ARTICLE IN PRESS



CLINICAL RESEARCH

Improving facial prosthesis construction with a contactless scanning and digital workflow: A feasibility crossover randomized controlled trial of digital versus conventional manufacture of orbital and nasal prostheses

Rachael Y. Jablonski, BDS, MFDS RCS(Ed), PhD,^a Trevor J. Coward, PhD, MPhil, FIMPT, FETC,^b Caroline Reed, MSc, BSc (Hons), DPS, MIMPT,^c Paul Bartlett,^d Andrew J. Keeling, BSc, BDS, MFGDP, PhD,^e Chris Bojke, BA(Hons), MSc, PhD,^f Brian R. Nattress, BChD, PhD, MRDRCS(Ed), FDSRCS(Ed), FDTF(Ed),^g and Sue H. Pavitt, BSc, PhD^h

ABSTRACT

Statement of problem. Research is needed to compare the clinical and cost effectiveness of the digital and conventional manufacturing of facial prostheses. Feasibility trials can help acquire the data needed to plan a definitive randomized controlled trial (RCT).

Purpose. The purpose of this clinical study was to assess the feasibility of conducting a future definitive RCT of the clinical and cost effectiveness of the digital versus conventional manufacture of facial prostheses in patients with orbital or nasal defects. The primary objective was to assess eligibility, recruitment, conversion, and attrition rates. Secondary objectives included synthesizing data on outcomes for a definitive trial.

Material and methods. A multicenter feasibility crossover RCT compared the digital and conventional manufacture of facial prostheses at Leeds Teaching Hospitals NHS Trust and Guy's and St Thomas' NHS Foundation Trust between December 2021 and October 2023. Patients over 16 years of age were eligible if they had acquired orbital or nasal defects and required a replacement facial prosthesis. Centralized allocation used minimization to allocate participants to 2 groups which differed in the order of receiving the intervention and control prostheses. Participants were masked to the manufacturing method by marking the prostheses with color labels. Data were collected on patient flow and the planned outcomes for a definitive RCT (participant preference, generic and condition specific health related quality of life, and costs from the healthcare perspective). Data were analyzed descriptively and narratively.

Results. Fifteen participants were recruited and allocated to receive the intervention (n=7) or the control prosthesis (n=8) first. Analysis of the primary outcomes identified 100% eligibility, 88% recruitment, 100% conversion, and 27% attrition rates. Analysis of secondary outcomes showed the mean ±standard deviation Toronto Outcome Measure for Craniofacial Prosthetics-27 score was 59 ±26% at baseline; the change from baseline was 10 ±14% for the intervention and 13 ±16% for the control. The mean EQ-5D-5L index score was 0.72 ±0.24 at baseline; the change from baseline was 0.07 ±0.12 for the intervention and 0.02 ±0.12 for the control.

Conclusions. A definitive study was determined to be feasible. A recommendation for progression has been made with some modifications to study design. (J Prosthet Dent xxxx;xxx:xxx-xxx)

The views expressed in this publication are those of the authors and not necessarily those of the National Institute for Health and Care Research (NIHR), NHS, or the UK Department of Health and Social Care.

Supported by the NIHR (NIHR Doctoral Fellowship; NIHR300235; recipient: R. J.) and by the Leeds Hospitals Charity (Funding for Research and Innovation; ULXXO/ A200515; recipient: R. J.), Leeds, England, United Kingdom. This research was supported by the NIHR infrastructure at Leeds. The funding sources had no influence in the conduct of the study, writing of the report, or the decision to submit the manuscript for publication.

Presented at the General Session and Exhibition of the International Association for Dental, Oral and Craniofacial Research (IADR), March 13–16, 2024, New Orleans, La. The authors declare the following financial interests/personal relationships which may be considered as potential competing interests: Rachael Jablonski reports financial support was provided by National Institute for Health and Care Research. Rachael Jablonski reports financial support was provided by Leeds Hospitals Charity. If there are other authors, they declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

^aSpecialty Registrar in Restorative Dentistry and NIHR Academic Clinical Lecturer, Department of Restorative Dentistry, School of Dentistry, University of Leeds, Leeds, England, UK. ^bProfessor and Honorary Consultant in Maxillofacial and Craniofacial Rehabilitation, Academic Centre of Reconstructive Science, Faculty of Dentistry, Oral and Craniofacial Sciences, King's College London, London, England, UK.

^cConsultant in Maxillofacial Prosthetics, Academic Centre of Reconstructive Science, Guy's and St Thomas' NHS Foundation Trust, London, England, UK.

^dChief Maxillofacial Prosthetist, Maxillofacial Laboratory, Leeds Dental Institute, Leeds Teaching Hospitals NHS Trust, Leeds, England, UK.

^eProfessor of Prosthodontics and Digital Dentistry, Department of Restorative Dentistry, School of Dentistry, University of Leeds, Leeds, England, UK.

^fProfessor of Health Economics, Academic Unit of Health Economics, Leeds Institute of Health Sciences, University of Leeds, Leeds, England, UK.

^gEmeritus Professor, Department of Restorative Dentistry, School of Dentistry, University of Leeds, Leeds, England, UK.

^hProfessor of Translational and Applied Health Research, Dental Translational and Clinical Research Unit, School of Dentistry, University of Leeds, Leeds, England, UK.

Clinical Implications

The digital manufacture of facial prostheses has the potential to offer improved clinical outcomes, enhanced patient experience, and efficient resource use. The technology should be appropriately evaluated, and this feasibility study is a step toward designing a definitive RCT of the clinical and cost effectiveness of digital manufacturing. A definitive study was determined to be feasible and worthwhile, though some modifications to study design have been proposed.

Facial prostheses can help conceal and protect facial defects and improve patients' function, appearance, and health related quality of life (HRQoL).^{1–4} Conventional facial prosthesis manufacturing is resource intensive, requiring significant input from a maxillofacial prosthetist and technologist (MPT).^{5–7} Facial impressions have been reported to be uncomfortable and claustrophobic.^{4,8–10} Sculpting a wax pattern is a time-consuming and artistically driven process,^{6,11,12} and prosthetic outcomes can vary with patient, defect, and MPT factors.^{4,9,11–13}

Computer-aided design and computer-aided manufacturing (CAD-CAM) may help improve clinical outcomes, enhance patient experience, and support efficient resource use. Facial scanning could be a more comfortable, convenient, and accurate data acquisition method.^{9,10} CAD could provide a starting point for prosthesis design, reducing interoperator variability, and freeing up operator time to focus on the more technically demanding stages.^{12–14} CAM could improve the efficiency and reduce the costs of rehabilitation.^{11,12,15–17}

Despite a rising interest in CAD-CAM, most facial prosthesis research has had observational designs.¹⁸⁻²³ The authors are aware of only 1 previous crossover randomized controlled trial (RCT) that evaluated a specific clinical application of CAD-CAM with a small sample size.¹⁶ Facial prosthesis research tends to focus on patient reported outcomes,²⁰ but the costs and consequences of a change in manufacturing could also be explored through early health technology assessment.^{5,11,24–26} Furthermore, qualitative research has focused on the impact of facial differences, experiences of wearing facial prostheses, and rehabilitation outcomes,^{1,27–32} with a scarcity of research into the perceived benefits and limitations of CAD-CAM.³³ Patients could gain additional benefits relating to the way treatment is delivered if a more pleasant or less invasive process is used.³⁴

Feasibility trials help plan large-scale and often expensive definitive RCTs by addressing uncertainty, testing performance capability, and assuring deliverability.^{35–37} A feasibility trial was proposed to assess the

feasibility of a definitive RCT of the clinical and cost effectiveness of digitally and conventionally manufactured facial prostheses in patients with orbital or nasal defects. The primary objective was to assess eligibility, recruitment, conversion, and attrition rates. The secondary objectives were to identify issues with delivering the RCT components according to the protocol and to synthesize data on outcomes under consideration for a definitive RCT.³⁸ The qualitative substudy aimed to explore patients' perception, lived experience, and preference for facial prosthesis manufacturing methods.³⁸ The health economic objective was to develop an earlystage health economic model of the cost effectiveness of digital manufacturing. The authors plan to report on the qualitative and health economic substudies separately. The research hypothesis was that a definitive RCT would be feasible to deliver.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

A multicenter feasibility crossover RCT compared the digital and conventional manufacture of facial prostheses. The protocol was made publicly available,³⁸ and the study was reported according to the Consolidated Standards of Reporting Trials (CONSORT) extensions.^{39,40} The study was conducted within the maxillofacial prosthetic services at 2 United Kingdom hospitals: Leeds Teaching Hospitals NHS Trust (LTHT) and Guy's and St Thomas' NHS Foundation Trust (GSTT) and was approved by the Leeds East Research Ethics Committee (reference 21:/YH/0028). The departmental logs were reviewed to identify potentially eligible patients (Table 1). Participant invitation sheets were mailed or offered during routine appointments. Interested patients were invited to a screening visit. Written informed consent was obtained.

For pilot studies, some authors recommend a sample size that gives a 1-sided 80% confidence interval that excludes the minimum clinically important difference expected within a definitive RCT.⁴¹ However, a formal calculation was not possible because of limited data on effect sizes for the outcomes for a definitive RCT.^{16,42,43} Alternative recommendations were used which suggested a sample size of 20 to 30 patients to estimate unknown variances in effect sizes in parallel study designs.^{41,44–47} A sample size of up to 30 participants was chosen recognizing that a crossover study would require fewer participants to obtain the same precision.⁴⁸

Centralized allocation assigned participants on a 1:1 basis to 2 treatment groups which varied in the order of receiving the intervention and control. Minimization helped balance group sizes and minimization variables (retention method and defect type) with the small sample size.^{49,50} Software program commands (RStudio;

Table 1. Eligibility criteria

| Criteria | Justification |
|---|--|
| Inclusion criteria | |
| Aged over 16 years. | To restrict target population to adults. |
| Orbital or nasal defects. | 3D morphable model used for computer-aided design better suited to design of nasal and orbital prostheses. Specific ear models may be useful for auricular prostheses but not used in study. ⁵⁸ |
| Facial defect because of head and neck cancer. | To restrict sample to specific underlying etiologic condition because of small sample size of feasibility trial. |
| Require replacement facial prosthesis retained by any method. | To ensure patients had worn prosthesis before to minimize burden during early phases of rehabilitation. |
| Available for follow-up. | Timelines dictated by lead author's thesis submission timelines with limited scope to extend study. |
| Able to provide informed consent. Exclusion | Patients must have capacity to make voluntary decision about whether to take part in study. |
| Receiving active treatment for head and neck | To minimize burden on participants undergoing further treatment. |
| cancer. | To restrict study to treatment of stable, chronic conditions, important in crossover study design. |
| Plans for major reconstructive surgery. | |
| Skin conditions which prevent prosthesis provision. Hypersensitivity to study materials. | To minimize problems for patients and prevent unwarranted reporting of adverse events in patients with known conditions. |

Note: protocol included contingency plan to widen eligibility criteria to other acquired conditions if low recruitment rates encountered³⁸; however, this was not required and target population remained focused.

The R Foundation) were generated by a statistician to automate minimization. Participants had a 90% chance of being allocated to the group that reduced imbalances to minimize the prediction of allocations.^{49,50} The site teams submitted allocation requests to the trial coordinator (R.J.), who performed minimization, maintained a central log, and sent email confirmations to the site.

The intervention and control prostheses were produced in tandem (Fig. 1, Supplemental Material 1, available online). The intervention facial prostheses were made by using a digital manufacturing workflow previously tested with volunteers.⁵¹ This involved 3 dimensional (3D) facial scanning with an optical scanner, digital design with 3D morphable models, and 3D printing of prosthesis replicas.^{51–59} The intervention and control prostheses contained duplicate ocular components for orbital prostheses and retentive components for implant-retained prostheses. They were made in the same silicone material with a colorant recipe obtained with a spectrophotometer, and extrinsic colors were added as required. The prostheses were marked with color labels to mask the treatment allocation from the participants and the statistician providing support for analysis.^{60,61} Participants were asked to return their first prosthesis at the 4-week review visit when they crossed over to the second prosthesis.

Primary feasibility outcomes were the eligibility, recruitment, conversion, and attrition rates.³⁸ Secondary feasibility outcomes included completion rates, estimates, variances, and missing data for the outcome measures for participant preference, generic and condition specific HRQoL, and costs from the healthcare perspective.³⁸ Other secondary outcomes related to issues with study delivery (such as minimization processes, intervention delivery, outcome measure choice, adverse events, masking procedures, and trial schedule compliance).³⁸ The qualitative substudy was added as a protocol amendment, and the qualitative outcomes were participant preference for manufacturing method and willingness to wait for their preferred method.³⁸

Participant preference for the intervention or control prosthesis was captured at the final review visit 4 weeks after delivery of the second prosthesis. HRQoL was assessed at baseline and at 4 weeks after the delivery of each prosthesis. Generic preference-based HRQoL questionnaires explored broad health concepts applicable to a range of patient groups, and a condition-specific



Figure 1. Example of intervention and control wax patterns produced for implant retained orbital prosthesis. A, Example of definitive cast and wax pattern for intervention prosthesis. B, Intervention wax pattern modified by MPT to add detail and fine margins. C, Definitive cast and wax pattern for control facial prosthesis. Note partial cast could make spatial positioning of features challenging. MPT, maxillofacial prosthetist and technologist.

ARTICLE IN PRESS

questionnaire explored aspects of health relevant to patients with facial prostheses.⁶² Adverse events were documented until 1 week after the final review. Participants were invited to take part in semistructured interviews towards the end of the clinical visits. Participants were asked their preference for either of the manufacturing processes and their willingness to wait for their preferred process if both methods produced equal treatment outcomes.⁶³

Condition specific HRQoL was captured through the Toronto Outcome Measure for Craniofacial Prosthetics (TOMCP); a reliable and valid questionnaire for exploring new facial prosthesis materials and techniques.^{64,65} The shorter version was used to minimize response burden and comprised 27 items across 9 domains with responses on a 7 point Likert scale.⁶⁴ Responses were added together to calculate domain and overall scores, which were transformed into a percentage scale and inverted so that a higher score represented a better HRQoL.^{64,66}

The EQ-5D is the National Institute for Health and Care Excellence's preferred HRQoL measure in adults,⁶⁷ shown to be valid, reliable, and responsive in various populations,⁶⁸ with greater discrimination with the 5 level version.⁶⁹ The EQ-5D-5L descriptive system evaluated 5 dimensions of health and a summary index value was generated to indicate how good or bad a participant's health state was based on societal preference weights.⁶⁸ A mapping function produced summary index values which could range from 1 (full health), through 0 (equivalent to death), to negative values (worse than death).^{67,68,70} The visual analog scale (VAS) represented the patient perspective on their health on a scale of 0 (worst) to 100 (best).⁶⁸

The Short Form Health Survey version 2 (SF-12v2), a reliable and valid measure of physical and mental health, was included as an alternative measure of generic HRQoL since the SF-12 had been used in facial prosthesis studies.^{71–74} The SF-12v2 comprised 12 items across 8 domains of HRQoL.⁷⁴ Data were imported into a software program (PRO CoRE Smart Measurement System; Quality Metric) to generate Physical Component Summary (MCS) scores and Mental Component Summary (MCS) scores were derived and ranged from 0 (worst health state) to 1 (best health state).^{74–76}

Costs from the healthcare perspective were captured with a microcosting, bottom-up, direct measurement approach because research was insufficient to assign costs directly.⁷⁷ Investigators recorded the time spent during each component of treatment excluding setting up or cleaning the clinic. Most processes were completed by MPTs and assigned the average cost for Band 7 and 8a hospital-based professional staff.⁷⁸ For the intervention, the average cost of Band 5 and 6 hospital-based professional staff was applied to making the definitive cast and initial wax pattern as they were expected to be provided by a biomedical engineer.⁷⁸ The cost of a Band 4 hospital-based nurse was added to all clinical stages.⁷⁸ Investigators recorded the amount of consumables used when expected to cost over £10 (British Pound Sterling) per use such as implant components, impression material, 3D printing resin, and silicone material. Reference costs were sourced from manufacturers' websites or hospital suppliers.

Baseline characteristics and primary and secondary feasibility outcomes were described descriptively. The flow of patients was presented in a CONSORT flow diagram.⁷⁹ Categorical variables were summarized with proportions. Metric variables were summarized with means, standard deviations (SDs), medians, minimum, and maximum values, or 95% confidence intervals. Analysis was completed in a statistical package (Stata/MP; StataCorp LLC). In accordance with feasibility study recommendations, no statistical comparisons were performed between groups.^{36,39,41} Progression criteria were outlined in the protocol.³⁸

RESULTS

Recruitment started at LTHT in December 2021 and in May 2022 at GSTT and was extended to January 2023 because of delays in site set up associated with the COVID-19 pandemic. The study ended in October 2023. Figure 2 shows the CONSORT flow diagram.⁷⁹ The eligibility rate (eligible/screened) was 100% (15/15). The conversion rate (consented/eligible) was 100% (15/15). The recruitment rate (recruited/invited) was 88% (15/17). LTHT recruited 100% of those invited (7/7); an average of 1 patient every 2 months over 14 months. GSTT recruited 80% (8/10); approximately 1 patient a month over 9 months. The attrition rate (discontinued/recruited) was 27% (4/15). Reasons for withdrawal included ill health (3 participants) and availability (1 participant).

Seven participants were allocated to Group Int (intervention first) and 8 participants were allocated to Group Con (control first). Baseline characteristics are shown in Table 2. The average age was 63 years and 73% of participants were male. All participants had facial defects resulting from head and neck cancer, and the average time since treatment was 9 years. Facial prostheses were on average 17 months old; the majority



Figure 2. Consolidated Standards of Reporting Trials (CONSORT) flow diagram.

were implant-retained, restored the orbit, and were in a satisfactory condition with minor improvements possible. Group Con had longer times since surgery, were less likely to have had radiotherapy, and had fewer prostheses in a poor condition. Figures 3 and 4 show examples of the prostheses. Only data from participants who completed the study (n=11) were included in the analysis of the outcome measures for a definitive RCT. Forty-five percent of participants preferred the intervention prosthesis, 27%

Table 2. Baseline characteristics

6

| Demographic Factor | | Group Int (n=7) | Group Con (n=8) | Overall (n=15) |
|---|------------------|-----------------|-----------------|----------------|
| Patient factors | | | | |
| Age (years) | Mean (SD) | 65 (12) | 62 (14) | 63 (13) |
| Sex (male or female) | Male (%) | 71 | 75 | 73 |
| Ethnicity | White (%) | 100 | 100 | 100 |
| Site (GSTT or LTHT) | GSTT (%) | 29 | 75 | 53 |
| Smoking status | Nonsmoker (%) | 29 | 25 | 27 |
| | Current (%) | 14 | 25 | 20 |
| | Ex smoker (%) | 57 | 50 | 53 |
| Current alcohol consumption (yes or no) | Yes (%) | 71 | 75 | 73 |
| Etiologic factors | | | | |
| Etiology | Oncology (%) | 100 | 100 | 100 |
| Time since surgery (years) | Mean (SD) | 7 (6) | 11 (11) | 9 (9) |
| Previous radiotherapy (yes or no) | Yes (%) | 86 | 75 | 80 |
| Prosthetic factors | | | | |
| Defect type | Nasal (%) | 29 | 38* | 33 |
| | Orbital (%) | 71* | 50 | 60 |
| | Combined (%) | 0 | 13 | 7 |
| Prosthesis condition** | Good (%) | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| | Satisfactory (%) | 57 | 75 | 67 |
| | Poor (%) | 43 | 25 | 33 |
| Health of soft tissues*** | Good (%) | 43 | 88 | 67 |
| | Satisfactory (%) | 57 | 13 | 33 |
| | Poor (%) | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Retention method | Adhesive (%) | 29 | 25 | 27 |
| | Implant (%) | 57 | 63 | 60 |
| | Other**** (%) | 14 | 13 | 13 |
| Prosthesis age (months) | Mean (SD) | 15 (12) | 18 (17) | 17 (14) |
| Baseline questionnaires | | | | |
| TOMCP-27 (%) | Mean (SD) | 62 (32) | 64 (19) | 63 (25) |
| EQ–5D-5L index | Mean (SD) | 0.68 (0.12) | 0.76 (0.29) | 0.73 (0.22) |
| EQ-5D-5L VAS | Mean (SD) | 63 (20) | 67 (20) | 65 (20) |
| SF–6D R2 index | Mean (SD) | 0.68 (0.13) | 0.70 (0.18) | 0.69 (0.16) |

Con, control first; GSTT, Guy's and St Thomas' NHS Foundation Trust; Int, intervention first; LTHT, Leeds Teaching Hospitals NHS Trust; SD, standard deviation; SF-6D, Short Form 6 Dimension; TOMCP, Toronto Outcome Measure for Craniofacial Prosthetics.

* Contains 1 participant with combined intraoral and extraoral defect.

** Good, prosthesis in good condition and no intervention required; Satisfactory, prosthesis in satisfactory condition and minor improvements possible; Poor, prosthesis in poor condition and major improvements possible.

*** Good, soft tissues in good condition and no intervention required; Satisfactory, soft tissues in satisfactory condition and minor intervention may be required for example hygiene advice; Poor, soft tissues in poor condition and intervention required.

**** Other retention method refers to magnets connected to obturator or acrylic resin substructure.



Figure 3. Example of orbital prostheses. A, Previous orbital prosthesis. B, Intervention facial prosthesis. C, Control facial prosthesis designed based on participant's previous prosthesis. Note prostheses correspond with wax patterns shown in Figure 1.



Figure 4. Example of nasal prostheses. A, Previous nasal prosthesis. B, Intervention facial prosthesis. Note intervention wax pattern had been modified by MPT to increase width of nose. C, Control facial prosthesis designed based on participant's previous prosthesis. MPT, maxillofacial prosthetist and technologist.

Table 3. Preference for prosthesis

| | | Prefers Control | |
|-------------------------|-----|----------------------------|--------------------------------|
| | | Yes | No |
| Prefers intervention | Yes | 27% (Equally satisfactory) | 45% (Prefers intervention) |
| | No | 27% (Prefers control) | 0% (Equally unsatisfactory) |

Table 4. Preference for manufacturing process

| | | Would Wa Manufacti | it for Preferred uring Method |
|----------------------------|--|-----------------------|----------------------------------|
| | | Yes | No |
| Preferred manufacturing | Intervention (digital processes) | 60% | 30% |
| method | Control (conventional processes) | 0% | 10% |

preferred the control, and the remainder had no preference (Table 3). Ten participants took part in the qualitative substudy, and most preferred the digital over conventional manufacturing processes (90%) (Table 4). Sixty percent were willing to wait for their preferred process, whereas 40% would not wait and would proceed with the alternative. The average time participants were willing to wait for the digital manufacturing process was 3 months.

The HRQoL questionnaires had 100% completion rates and no missing data. The mean \pm SD baseline TOMCP-27 score was 59 \pm 26% (Table 5). The change from baseline was 10 \pm 14% for the intervention and 13 \pm 16% for the control. All domain scores increased from baseline (Table 6). The control had higher scores for most domains, though the wide SDs suggest a large variance in the data. The mean \pm SD EQ-5D-5L index score was 0.72 \pm 0.24 at baseline; the change from baseline was 0.07 \pm 0.12 for the intervention and 0.02 \pm 0.12 for the control (Table 7). Small changes from baseline were noted in the SF-12v2 derived scores (Table 8).

The mean operator time was 10 hours for the intervention and 9 hours for the control (Table 9). The mean equipment time was 50 hours for the intervention and 12 hours for the control. Mean total costs were similar at

Table 5. Descriptive statistics for TOMCP-27 presented as overall percentage scores at each time point and as change from baseline

| TOMCP-27 | Timepoint | Mean | SD | Median | Min | Max | 95% CI |
|----------------------|--------------|------|----|--------|-----|-----|--------|
| Overall percentage | Baseline | 59 | 26 | 65 | 17 | 90 | 41, 76 |
| | Control | 72* | 24 | 86 | 32 | 93 | 56, 88 |
| | Intervention | 68 | 24 | 73 | 38 | 98 | 52, 85 |
| Change from baseline | Control | 13 | 16 | 17 | -15 | 38 | 2, 24 |
| | Intervention | 10* | 14 | 15 | -16 | 24 | 0, 19 |

SD, standard deviation; TOMCP, Toronto Outcome Measure for Craniofacial Prosthetics; 95% CI, 95% confidence intervals.

* Data deviate from normal distribution as indicated by Shapiro-Wilk test.

| able 6. Descriptive statistics for TOMCP- | 27 presented as percen | ntage score for 9 domain | s and all domains |
|---|------------------------|--------------------------|-------------------|
|---|------------------------|--------------------------|-------------------|

| | | Baseline | | Control | | Intervention | |
|---------------------------|-------|----------|----|---------|----|--------------|----|
| Percentage | Items | Mean | SD | Mean | SD | Mean | SD |
| Clinical/technical | | | | | | | |
| Fit and retention | 4 | 53 | 34 | 65 | 24 | 64 | 31 |
| Comfort | 1 | 53 | 34 | 68 | 29 | 70 | 28 |
| Esthetics | 3 | 41 | 24 | 72 | 19 | 65 | 24 |
| Maintenance | 1 | 70 | 37 | 83 | 32 | 89 | 17 |
| Social/psychologic | | | | | | | |
| Body image | 5 | 58 | 30 | 64 | 30 | 64 | 29 |
| Social interactions/roles | | | | | | | |
| Leisure | 4 | 64 | 32 | 75 | 32 | 67 | 31 |
| Work/school | 2 | 59 | 34 | 76 | 36 | 67 | 39 |
| Mood | 5 | 68 | 28 | 78 | 25 | 76 | 23 |
| Sexuality | 2 | 63 | 35 | 73 | 33 | 69 | 34 |
| All domains | | | | | | | |
| Overall | 27 | 59 | 26 | 72 | 24 | 68 | 24 |

SD, Standard Deviation; TOMCP, Toronto Outcome Measure for Craniofacial Prosthetics.

Table 7. Descriptive statistics for EQ-5D-5L index scores and VAS scores presented at each timepoint and as change from baseline

| EQ-5D-5L | Timepoint | Mean | SD | Median | Min | Max | 95% CI |
|--|--------------|-------|------|--------|-------|------|-------------|
| EQ–5D-5L index | Baseline | 0.72* | 0.24 | 0.77 | 0.09 | 0.99 | 0.56, 0.89 |
| | Control | 0.74* | 0.24 | 0.77 | 0.12 | 0.99 | 0.58, 0.90 |
| | Intervention | 0.79* | 0.22 | 0.85 | 0.21 | 0.99 | 0.65, 0.94 |
| Change in EQ-5D-5L index from baseline | Control | 0.02 | 0.12 | 0.03 | -0.15 | 0.27 | -0.07, 0.10 |
| | Intervention | 0.07 | 0.12 | 0.05 | -0.12 | 0.27 | -0.01, 0.14 |
| EQ-5D-5L VAS | Baseline | 69 | 19 | 75 | 24 | 90 | 57, 82 |
| | Control | 74 | 17 | 75 | 43 | 100 | 63, 85 |
| | Intervention | 74 | 18 | 75 | 50 | 100 | 62, 86 |
| Change in EQ-5D-5L VAS from baseline | Control | 5 | 12 | 5 | -20 | 19 | -3, 13 |
| | Intervention | 5 | 15 | 10 | -30 | 26 | -5, 15 |

SD, standard deviation; VAS, visual analog scale; 95% CI, 95% confidence interval.

* Data deviate from normal distribution as indicated by Shapiro-Wilk test.

| Table 8. Descriptive statistics for SF-12v2 presented as PCS score, MCS score, and SF-6D R2 utility index score at each timepoint and as change fro | om |
|---|----|
| baseline | |

| SF-12-v2 | Timepoint | Mean | SD | Median | Min | Max | 95% CI |
|--|--------------|-------|-------|--------|--------|-------|--------------|
| PCS score | Baseline | 45.10 | 8.81 | 45.84 | 30.74 | 62.20 | 39.18, 51.02 |
| | Control | 47.64 | 6.24 | 46.46 | 40.34 | 58.72 | 43.45, 51.83 |
| | Intervention | 48.08 | 7.77 | 50.32 | 33.99 | 60.07 | 42.86, 53.30 |
| Change in PCS score from baseline | Control | 2.54 | 9.18 | 2.48 | -12.29 | 23.48 | -3.63, 8.71 |
| | Intervention | 2.98 | 12.02 | 1.38 | -23.41 | 24.83 | -5.09, 11.05 |
| MCS score | Baseline | 46.68 | 13.64 | 52.91 | 18.61 | 60.32 | 37.52, 55.84 |
| | Control | 47.47 | 12.45 | 51.49 | 20.11 | 61.36 | 39.11, 55.84 |
| | Intervention | 46.63 | 13.03 | 46.45 | 19.88 | 64.44 | 37.88, 55.38 |
| Change in MCS score from baseline | Control | 0.80 | 4.41 | 2.24 | -7.35 | 5.50 | -2.17, 3.76 |
| | Intervention | -0.05 | 6.69 | 1.27 | -15.14 | 10.99 | -4.55, 4.45 |
| SF-6D R2 utility index score | Baseline | 0.69 | 0.16 | 0.69 | 0.35 | 0.92 | 0.58, 0.79 |
| | Control | 0.72 | 0.16 | 0.66 | 0.48 | 1.00 | 0.61, 0.82 |
| | Intervention | 0.73 | 0.19 | 0.72 | 0.37 | 1.00 | 0.60, 0.85 |
| Change in SF–6D R2 utility index score from baseline | Control | 0.03 | 0.11 | 0.00 | -0.15 | 0.23 | -0.05, 0.10 |
| | Intervention | 0.04 | 0.08 | 0.05 | -0.08 | 0.22 | -0.02, 0.09 |

SD, standard deviation; SF-12v2, Short Form Health Survey version 2; PCS, Physical Component Summary; MCS, Mental Component Summary; SF-6, Short Form 6 Dimension; 95% CI, 95% confidence interval.

£1017 for the intervention and £1065 for the control (Table 10); the intervention had proportionally lower consumable costs but greater staff costs. Timing data were missing for 1 intervention review and the manufacture of 3 sets of ocular components for orbital prostheses. These ocular components were made with photographic techniques, and the timing data were not shared for reasons of intellectual property.

Twelve adverse events occurred that were unrelated to study treatment (Table 11). Two adverse reactions related to the intervention facial prostheses. One participant reported scratching their cheek when removing their prosthesis and another had symptoms of candidiasis; both resolved with self-care advice. Three serious adverse events unrelated to study treatment were reported. All prostheses were deemed suitable for participants to wear upon study completion. Three protocol deviations related to trial schedule compliance (Table 12).³⁸ No issues were reported relating to minimization, intervention delivery, or masking.

| able 9. Mean (SD) time taken in minutes during mai | ufacturing of intervention and o | control prostheses |
|--|----------------------------------|--------------------|
|--|----------------------------------|--------------------|

| | Control | | Intervention | |
|--------------------------|-----------|-----------|--------------|-------------|
| Stage | Operator | Equipment | Operator | Equipment |
| Data acquisition* | 17 (10) | 0 (0) | 14 (9) | 0 (0) |
| Make definitive cast | 16 (7) | 35 (14) | 69 (24) | 1792 (920) |
| Ocular component* | 63 (26) | 0 (0) | 63 (26) | 0 (0) |
| Ocular component | 91 (55) | 181 (66) | 91 (55) | 181 (66) |
| Make wax pattern | 103 (69) | 18 (19) | 100 (18) | 560 (300) |
| Wax try in* | 77 (114) | 0 (0) | 80 (85) | 0 (0) |
| Adjust wax pattern | 79 (67) | 5 (10) | 103 (59) | 8 (13) |
| Color match* | 52 (29) | 0 (0) | 52 (29) | 0 (0) |
| Make silicone prosthesis | 79 (30) | 554 (890) | 81 (32) | 554 (890) |
| Fit* | 45 (37) | 0 (0) | 40 (40) | 0 (0) |
| Review* | 11 (13) | 0 (0) | 7 (4) | 0 (0) |
| Total (All stages) | 550 (256) | 694 (870) | 614 (239) | 2996 (1061) |

SD, standard deviation.

Note: 2 prostheses made in tandem during same clinical visits. Asterisk indicates clinical visit (rather than laboratory stage). n=11 except for ocular components for orbital prostheses stage (n=5) and review of intervention stage (n=10).

Table 10. Mean (SD) costs in British Pound Sterling (£) for manufacturing of intervention and control prostheses

| | Control | | | Intervention | | |
|--------------------------|-----------|-----------|------------|--------------|-----------|------------|
| Stage | Materials | Staff | Total | Materials | Staff | Total |
| Data acquisition* | 193 (193) | 30 (18) | 223 (206) | 100 (133) | 24 (16) | 123 (142) |
| Make definitive cast | 70 (89) | 18 (8) | 88 (92) | 91 (80) | 54 (19) | 145 (93) |
| Ocular component* | 3 (7) | 110 (46) | 113 (43) | 3 (7) | 110 (46) | 113 (43) |
| Ocular component | 6 (8) | 104 (63) | 110 (64) | 6 (8) | 104 (63) | 110 (64) |
| Make wax pattern | 26 (61) | 118 (78) | 144 (101) | 43 (63) | 79 (14) | 121 (68) |
| Wax try in* | 0 (1) | 134 (198) | 134 (198) | 0 (0) | 139 (149) | 139 (149) |
| Adjust wax pattern | 0 (0) | 90 (76) | 90 (76) | 0 (0) | 117 (67) | 117 (67) |
| Color match* | 6 (4) | 90 (51) | 96 (53) | 6 (4) | 90 (51) | 96 (53) |
| Make silicone prosthesis | 0 (0) | 91 (35) | 91 (35) | 0 (0) | 92 (36) | 92 (36) |
| Fit* | 0 (0) | 79 (65) | 79 (65) | 0 (0) | 70 (70) | 70 (70) |
| Review* | 0 (0) | 19 (22) | 19 (22) | 0 (0) | 12 (7) | 12 (7) |
| Total (All) | 299 (280) | 766 (400) | 1065 (607) | 244 (207) | 773 (370) | 1017 (481) |

SD, standard deviation.

Note: 2 prostheses made in tandem during same clinical visits. Asterisk indicates clinical visit (rather than laboratory stage). n=11 except for ocular components for orbital prostheses stage (n=5) and review of intervention stage (n=10).

Table 11. Adverse events and adverse reactions

| Туре | Total | Description |
|--|-------|--|
| Adverse event | 12 | 6 swellings or infections in head and neck region 4 illnesses, frailty or fevers 2 basal cell carcinomas in head and neck region |
| Adverse reaction | 2 | 1 scratched cheek 1 candidiasis |
| Serious adverse event | 3 | 1 lower gastrointestinal tract squamous cell carcinoma 1 metastatic prostate cancer 1 progressive interstitial lung disease |
| Serious adverse reaction | 0 | N/A |
| Suspected unexpected serious adverse reaction | 0 | N/A |
| Total number | 17 | N/A |

DISCUSSION

The results support the study hypothesis that a definitive RCT of the clinical and cost effectiveness of digital manufacturing of facial prostheses would be feasible to deliver. With a recruitment rate of 88% and attrition rate of 27%, the prespecified criteria for progression to a definitive RCT with remedial action were met.³⁸ The

prosthesis materials which enrolled 34% of those screened (42/124) and had a 33% attrition rate (14/42).⁴² The high recruitment may be because of co-design with patient and public involvement, a careful approach to prescreening, or the altruistic motivations of patients with a history of cancer. While a laboratory study had been conducted,⁵¹ the authors had not conducted a clinical investigation of this

rates compared favorably with a crossover RCT of facial

CAD-CAM approach previously and any troubleshooting time was included in the analysis. MPTs were able to input into the CAD process, though this was often undertaken by the principal investigator (T.C.) at the remote site. The MPTs fed back that they would have preferred greater input at the CAD stage, which may have helped reduce the time spent manually adjusting the wax pattern. Furthermore, newer technolodevelopments gical such as large scale or demographically specific 3D morphable models and landmark fitting techniques may help improve the CAD output further.^{57,59} With the learning experience from this early clinical research, more efficient processes, lower costs, and improved outcomes may be achievable.

Table 12. Protocol deviations

| Component | Description | Actions Takon |
|-------------------------------|---|--|
| Component | Description | |
| Collection of outcome | One participant attended review of their first prosthesis | Reinforced importance of collecting data within time windows |
| measures | 2 weeks beyond maximum timepoint specified in protocol. | and reminded research team that protocol allows collection of |
| | difficulties in rescheduling appointment because of patient and staff availability. | being missed. |
| Cross-over | One participant took their second prosthesis home and found it interfered with their glasses. Because participant was | Acted in patients' best interests to postpone crossover to second prosthesis, Additional resource use questionnaire |
| | going on holiday and had limited time, research site agreed participant could return to wearing their first prosthesis and | completed to capture time and costs of second fitting of prosthesis. |
| | refit second prosthesis subsequently. | |
| Post treatment facial scan | Facial scans obtained after each prosthesis delivered as record of treatment provided. One scan not obtained | Site purchased newer scanner which could be used for post treatment facial scan. |
| | because of technical difficulties on day. | |

Compared with published RCTs which explored specific aspects of facial prosthesis manufacture or materials,^{16,42} this feasibility RCT sought to evaluate the clinical application of digital technology more broadly across 3D facial scanning and CAD-CAM. This study has begun to evaluate digital technology from different perspectives through qualitative inquiry into patients' experiences and collecting data for early health technology assessment. The study was conducted and presented according to reporting guidelines to improve transparency and reproducibility, and the findings should help in the design of a definitive RCT.

Seven MPTs were involved with varying experience and clinical approaches. The lack of masking of MPTs could be a source of bias in a definitive RCT if they had different attitudes toward digital technology.^{60,61} To minimize this risk, a masked MPT could quality assure the prostheses, though this may add logistical or resource implications. Furthermore, resources were captured with a detailed recording system, which may have increased the burden and risk of measurement error. Early health technology assessment should explore whether resource use is a key driver of cost effectiveness to inform resource use valuation in a definitive RCT.⁷⁷

Anderson et al⁶⁴ reported higher TOMCP-52 scores in a crossover RCT with median (quartile) values for silicone prostheses of 91 (70–95) and chlorinated polyethylene elastomer prostheses of 80 (59–89). Faris et al²⁴ presented utility values derived by using standard gamble and time trade off methods. Their values for facial prosthetic rehabilitation (0.80 ±0.23 or 0.82 ±0.20) were similar to the EQ-5D-5L index values seen for the intervention.²⁴ However, their values for nasal defects (0.74 ±0.24) may be overestimated as they are similar to the baseline values in this study for patients with previous prostheses.²⁴

The sample size calculation for a definitive RCT should be based on anticipated effect sizes for participant preference or HRQoL to ensure sufficient power. Because of the small sample size of this study, the effect sizes were surrounded by uncertainty, which will impact the sample size estimates.⁴¹ Leveraging data from previous and future studies may help guide the sample size calculation,

or an internal pilot design could use early observations in a sample size review.⁴³ To ensure a sufficient sample size can be achieved, the inclusion criteria could be extended to other etiologic factors or prosthesis types (such as trauma or auricular prostheses). Observational studies may help explore how technological developments such as specific ear morphable models could be used in the workflow to widen the eligibility criteria.

CONCLUSIONS

Based on the findings of this clinical study, the following conclusions were drawn:

- 1. The recruitment and attrition rates indicated a definitive RCT would be feasible to deliver; some modifications to study design could minimize sources of bias and reduce attrition.
- 2. Early data were positive in relation to participant preference, HRQoL, and healthcare costs associated with digitally manufactured facial prostheses.
- 3. Minor protocol deviations arose relating to trial schedule compliance, but no issues were reported relating to minimization, intervention delivery, or masking.
- 4. Further qualitative and health economic analysis should be conducted to explore patients' lived experience and the drivers of cost effectiveness to inform future studies.

PATIENT CONSENT

Written informed consent to participate was obtained from all participants. Consent to use facial images in publications was obtained.

DATA STATEMENT

The data associated with this article are available from the University of Leeds at https://doi.org/10.5518/1679.

APPENDIX A. SUPPORTING INFORMATION

Supplemental data associated with this article can be found in the online version at doi:10.1016/j.prosdent. 2025.03.002.

REFERENCES

- 1. Newton JT, Fiske J, Foote O, et al. Preliminary study of the impact of loss of part of the face and its prosthetic restoration. J Prosthet Dent. 1999;82:585-590
- 2. Henderson R, Moffat C, editors. UK care standards for the management of patients with microtia and atresia. British Academy of Audiology, British Association of Audiovestibular Physicians, British Association of Paediatricians in Audiology, British Association of Plastic, Reconstructive and Aesthetic Surgeons, Changing Faces, Ear, Nose and Throat. United Kingdom, Microtia UK: National Deaf Children's Society, British
- Psychological Society, Centre for Appearance Research; 2019.Hatamleh MM, Haylock C, Watson J, Watts DC. Maxillofacial prosthetic rehabilitation in the UK: A survey of maxillofacial prosthetists' and technologists' attitudes and opinions. Int J Oral Maxillofac Surg. 2010;39:1186–1192.
- Huband M. Prosthetic rehabilitation. Dermatol Clin. 2011;29:325-330.
- Hooper SM, Westcott T, Evans PL, et al. Implant-supported facial prostheses provided by a maxillofacial unit in a U.K. regional hospital: Longevity and patient opinions. J Prosthodont. 2005;14:32-38.
- Bibb R, Eggbeer D, Evans P. Rapid prototyping technologies in soft tissue facial prosthetics: Current state of the art. *Rapid Prototyp J*. 2010;16:130–137. 6.
- 7. Nuseir A, Hatamleh MM, Alnazzawi A, et al. Direct 3D printing of flexible nasal prosthesis: Optimized digital workflow from scan to fit. J Prosthodont. 2019;28:10-14.
- Salazar-Gamarra R, Seelaus R, da Silva JV, et al. Monoscopic 8. photogrammetry to obtain 3D models by a mobile device: A method for making facial prostheses. *J Otolaryngol Head Neck Surg.* 2016;45:33. Tsuji M, Noguchi N, Ihara K, et al. Fabrication of a maxillofacial prosthesis
- 9 using a computer-aided design and manufacturing system. J Prosthodont. 2004;13:179-183.
- Runte C, Dirksen D, Deleré H, et al. Optical data acquisition for 10. computer-assisted design of facial prostheses. Int J Prosthodont. 2002;15:129-132.
- Mohammed MI, Cadd B, Peart G, Gibson I. Augmented patient-specific facial prosthesis production using medical imaging modelling and 3D printing technologies for improved patient outcomes. Virtual Phys Prototyp. 2018;13:164–176.
- Cheah CM, Chua CK, Tan KH, Teo CK. Integration of laser surface digitizing with CAD/CAM techniques for developing facial prostheses. Part 1: Design and fabrication of prosthesis replicas. *Int J Prosthodont*. 12. 2003;16:435-441.
- Marafon PG, Mattos BS, Sabóia AC, Noritomi PY. Dimensional accuracy of 13 computer-aided design/computer-assisted manufactured orbital prostheses. Int J Prosthodont. 2010;23:271-276.
- 14 Jablonski RY, Malhotra T, Coward TJ, et al. Digital database for nasal prosthesis design with a 3D morphable face model approach. J Prosthet Dent. 2024;131:1271–127
- 15. Bai SZ, Feng ZH, Gao R, et al. Development and application of a rapid rehabilitation system for reconstruction of maxillofacial soft-tissue defects related to war and traumatic injuries. Mil Med Res. 2014;1:11.
- Abd El Salam SE, Eskandar AE, Mohammed KA. Patient satisfaction of 16. orbital prosthesis fabricated by the aid of rapid prototyping technology versus conventional technique in orbital defect patients: A crossover randomized clinical trial. Int J Maxillofac Prosthetics. 2020;2:27–32.
- 17. Unkovskiy A, Spintzyk S, Brom J, et al. Direct 3D printing of silicone facial prostheses: A preliminary experience in digital workflow. J Prosthet Dent. 2018;120:303-308.
- Elbashti ME, Sumita YI, Kelimu S, et al. Application of digital technologies 18. in maxillofacial prosthetics literature: A 10-year observation of five selected prosthodontics journals. *Int J Prosthodont*. 2019;32:45–50.
- 19. Suresh N, Janakiram C, Nayar S, et al. Effectiveness of digital data acquisition technologies in the fabrication of maxillofacial prostheses - A systematic review. J Oral Biol Craniofac Res. 2022;12:208–215.
- 20. Jablonski RY, Veale BJ, Coward TJ, et al. Outcome measures in facial prosthesis research: A systematic review. J Prosthet Dent. 2021;126:805-815.
- Tanveer W, Ridwan-Pramana A, Molinero-Mourelle P, et al. Systematic 21. review of clinical applications of CAD/CAM technology for craniofacial implants placement and manufacturing of nasal prostheses. Int J Environ Res Public Health. 2021;18:3756.
- Tanveer W, Ridwan-Pramana A, Molinero-Mourelle P, Forouzanfar T. 22. Systematic review of clinical applications of CAD/CAM technology for

craniofacial implants placement and manufacturing of orbital prostheses. Int J Environ Res Public Health. 2021;18:11349.

- 23. Farook TH, Jamayet NB, Abdullah JY, et al. A systematic review of the computerized tools and digital techniques applied to fabricate nasal, auricular, orbital and ocular prostheses for facial defect rehabilitation. J Stomatol Oral Maxillofac Surg. 2020;121:268-277.
- 24. Faris C, Heiser A, Quatela Ö, et al. Health utility of rhinectomy, surgical nasal reconstruction, and prosthetic rehabilitation. Laryngoscope. 2020:130:1674-1679.
- Ijzerman M, Koffijberg H, Fenwick E, Krahn M. Emerging use of early health 25. technology assessment in medical product development: A scoping review of the literature. Pharmacoeconomics. 2017;35:727-740.
- Silva EN, Silva MT, Pereira MG. Uncertainty in economic evaluation studies. 26. Epidemiol Serv Saude. 2017;26:211-213.
- 27. Yaron G, Meershoek A, Widdershoven G, Slatman J. Recognizing difference: In/visibility in the everyday life of individuals with facial limb absence. *Disabil Soc.* 2018;33:743–762.
- Yaron G. Living with a partly amputated face, doing facial difference. 28. Women, Gend Res. 2021;31:10-23.
- 29. Yaron G, Widdershoven G, Slatman J. Recovering a "disfigured" face: Cosmesis in the everyday use of facial prostheses. Res Phil T. 2017;21:1-23.
- 30. Worrell E, Worrell L, Bisase B. Care of long-term survivors of head and neck cancer after treatment with oral or facial prostheses, or both. Br J Oral Maxillofac Surg. 2017;55:685-690.
- Martindale AM, Fisher P. Disrupted faces, disrupted identities? 31. Embodiment, life stories and acquired facial 'disfigurement. Sociol Health Illn. 2019;41:1503-1519.
- 32. Keys J, Dempster M, Jackson J, et al. The psychosocial impact of losing an eye through traumatic injury and living with prosthetic restoration: A thematic analysis. Acta Psychol. 2021;219:103383.
- 33. Hatamleh MM, Hatamlah HM, Nuseir A. Maxillofacial prosthetics and digital technologies: Cross-sectional study of healthcare service provision, patient attitudes, and opinions. J Prosthodont 2023:1-8. 34
- Dowie J. Analysing health outcomes. *J Med Ethics*. 2001;27:245–250. Eldridge SM, Lancaster GA, Campbell MJ, et al. Defining feasibility and 35
- a conceptual framework. *PLoS One*. 2016;11:e0150205. 36
- Lee EC, Whitehead AL, Jacques RM, Julious SA. The statistical interpretation of pilot trials: Should significance thresholds be reconsidered? BMC Med Res Methodol. 2014;14:41.
- 37. Moore CG, Carter RE, Nietert PJ, Stewart PW. Recommendations for planning pilot studies in clinical and translational research. Clin Transl Sci. 2011;4:332–337.
- 38 Jablonski RY, Coward TJ, Bartlett P, et al. Improving facial prosthesis construction with contactless scanning and digital workflow (IMPRESSeD). Study protocol for a feasibility crossover randomised controlled trial of digital versus conventional manufacture of facial prostheses in patients with orbital or nasal facial defects. Pilot Feasibility Stud. 2023;9:110.
- Eldridge SM, Chan CL, Campbell MJ, et al. CONSORT 2010 statement: Extension to randomised pilot and feasibility trials. *Br Med J*. 2016;355:i5239. Dwan K, Li T, Altman DG, Elbourne D. CONSORT 2010 statement: 39.
- 40. Extension to randomised crossover trials. Br Med J. 2019;366:14378.
- 41. Cocks K, Torgerson DJ. Sample size calculations for pilot randomized trials: A confidence interval approach. J Clin Epidemiol. 2013;66:197-201. 42. Kiat-amnuay S, Jacob RF, Chambers MS, et al. Clinical trial of chlorinated
- polyethylene for facial prosthetics. Int J Prosthodont. 2010;23:263-270. 43. Friede T, Kieser M. Sample size recalculation in internal pilot study designs:
- review. Biom J. 2006;48:537–555
- 44. Birkett MA, Day SJ. Internal pilot studies for estimating sample size. Stat Med. 1994;13:2455-2463.
- 45. Julious SA. Sample size of 12 per group rule of thumb for a pilot study. Pharmaceut Statist. 2005;4:287–291.
- 46. Browne RH. On the use of a pilot sample for sample size determination. Stat Med. 1995;14:1933-1940.
- Lancaster GA, Dodd S, Williamson PR. Design and analysis of pilot studies: Recommendations for good practice. *J Eval Clin Pract.* 2004;10:307–312.
 Higgins JPT, Eldridge S, Li T. Chapter 23: Including variants on randomized
- trials. In: Higgins JPT, Thomas J, Chandler J, Cumpston M, Li T, Page MJ, editors. Cochrane handbook for systematic reviews of interventions version 6.5 (updated August 2024). Cochrane; 2024.
- 49. Scott NW, McPherson GC, Ramsay CR, Campbell MK. The method of minimization for allocation to clinical trials. A review. Control Clin Trials. 2002;23:662-674.
- 50. Altman DG, Bland JM. Treatment allocation by minimisation. Br Med J. 2005;330:843
- 51. Jablonski RY, Malhotra T, Shaw D, et al. Comparison of trueness and repeatability of facial prosthesis design using a 3D morphable model approach, traditional computer-aided design methods, and conventional manual sculpting techniques. J Prosthet Dent. 2025;133:598–607. Jablonski RY, Osnes CA, Khambay BS, et al. Accuracy of capturing oncology
- 52 facial defects with multimodal image fusion versus laser scanning. J Prosthet Dent. 2019;122:333-338.

- Jablonski RY, Osnes CA, Khambay BS, et al. An in-vitro study to assess the 53. feasibility, validity and precision of capturing oncology facial defects with multimodal image fusion. *Surgeon*. 2018;16:265–270.
- Unkovskiy A, Spintzyk S, Beuer F, et al. Accuracy of capturing nasal, orbital, 54. and auricular defects with extra- and intraoral optical scanners and
- Besl PJ, McKay ND. A method for registration of 3-D shapes. *IEEE Trans Pattern Anal Mach Intell*, 1992;14:239–256. 55.
- Kartynnik Y, Ablavatski A, Grishchenko I, Grundmann M. Real-time facial 56 surface geometry from monocular video on mobile GPUs. CVPR workshop on computer vision for augmented and virtual reality. 2019. Long Beach: CVPR,; 2019.
- 57. Booth J, Roussos A, Ponniah A, et al. Large scale 3D Morphable Models. Int Comput Vis. 2018;126:233-254.
- Dai H, Pears N, Smith W. A data-augmented 3D morphable model of the 58 ear. 2018 13th IEEE international conference on automatic face and gesture recognition (FG 2018). Los Alamitos: Institute of Electrical and Electronics Engineers Inc,; 2018:404-408.
- Wood E, Baltrusaitis T, Hewitt C, et al. 3D face reconstruction with dense landmarks. In: Avidan S, Brostow G, Cissé M, Farinella GM, Hassner T, editors. Computer Vision – ECCV 2022. Cham: Springer; 2022:160–177.
- Karanicolas PJ, Farrokhyar F, Bhandari M. Practical tips for surgical research: Blinding: Who, what, when, why, how? *Car J Surg*. 2010;53:345–348. Monaghan TF, Agudelo CW, Rahman SN, et al. Blinding in clinical trials: Seeing the big picture. *Medicina*. 2021;57:647. 60.
- 61
- 62. Churruca K, Pomare C, Ellis LA, et al. Patient-reported outcome measures (PROMs): A review of generic and condition-specific measures and a discussion of trends and issues. Health Expect. 2021;24:1015-1024.
- Aviles-Blanco MV. Economic evaluation of process utility: Elucidating preferences for a non-invasive procedure to treat restenosis. Health Econ Rev. 2021;11:27.
- Anderson JD, Johnston DA, Haugh GS, et al. The Toronto outcome 64. measure for craniofacial prosthetics: Reliability and validity of a condition-specific quality-of-life instrument. Int J Oral Maxillofac Implants. 2013;28:453-460.
- Tam CK, McGrath CP, Ho SMY, et al. Psychosocial and quality of life 65 outcomes of prosthetic auricular rehabilitation with CAD/CAM technology. Int J Dent. 2014;2014:393571.
- Anderson JD, Szalai JP. The Toronto outcome measure for craniofacial 66 prosthetics: A condition-specific quality-of-life instrument. Int J Oral . Maxillofac Implants. 2003;18:531–538.
- National Institute for Health and Care Excellence. NICE health technology 67. evaluations: The manual, PMG36. London: NICE,; 2022.
- EuroQol Research Foundation. EQ-5D-5L user guide version 3.0 (updated 68. September 2019). Rotterdam: EuroQol Research Foundation,; 2019.
- Pickard AS, De Leon MC, Kohlmann T, et al. Psychometric comparison of the standard EQ-5D to a 5 level version in cancer patients. Med Care. 2007:45:259-263.
- Hernández Alava M, Pudney S, Wailoo A. Estimating the relationship between EQ-5D-5L and EQ-5D-3L: Results from a UK population study. Pharmacoeconomics. 2023;41:199-207.
- Kievit H, Verhage-Damen GWJA, Ingels KJ, et al. Long-term quality of life 71. assessment in patients with auricular prostheses. J Craniofac Surg. 2013:24:392-397.

- 72. Mevio E, Facca L, Schettini S, Mullace M. Bone-anchored titanium implants in patients with auricular defects: Three years and 27 patients' experience. Int J Otolaryngol. 2016;2016:9872048.
- 73. Mevio E, Facca L, Mullace M, et al. Osseointegrated implants in patients with auricular defects: A case series study. Acta Otorhinolaryngologica Italica. 2015:35:186-190.
- 74. Maruish ME. User's manual for the SF-12v2 Health Survey. 3rd ed., Lincoln: QualityMetric Incorporated,; 2012.
- 75. Brazier J, Usherwood T, Harper R, Thomas K. Deriving a preference-based single index from the UK SF-36 Health Survey. J Clin Epidemiol. 1998;51:1115-1128.
- 76. Brazier JE, Roberts J. The estimation of a preference-based measure of health from the SF-12. Med Care. 2004;42:851-859.
- 77. Mogyorosy Z, Smith PC. The main methodological issues in costing health care services - A literature review. York: Centre for Health Economics (University of York),; 2005.
- 78. Jones K.C., Weatherly H., Birch S., et al. Unit costs of health and social care 2022 manual. Kent: Personal Social Services Research Unit (University of Kent) and Centre for Health Economics (University of York); 2023.
- 79. Moher D. Schulz KF, Altman DG, The CONSORT statement: Revised recommendations for improving the quality of reports of parallel-group randomized trials. Ann Intern Med. 2001;134:657-662.

Corresponding author:

Rachael Y. Jablonski Leeds School of Dentistry Clarendon Way University of Leeds Leeds, England LS2 9LU UNITED KINGDOM Email: rachaeljablonski@gmail.com

Acknowledgments

The authors thank Syeda Khalid, Cecile Jones, and Cecilie Osnes (Leeds Digital Dentistry) for their help in refining the digital manufacturing workflow; the SMILE AIDER Patient and Public Involvement and Engagement forum (Leeds School of Dentistry) for co-designing the study; and Farag Shuweihdi, Nuria Navarro Coy, and Gillian Dukanovic (Dental Translational and Clinical Research Unit) for their statistical and operational support. The authors also thank Sabah Zaulifqar (Leeds Dental Institute) and Naimesha Patel, Sara Guerrero-Appleford, Paramjit Kaur, and Sameera Patel (Guy's and St Thomas' NHS Foundation Trust) for their maxillofacial prosthetic expertise, and Lindsey Robinson (Guy's and St Thomas' NHS Foundation Trust) for providing administrative support. Finally, the authors thank the Independent Advisory Committee members David Torgerson, Callum Cowan, Kalpita Baird, Robin Fahey, and Peter Stevenson for their methodological, clinical, and experiential expertise in overseeing the study.

Copyright © 2025 The Authors. Published by Elsevier Inc. on behalf of the Editorial Council of The Journal of Prosthetic Dentistry. This is an open access article under the CC BY license (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/). https://doi.org/10.1016/j.prosdent.2025.03.002