

Section 4. Medicine

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THE ROLE OF THE MAXILLOFACIAL ANATOMICAL COMPLEX IN THE PATHOGENESIS OF DENTAL IMPLANT COMPLICATIONS

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Abstract

Dental implantology is a surgically precise discipline in which the success of treatment depends not only on implant design and operative technique, but also on the clinician's detailed understanding of the maxillofacial anatomical complex. The maxilla and mandible contain compactly arranged neurovascular, lymphatic, osseous, sinus, and fascial structures. Because these structures communicate through arterial, venous, lymphatic, and neural pathways, even a limited peri-implant inflammatory focus may progress to abscess formation, diffuse phlegmon, venous thrombophlebitis, neurosensory impairment, or life-threatening airway and intracranial complications. This article reviews the anatomical basis of dental implant complications, emphasizing the topographic differences between the maxilla and mandible, the role of vascular and lymphatic pathways in infection dissemination, and the clinical relevance of trigeminal nerve branches. Particular attention is given to sinus membrane perforation, nasopalatine and infraorbital-region injuries, inferior alveolar and mental nerve trauma, lingual cortical perforation, sublingual or submental hematoma, and postoperative infectious spread. The article also highlights the preventive value of cone-beam computed tomography (CBCT), preservation of safety margins, atraumatic surgical technique, irrigation to prevent thermal osteonecrosis, strict asepsis, and timely management of early infectious signs.

Keywords: dental implantology; maxillofacial anatomy; inferior alveolar nerve; maxillary sinus; peri-implantitis; phlegmon; venous thrombosis; lymphatic drainage; CBCT

1. Introduction

Dental implant placement is not merely a mechanical or prosthetic procedure. It is an intervention performed within one of the most anatomically dense regions of the human body, where millimeters may determine surgical safety, functional recovery, and patient quality of life. The head and neck region

contains the eye, ear, nose, oral cavity, maxilla, mandible, hard and soft palate, salivary glands, major cervical vessels, cranial nerves, lymphatic channels, and deep fascial spaces in close proximity. This compact arrangement explains why procedures in the maxillofacial region require a high level of anatomical precision.

Figure 1. Risk-oriented anatomical comparison of the maxilla and mandible in implant planning

Maxilla	Mandible
• Maxillary sinus and Schneiderian membrane • Nasopalatine / incisive canal • Thin buccal cortical plate • Infraorbital and pterygopalatine region	• Inferior alveolar canal • Mental foramen and anterior loop • Lingual cortical plate and floor-of-mouth vessels • Dense cortical bone and heat generation

The anatomical and topographic complexity of the upper and lower jaws forms the background against which local and generalized complications develop. These include infectious complications, vascular events, and neurogenic disorders. Contemporary implant treatment therefore requires a preventive anatomical approach: identification of risk zones before surgery, careful selection of implant dimensions and angulation, preservation of neurovascular safety margins, and early recognition of postoperative complications.

2. Anatomical Basis of Implant-Related Complications

The pathogenesis of complications after dental implant placement is best understood as the interaction of four anatomical systems: bone architecture, fascial spaces, vascular communications, and neural pathways. The

maxilla is characterized by relatively porous cancellous bone, a thin cortical plate, proximity to the maxillary sinus, and extensive venous and arterial communications. The mandible contains denser cortical bone and critical neurovascular structures, particularly the inferior alveolar canal, mental foramen, lingual cortical plate, and vascular structures of the floor of the mouth.

Because oral tissues communicate with deep fascial spaces and venous plexuses, infection that begins around an implant may remain localized as an abscess, spread diffusely as phlegmon, or enter the venous system and progress to septic thrombophlebitis. Similarly, traumatic or thermal injury during osteotomy may damage bone, nerve, or vascular structures and create the conditions for postoperative pain, paresthesia, hematoma, or implant failure.

Figure 2. Principal pathways by which a peri-implant infectious focus may progress to abscess, phlegmon, venous thrombophlebitis, or life-threatening complications

Major anatomical pathways of infection after dental implant placement

	↗	Localized abscess (capsulated pus)	→	Sinus/orbital involvement
Peri-implant bacterial focus	→	Deep fascial spread (phlegmon)	→	Ludwig angina / airway risk
	↘	Venous route (thrombophlebitis)	→	Cavernous sinus thrombosis

3. Maxillary Anatomical Risk Zones

The maxilla presents a distinct surgical risk profile because of its cancellous architecture, thin buccal cortical plate, and close relationship to the maxillary sinus, nasal floor, nasopalatine canal, and infraorbital region. These characteristics are clinically important in both anterior and posterior implant sites.

3.1. Maxillary sinus and Schneiderian membrane

In the posterior maxilla, the maxillary sinus may lie close to the alveolar ridge, especially after tooth loss and vertical bone resorption. Implant preparation or insertion may perforate the sinus floor or Schneiderian membrane. Depending on the size of the perforation and the presence of contamination or graft material displacement, consequences may include sinusitis, oro-antral communication, implant migration into the sinus, chronic inflammation, or failure of osseointegration. Prevention requires CBCT-based evaluation of residual bone height, sinus-floor morphology, septa, mucosal thickening, and the need for sinus floor elevation before implant placement.

3.2. Nasopalatine, incisive, and anterior maxillary canals

In the anterior maxilla, implant placement near the central incisors may injure the nasopalatine canal or incisive neurovascular bundle. Trauma in this area may cause pain, altered palatal sensation, localized bleeding, or infection. Radiographic localization of the canal and appropriate implant positioning are necessary to avoid contact with neurovascular structures.

3.3. Thin buccal cortical plate and esthetic-region exposure

The facial cortical plate of the anterior maxilla is often extremely thin and may be less than 1 mm in certain sites. A thin buccal plate increases the risk of dehiscence, fenestration, soft-tissue recession, implant thread exposure, and esthetic failure. Preventive strategies include selecting an implant of appropriate diameter, positioning the implant slightly palatally when indicated, maintaining adequate facial bone thickness, and using guided bone regeneration when the ridge is deficient.

3.4. Infraorbital region

Although uncommon, trauma to the infraorbital neurovascular region may occur

during procedures near the canine and premolar region or during extensive surgery in the anterior maxilla. Such injury may produce infraorbital pain, paresthesia, or hematoma. Preoperative imaging and controlled osteotomy depth are essential where anatomic variation reduces the safety zone.

Figure 3. Maxillary sinus and posterior maxillary neurovascular anatomy relevant to sinus-floor elevation and posterior implant placement

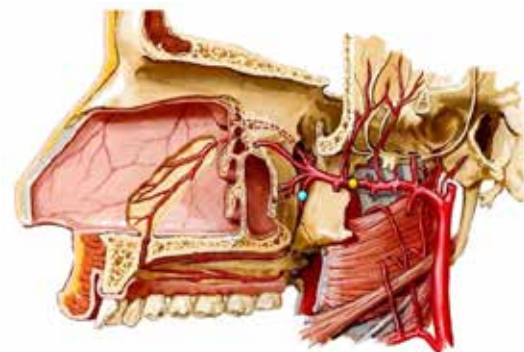
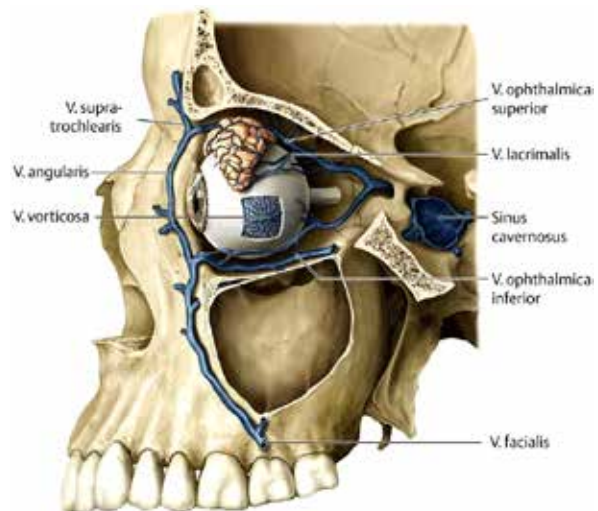


Figure 4. Venous communication between the facial, angular, ophthalmic, and cavernous sinus systems



4. Mandibular Anatomical Risk Zones

The mandible differs from the maxilla by its denser cortical structure and by the presence of major neurovascular structures within or immediately adjacent to the implant field. Dense bone may increase heat generation during drilling, and inadequate irrigation can contribute to thermal osteonecrosis. However, the most clinically important mandibular risks are neural and vascular.

4.1. Inferior alveolar nerve injury

The inferior alveolar nerve is one of the most serious structures at risk during implant placement in the premolar and molar regions. Compression, direct penetration, thermal injury, or postoperative inflammatory edema may cause paresthesia, dysesthesia, anesthesia, or chronic neuropathic pain affecting the lower lip, chin, or teeth. Prevention requires CBCT-based mapping of the mandibular canal, appropriate implant length selection, depth control, and maintenance of a safety distance from the canal.

4.2. Mental foramen and anterior loop

The mental nerve emerges through the mental foramen, commonly near the second premolar region, and may present an anterior loop. Implant surgery in this region can cause pain, sensory disturbance, or hematoma if the foramen or loop is not identified. Three-dimensional imaging is particularly valuable because panoramic radiographs may not reliably define the canal trajectory or anterior loop in all patients.

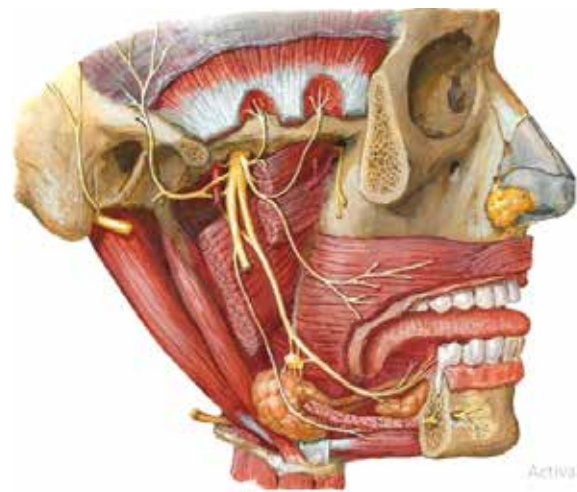
4.3. Lingual cortical perforation and floor-of-mouth hematoma

Perforation of the lingual cortical plate, especially in the anterior mandible or molar region, may injure sublingual, submental, or submandibular vessels. Bleeding into the sublingual and submental spaces can rapidly elevate the floor of the mouth and compromise the airway. This rare but potentially fatal complication requires immediate recognition, airway assessment, hemostasis, and urgent surgical management if expansion occurs.

4.4. Thermal osteonecrosis

Mandibular cortical bone is relatively dense, making it more susceptible to heat accumulation during osteotomy. Excessive drill speed, worn drills, inadequate irrigation, or prolonged drilling can cause thermal injury and osteonecrosis, impairing osseointegration. Prevention includes sharp sequential drills, copious irrigation, intermittent drilling, appropriate speed and torque, and avoidance of excessive pressure.

Figure 5. Trigeminal nerve branches and mandibular/maxillary neural pathways relevant to implant-related neurosensory complications



5. Infectious Complications: Abscess, Phlegmon, and Venous Thrombophlebitis

General infectious complications associated with implant surgery include abscess, phlegmon, and venous thrombophlebitis. These entities differ in morphology and severity but share an anatomical basis: oral bacteria may spread through cancellous bone, periosteal planes, fascial spaces, lymphatic channels, and valveless venous communications.

5.1. Abscess formation

An abscess is a localized purulent focus formed when the host response partially confines infection. In implantology, abscess formation may result from peri-implantitis, intraoperative contamination, inadequate debridement, foreign-body reaction, or disruption of anatomical barriers. In the maxilla, infection may spread to the buccal space, infraorbital region, or palatal tissues. In the mandible, abscesses may involve the buccal, sublingual, submental, or submandibular spaces depending on the site of origin and muscle attachments.

5.2. Phlegmon and deep fascial-space spread

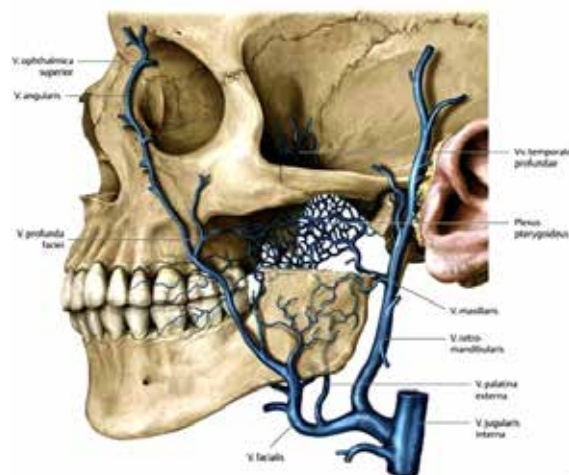
Phlegmon is a diffuse purulent inflammation not limited by a capsule. Once the periosteal and fascial barriers are breached, infection may spread quickly through communicating spaces.

Maxillary infection may extend toward the infraorbital region, buccal space, pterygopalatine fossa, orbit, or cavernous sinus through vascular channels. Mandibular molar infections may spread to the submandibular, sublingual, or parapharyngeal spaces. When bilateral floor-of-mouth spaces become involved, Ludwig angina may occur, with swelling, tongue elevation, dysphagia, and airway compromise.

5.3. Venous thrombophlebitis and cavernous sinus risk

The venous system of the face is clinically important because facial, angular, ophthalmic, pterygoid, and cavernous sinus communications may allow retrograde spread of infection. Septic thrombophlebitis may develop when bacteria and inflammatory thrombi propagate within valveless veins. In severe cases, this route may lead to orbital cellulitis or cavernous sinus thrombosis, which may present with fever, periorbital edema, pain, cranial nerve signs, diplopia, and systemic sepsis.

Figure 6. Pterygoid venous plexus and facial venous communications, highlighting a potential pathway for odontogenic or peri-implant infection spread



6. Arterial and Venous Anatomy of the Maxillofacial Region

The blood supply of the head and neck begins from the aortic arch, from which the brachiocephalic trunk, left common carotid artery, and left subclavian artery arise. The asymmetry between the right and left sides is due to the right common carotid and right

subclavian arteries arising through the brachiocephalic trunk, whereas the left common carotid and left subclavian arteries arise independently from the aortic arch. At the level of the superior border of the thyroid cartilage, the common carotid artery divides into the internal and external carotid arteries.

Figure 7. Aortic arch, common carotid, subclavian, and laryngeal neurovascular relationships in the lower neck

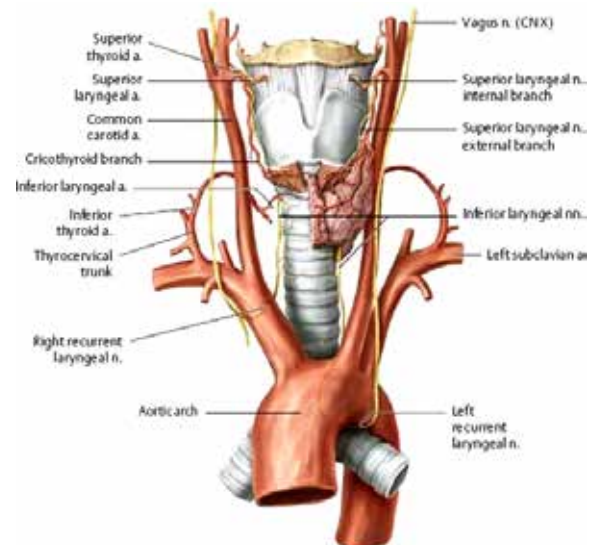
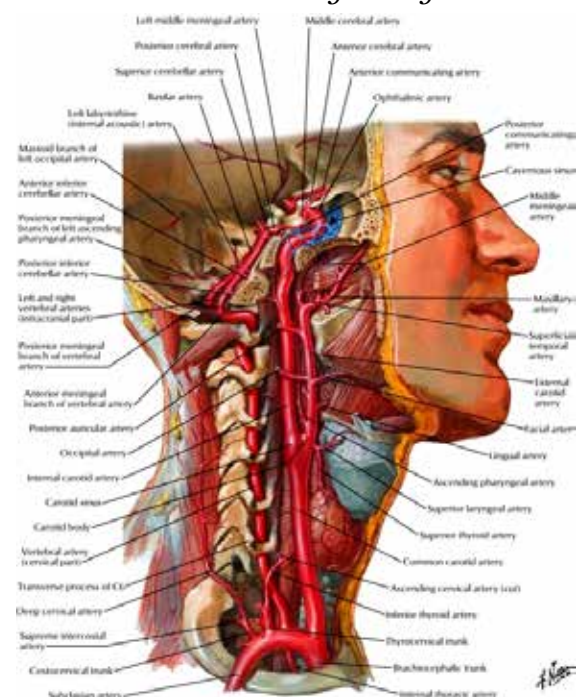


Figure 8. Arterial supply of the head and neck, including the external carotid system and maxillary artery



The internal carotid artery ascends toward the skull base and gives rise to the oph-

thalmic artery within the orbit. The terminal dorsal nasal branch of the ophthalmic artery anastomoses with the angular artery, a terminal branch of the facial artery from the external carotid system. This connection is clinically relevant because it links intraorbital, facial, and external carotid circulation.

6.1. Maxillary artery

The maxillary artery is one of the largest and most topographically complex terminal branches of the external carotid artery. It supplies the maxilla, mandible, nasal cavity, palate, pterygopalatine region, deep facial spaces, masticatory muscles, and parts of the temporomandibular region. It is traditionally divided into mandibular, pterygoid, and pterygopalatine segments.

The mandibular segment passes through the infratemporal fossa and gives off branches such as the deep auricular, middle meningeal, and inferior alveolar arteries. The inferior alveolar artery enters the mandibular canal with the inferior alveolar nerve and supplies the mandibular teeth before continuing as the mental artery. Injury to this branch during implant surgery may cause intraosseous bleeding, hematoma, or compressive neuropathy.

The pterygoid segment supplies the masseter, temporalis, buccinator, and pterygoid muscles through branches such as the masseteric, deep temporal, and buccal arteries. Because these branches are close to the pterygoid venous plexus, injury or infection in this region may contribute to hematoma or facilitate deep-space inflammatory spread.

The pterygopalatine segment is especially important in maxillary implantology. Its branches include the infraorbital artery, posterior superior alveolar arteries, descending palatine artery, and sphenopalatine artery. These vessels form an anastomotic network that may connect the maxillary sinus, palate, nasal cavity, orbit, and pharyngeal region. Knowledge of these branches is essential when performing posterior maxillary implants, sinus-floor elevation, or procedures near the pterygopalatine fossa.

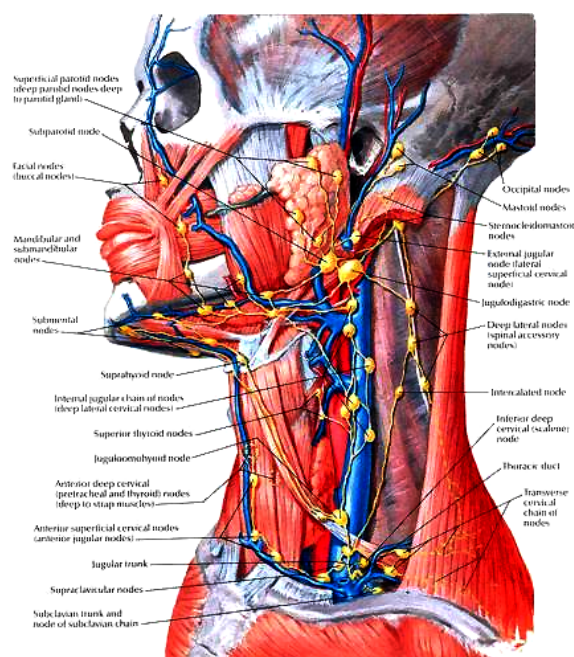
7. Lymphatic System as a Defensive and Diagnostic Pathway

The lymphatic system of the maxillofacial region is closely associated with the vascular

system and serves as an early biological barrier against infection. Topographically, lymphatic drainage can be grouped into facial lymph nodes, submandibular and submental lymph nodes, and superficial and deep cervical lymph nodes. Lymph from the face ultimately drains toward the jugular lymphatic trunk through deep cervical nodes.

In the upper lip, lower lip, and cheek, superficial and submucosal lymphatic channels converge near the vestibular folds and then follow the branches of the facial vessels. The maxillary lymphatic vessels drain anterior, lateral, and posterior regions through bony channels toward submandibular nodes and, in deeper infections, toward infraorbital and deep cervical pathways. Mandibular lymphatic vessels communicate through the mandibular canal and smaller bony channels toward the floor of the mouth, submental, submandibular, and deep cervical nodes.

Figure 9. Lymphatic drainage of the face and neck, including submental, submandibular, parotid, and deep cervical nodes



After implant placement, early lymphatic activation may present as regional lymphadenitis, usually with painful enlargement of submandibular, submental, or cervical nodes. In abscess formation, this reaction may be limited to one or several regional nodes. In phlegmon, lymphatic drainage may become blocked, resulting in multilocular

lymphadenopathy or suppurative lymphadenitis. In septic thrombophlebitis, deep cervical lymph nodes may participate in systemic inflammatory response. Clinically, lymphatic swelling may therefore be an early sign that infection is no longer limited to the peri-implant region.

8. Trigeminal Nerve and Neurogenic Complications

The trigeminal nerve is the principal sensory nerve of the maxillofacial region. Its three major divisions – ophthalmic (V1), maxillary (V2), and mandibular (V3) – form a dense anatomical network that is closely related to vessels, bone, dental roots, sinus structures, and fascial spaces. Implant-related trauma or infection may therefore produce nociceptive, neuropathic, or mixed pain mechanisms.

The maxillary division and its infraorbital, posterior superior alveolar, middle superior alveolar, and anterior superior alveolar branches are relevant to maxillary implant procedures. Injury or inflammatory irritation may produce neuralgic pain, altered sensation, or referred symptoms toward the midface and orbital region. The mandibular division gives rise to the inferior alveolar, mental, lingual, buccal, and auriculotemporal nerves. Inferior alveolar and mental nerve injuries are particularly important because they may cause sensory changes in the lower lip and chin, while lingual nerve irritation may affect tongue sensation and taste-related complaints.

Neurogenic complications may arise from direct drilling trauma, implant contact with

the canal, compression by hematoma, inflammatory edema, thermal injury, or post-operative infection.

Management depends on the mechanism and severity but should begin with early diagnosis, radiographic assessment of implant position, neurosensory testing, control of inflammation and infection, and urgent surgical intervention when the implant violates the nerve canal or compresses a neurovascular bundle.

9. Prevention and Clinical Planning

Prevention of complications begins before surgery. CBCT is central to modern implant planning because it allows three-dimensional evaluation of bone height, ridge width, sinus anatomy, mandibular canal position, mental foramen, lingual concavity, cortical thickness, and local anatomical variants. Imaging should be interpreted together with clinical examination, prosthetic requirements, systemic risk assessment, and the anticipated need for augmentation.

A preventive surgical protocol includes: strict asepsis; atraumatic flap elevation; careful osteotomy angulation; preservation of safety margins around canals, foramina, and sinus structures; copious irrigation; use of sharp drills; avoidance of excessive pressure; selection of implant dimensions appropriate to the bone envelope; and early postoperative follow-up. In the presence of pain out of proportion, rapidly expanding swelling, floor-of-mouth elevation, fever, ocular symptoms, diplopia, progressive paresthesia, or signs of systemic toxicity, urgent reassessment is required.

Table 1. *Anatomical mechanisms and prevention of selected dental implant complications*

Anatomical area	Main complication	Pathogenetic mechanism	Preventive focus
Posterior maxilla	Sinus perforation / sinusitis	Implant or drill violates sinus floor or Schneiderian membrane	CBCT; sinus-floor assessment; sinus lift when indicated
Anterior maxilla	Nasopalatine canal trauma	Injury to incisive neurovascular bundle	Identify canal; adjust implant diameter/position
Anterior esthetic zone	Buccal dehiscence / exposure	Thin facial cortical plate and inadequate bone envelope	Palatal positioning; grafting; preserve facial bone
Posterior mandible	Inferior alveolar nerve injury	Canal contact, compression, thermal trauma, edema	CBCT canal mapping; depth control; safety margin

Anatomical area	Main complication	Pathogenetic mechanism	Preventive focus
Premolar mandible	Mental nerve injury	Foramen or anterior loop trauma	3D localization; avoid foraminal zone
Lingual mandible	Sublingual/submental hematoma	Lingual cortical perforation and vascular injury	Assess lingual concavity; controlled osteotomy; airway vigilance

11. Conclusion

The maxillofacial anatomical complex determines both the safety and the biological outcome of dental implant treatment. The maxilla, with its sinus cavity, thin buccal plate, and rich vascular communications, is particularly vulnerable to sinus, orbital, and venous-route complications. The mandible, with its dense cortical bone, inferior alveolar canal, mental foramen, lingual cortex, and floor-of-mouth vessels, is particularly vulnerable to neurovascular injury, thermal osteonecrosis, and airway-threatening hematoma. Infectious complications such as abscess, phlegmon, and venous thrombophlebitis are not random

events; they follow predictable anatomical pathways through fascial spaces, lymphatic channels, and valveless venous networks.

A detailed topographic understanding of arteries, veins, lymphatic drainage, trigeminal nerve branches, sinus anatomy, and jawbone architecture is therefore not an auxiliary topic but a core requirement of safe implantology. Modern implant treatment must unite anatomical precision, biological reasoning, three-dimensional imaging, and disciplined surgical technique. This integration is the most reliable strategy for reducing complications and improving postoperative rehabilitation.

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