Mirakhori, F., Sattar Albuzyad, S., et al. (2024). Alzheimer's disease and related studies. *Alzheimer's & Dementia*, 28(1), 1–10.

[30] Ahmadi Mirghaed, F., et al. (2024). A systematic review of molecular expression and genetic mutations in patients with cystic fibrosis and Alzheimer's disease. *International Neurology Journal*, 28(1), 773–786.

[31] Nabatchi Ahmadi, T., et al. (2024). Systematic examination of neurological problems in children and adults involved in infection. *International Neurology Journal*, 28(1), 833–842.

[32] Jahandideh, H., et al. (2024). Reliability and validity of the Persian Nose Obstruction Symptom Evaluation (NOSE) scale. *World Journal of Plastic Surgery*, 13(2), 25–31.

[33] Fazeli, B., et al. (2024). Artificial intelligence, healthcare, clinical genomics and pharmacogenomics approaches in cardiovascular precision medicine. *Journal of Advanced Zoology*, 45(5), 102–110.

[34] Yaghoubi, F., Babakhani, D., & Tavakoli, F. (2022). Osmotic demyelination syndrome after bone marrow transplantation. *Journal of Nephropathology*, 11(1), e10.

[35] Tavakoli, F., Yaghoubi, F., & Babakhani, D. (2019). Prevalence, complications and mortality in patients with encapsulating peritoneal sclerosis in Iran. *Journal of Renal Injury Prevention*, 8(1), 17–21.

[36] Torigian, D. A., & Shaghghi, S. (2025). Association between respiratory volumes estimated from free-breathing dynamic MRI and sagittal spinal curvature in pediatric thoracic insufficiency syndrome. *Proceedings of SPIE Medical Imaging*, 1–8.

[37] Shariati, A. (2022). Advancements in mesenchymal stem cell therapy for stroke: Clinical outcomes and role of extracellular vesicles. *Journal of Pharmaceutical Negative Results*, 13(8), 1–8.

[38] Rezaei, M., et al. (2022). Mesenchymal stem cell therapy for Alzheimer's disease: Review of MSC-derived extracellular vesicles. *Journal of Pharmaceutical Negative Results*, 13(9), 1–9.

[39] Rahimi, M. J., Mirakhori, F., Zelmanovich, R., Sedaros, C., Lucke-Wold, B., Rainone, G., et al. (2024). Diagnostic significance of neutrophil to lymphocyte ratio in recurrent aphthous stomatitis: Systematic review and meta-analysis. *Dermatology Practical & Conceptual*, 14(1), e2024046.

[40] Milanifard, M. and Hashemloo, A. (2025). Patient Factors Influencing Dermal Filler Complications: Prevention, Assessment, and Treatment. *Medicinal, Psychological, and Health Research Journal (mphrj)*, 1(11), 343-352.

[41] Milanifard, M. and Hashemloo, A. (2025). An approach to structural facial rejuvenation with fillers in women. *Medicinal, Psychological, and Health Research Journal (mphrj)*, 1(6), 178-186.

[42] Milanifard, M. and Hashemloo, A. (2025). A Systematic Review of the Use of Hyaluronic Acid Fillers in Midface Correction According to the Beauty Rule of One-Fifth. *Medicinal, Psychological, and Health Research Journal (mphrj)*, 2(1), 10-16.

[43] Hashemloo, A. and Milanifard, M. (2025). The Facial Shapes in Planning the Treatment with Injectable Fillers. *Medicinal, Psychological, and Health Research Journal (mphrj)*, 1(6), 169-177.

[44] Lotfi, A. R., & Nouribayat, L. (2025). Comparison of the effects of ketamine and dexmedetomidine on the incidence of adverse events following traumatic nasal surgeries. *Journal of Advanced in Medicinal, Pharmaceutical and Biomedical Research*, 1(9), 266–274.

[45] Hassani, S., et al. (2025). Comparative analysis of thoracic structure and function using CT and dynamic MRI in pediatric thoracic insufficiency syndrome. *Journal of Spine Deformity*, 1–9.

[46] Hashemloo, A. and Milanifard, M. (2025). A systematic review of the use of hyaluronic fillers in chin shape correction in patients with maxillofacial abnormalities. *Medicinal, Psychological, and Health Research Journal (mphrj)*, 2(1), 1-9.

[47] Ghaedi, A., et al. (2024). Systematic review of neutrophil to lymphocyte ratio in

- anastomotic leak after gastrointestinal surgeries. *BMC Surgery*, 24, 1–10.
- [48] Djalalimotlagh, S., Mohaghegh, M. R., Ghodrati, M. R., Shafeinia, A., Rokhtabnak, F., Alinia, T., & Tavakoli, F. (2019). Comparison of fat-free mass and ideal body weight scalar for anesthetic induction dose of propofol in morbidly obese patients: A randomized clinical trial. *Journal of Renal Injury Prevention*, 13(6), e140027.
- [49] Asl, L. D. (2025). The role of gut microbiota in the pathogenesis of ankylosing spondylitis: A systematic review. *Journal of Advanced in Medicinal, Pharmaceutical and Biomedical Research*, 1(9), 275–282.
- [50] Ahmadi, M., Rahmani Youshanouei, H., et al. (2023). Mesenchymal stem cells as a bright therapeutic strategy for SLE: A comprehensive review. *Neuro Quantology*, 21(5), 334–364.
- [51] Hashemloo, A. and Milanifard, M. (2025). Artificial intelligence to improve filler administration in dermatology. *Medicinal, Psychological, and Health Research Journal (mphrj)*, 1(5), 151-159.
- [52] Hashemloo, A. and Milanifard, M. (2026). Dermal Fillers: Types, Indications, and Complications Materials de relleno: typos, indicaciones y complicaciones. *Journal of Advanced in Medicinal, Pharmaceutical and Biomedical Research*, 2(1), 1-11.
- [53] Hashemloo, A. and Milanifard, M. (2026). Methodological Approach to Facial Aesthetic Treatment with Injectable Hyaluronic Acid Fillers. *Journal of Advanced in Medicinal, Pharmaceutical and Biomedical Research*, 2(1), 12-19.
- [54] Samimi, A. (2025). Assessment of Risks Arising from Neuropsychological Crises in Cardiac Patients Using FMEA. *Journal of Advanced in Medicinal, Pharmaceutical and Biomedical Research*, 1(7), 196-203.
- [55] Samimi, A. (2025). Risk Assessment in Hospitals Using the FMEA Method: A Data-Driven Analysis for Patient Safety Improvement. *Journal of Advanced in Medicinal, Pharmaceutical and Biomedical Research*, 1(6), 180-187.