

## Chapter 11

# Overcoming Bioprinting Challenges

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**Abstract:** The rapid progression of 3D bioprinting technologies holds transformative potential for regenerative medicine, pharmaceutical testing, and organ transplantation. However, the pathway from laboratory innovation to clinical realization remains fraught with numerous challenges that span technical, biological, material, and regulatory domains. This chapter offers a comprehensive exploration of the multifaceted barriers impeding the widespread adoption of bioprinting. It begins by examining key technical limitations such as inadequate print resolution, challenges in multi-material deposition, and equipment constraints. Biological obstacles, including cell viability during extrusion, insufficient nutrient diffusion, and poor vascular integration, are critically analyzed. The chapter also addresses the intrinsic limitations of current bioinks, including suboptimal rheological properties and storage issues. Post-printing hurdles, such as tissue maturation and functional integration, are discussed with emphasis on the role of bioreactors. Moreover, the scalability of bioprinted constructs and reproducibility across manufacturing batches is scrutinized in light of clinical translation. Regulatory challenges, including ambiguous approval pathways and lack of standardized protocols, further complicate the field. By dissecting each challenge with recent scientific evidence and exploring ongoing solutions, this chapter aims to guide researchers, clinicians, and industrial partners toward a collaborative resolution roadmap for realizing the promise of bioprinted therapeutics.

**Keywords:** Bioprinting barriers, cell viability, bioink limitations, tissue vascularization, regulatory pathways.

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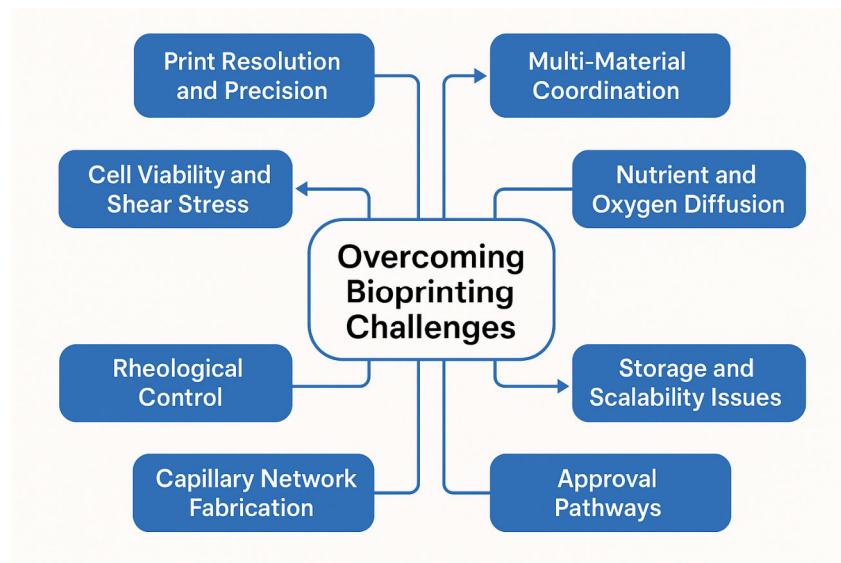
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## 11.0 INTRODUCTION

### 11.0.1 Major Challenges Overview

Despite significant strides in 3D bioprinting, the field remains constrained by a constellation of challenges that limit the reproducibility, scalability, and clinical translatability of bioprinted constructs. At the technical level, issues such as inadequate resolution, imprecise layer stacking, and the difficulty in synchronizing multiple biomaterials persist across printer platforms. Biologically, maintaining cell viability during the printing process, promoting tissue maturation, and ensuring sufficient nutrient and oxygen diffusion within larger constructs remain persistent obstacles. Equally concerning are limitations related to bioinks, which must simultaneously fulfill mechanical, biological, and process-related demands a trifecta that is rarely achieved with current formulations. Moreover, even when optimal constructs are produced in laboratory settings, scaling up production while maintaining uniformity across batches introduces complexity, especially when industrial manufacturing standards are considered. Post-printing maturation processes require sophisticated bioreactors, adding further operational complexity. Finally, the absence of universally accepted regulatory frameworks for bioprinted tissues hinders clinical trials and commercialization. These challenges are not insurmountable, but they demand a coordinated interdisciplinary approach involving materials scientists, cell biologists, bioengineers, and regulatory agencies.



**Figure 11.1: A visual summary of key challenges encountered in the bioprinting workflow, including technical, biological, material-related, and regulatory barriers. This flowchart highlights eight core problem areas requiring interdisciplinary solutions**

### 11.0.2 Impact on Clinical Translation

The limitations outlined above significantly delay the clinical translation of bioprinted tissues and organs. Unlike traditional medical devices or biologics, bioprinted constructs are complex living systems that must functionally integrate with host tissues. The absence of standardized validation metrics for these constructs such as mechanical integrity, cellular function, and immunogenicity makes

it difficult to demonstrate equivalence to natural tissues or existing treatment options. Furthermore, regulatory bodies such as the U.S. FDA or European EMA have yet to define specific guidelines tailored to bioprinting, leaving researchers and manufacturers in a grey zone. This uncertainty not only hampers investment but also discourages institutions from advancing products into preclinical or clinical trials. In some cases, promising research findings are trapped in the laboratory phase due to logistical bottlenecks or regulatory ambiguities. Thus, the challenges in bioprinting are not merely scientific; they also reflect systemic issues in policy, infrastructure, and intersectoral collaboration that must be holistically addressed.

## **11.1 Technical Barriers**

### **11.1.1 Print Resolution and Precision**

High-resolution printing is critical to replicating the intricate microarchitectures of native tissues such as vasculature, alveoli, or glomeruli. Most extrusion-based bioprinters currently achieve resolutions of ~100–200  $\mu\text{m}$ , which are sufficient for macrostructural fidelity but inadequate for replicating fine-scale details such as capillaries (5–10  $\mu\text{m}$  diameter). Inkjet and laser-assisted bioprinting platforms offer improved resolution (~20  $\mu\text{m}$ ), but they are often limited in terms of bioink viscosity compatibility and printing speed [1]. Layer-by-layer deposition introduces further challenges. The accumulation of minor misalignments can result in geometric defects, particularly in overhanging or unsupported structures. Additionally, bioinks tend to spread or collapse post-deposition due to surface tension and low viscosity, reducing the structural integrity of printed features. Innovations such as sacrificial support materials, embedded printing in yield-stress baths, and in situ crosslinking have been proposed to mitigate this issue [2,3]. Despite these advances, the trade-off between speed, resolution, and cell viability remains unresolved. High-resolution prints are often slow and impose mechanical stress or heat that can compromise cells. Future efforts must focus on hybrid platforms that combine high-speed actuation with nanoliter precision while preserving biological functionality.

### **11.1.2 Multi-Material Coordination**

Bioprinted tissues often require the integration of multiple cell types and extracellular matrix (ECM)-mimetic materials to replicate heterogeneity. However, coordinating the simultaneous deposition of diverse materials remains a formidable challenge. Each bioink typically has unique rheological, crosslinking, and degradation profiles, which complicates co-printing. Misalignment or inconsistency between material jets can lead to mechanical discontinuities and poor integration between tissue zones [4]. For example, printing a vascularized bone-tendon interface may require distinct layers of hard (e.g., hydroxyapatite-laden) and soft (e.g., collagen or fibrin) materials. Synchronizing nozzle temperature, pressure, and deposition timing across different materials and cell populations without compromising functionality demands advanced control systems and real-time feedback mechanisms [5]. Current multi-head printers often lack the computational intelligence to dynamically adapt printing parameters mid-process. Emerging strategies involve automated print path optimization, machine learning for parameter tuning, and modular nozzle systems that can handle bioinks with variable viscosities or curing kinetics. While promising, these systems are still in developmental stages and have not yet been widely adopted in clinical-grade manufacturing settings.

## **11.2 Biological Challenges**

### **11.2.1 Cell Viability and Shear Stress**

One of the most immediate biological concerns during bioprinting is maintaining high cell viability throughout the printing process. In extrusion-based systems, cells are subjected to shear stresses as they are forced through narrow nozzles under pressure. Studies have shown that shear stress above 5 kPa can damage cell membranes, trigger apoptosis, or induce premature differentiation, particularly in sensitive stem cell populations [6]. Nozzle geometry, printing speed, and ink viscosity all influence shear exposure. Thinner nozzles increase spatial precision but also elevate mechanical stress. Additionally, temperature-sensitive bioinks such as gelatin-methacrylate (GelMA) require heating or UV-crosslinking, which can further compromise cell integrity. Optimization often requires balancing between mechanical fidelity and biological safety. To mitigate these effects, researchers are exploring shear-thinning bioinks, lubricating co-axial flows, and low-pressure extrusion systems [7]. Microfluidic bioprinting platforms, which generate minimal shear stress, have shown promise but are currently limited in scale and complexity. Thus, the field continues to evolve toward solutions that maximize viability without sacrificing print resolution or throughput.

### **11.2.2 Nutrient and Oxygen Diffusion**

In large or thick tissue constructs (>1 mm), simple diffusion is insufficient to sustain cell viability beyond the outer layers. Hypoxic and nutrient-deprived cores rapidly become necrotic, limiting the functional volume of printed tissues. In native tissues, vascular networks solve this problem by providing active transport and gas exchange, a feature that is difficult to replicate in vitro [8]. Bioprinted constructs typically rely on passive diffusion during the early post-printing phase. Efforts to address this include co-printing endothelial cells to form primitive vessel networks, incorporating angiogenic growth factors (e.g., VEGF), or using perfusable microchannels within the construct [9]. However, vascular self-assembly is slow and often fails to keep pace with metabolic demands in thick tissues. Recent developments in coaxial printing, sacrificial ink removal, and decellularized ECM-based scaffolds have enabled more sophisticated microvasculature integration. Yet, the challenge persists in achieving functional, perfusable, and hierarchically branched networks capable of rapid anastomosis with host vasculature. Without this, the promise of printing whole organs remains aspirational.

## **11.3 Bioink Limitations**

### **11.3.1 Rheological Control**

The rheological properties of bioinks are central to achieving both structural fidelity and cellular functionality during and after printing. Ideal bioinks must be shear-thinning to facilitate extrusion but rapidly recover viscosity post-deposition to maintain shape integrity. Furthermore, they must offer sufficient mechanical strength to support construct architecture while remaining soft enough to avoid impeding cell proliferation, migration, and matrix remodeling [10]. Most naturally derived bioinks, such as alginate, gelatin, fibrin, or collagen, demonstrate excellent biocompatibility but poor mechanical robustness. Conversely, synthetic hydrogels such as polyethylene glycol (PEG)-based systems can be engineered for mechanical precision but often lack the cellular signaling cues essential for tissue formation. Hybrid systems are under exploration, combining biologically active materials with synthetic backbones to balance these trade-offs [11]. Moreover, the crosslinking method used—whether ionic, thermal, photo-initiated, or enzymatic—affects not just gelation time and stiffness but also cytocompatibility. For instance, UV crosslinking may be cytotoxic without adequate

photoinitiator control. Additionally, batch-to-batch variability in natural polymers can lead to unpredictable rheological behavior, complicating standardization. Thus, there is a pressing need for universally tunable, xeno-free, and clinically compliant bioinks that meet the dual demands of printability and biofunctionality.

### **11.3.2 Storage and Scalability Issues**

Beyond their physical and biological performance, bioinks face logistical hurdles concerning storage stability, sterilization, and scalability. Many hydrogel-based inks, particularly those derived from animal tissues or recombinant proteins, are thermosensitive and degrade quickly, limiting their shelf life to days or weeks under refrigerated conditions. This short window complicates commercial distribution and clinical deployment [12]. Sterilization methods, such as filtration, irradiation, or autoclaving, may alter the structural or functional integrity of bioinks. Gamma irradiation, for instance, denatures protein-based components, while heat sterilization is incompatible with thermally gelling systems. As a result, aseptic preparation and packaging under good manufacturing practices (GMP) is labor-intensive and cost-prohibitive at scale. Furthermore, most current bioinks are produced in research-scale batches, often requiring cold-chain logistics and custom synthesis. This lack of scalable and off-the-shelf availability presents a significant barrier to the adoption of bioprinting in mainstream clinical or industrial contexts. Therefore, future innovations must focus on developing room-temperature stable, pre-sterilized, modular bioinks with extended shelf lives and easy reconstitution protocols.

## **11.4 Vascularization and Integration**

### **11.4.1 Capillary Network Fabrication**

Perhaps the most critical challenge in tissue engineering and bioprinting is the generation of functional, perfusable vasculature capable of supporting metabolic demands within thick or complex constructs. Capillaries, with diameters ranging from 5 to 10  $\mu\text{m}$ , are responsible for nutrient and oxygen exchange, and their absence in printed tissues quickly leads to ischemic necrosis. Therefore, the successful fabrication of capillary-like networks is not just desirable it is essential for clinical viability [13]. Current strategies for vascularization fall into two major categories: bottom-up (biological self-assembly) and top-down (bioprinting). In bottom-up approaches, endothelial cells are seeded into scaffolds and encouraged to self-organize into microvessels, aided by angiogenic cues and extracellular matrix (ECM) guidance. While biologically elegant, this method is slow and lacks spatial control. Top-down approaches utilize bioprinting to directly deposit vessel-like channels or endothelialized tubes. Coaxial printing allows the formation of tubular geometries by extruding a core-shell bioink system, often embedding endothelial cells within the shell matrix [14]. Alternatively, sacrificial materials (e.g., Pluronic F127 or carbohydrate glass) can be printed and later dissolved, leaving behind a network of hollow channels. These channels can then be seeded with vascular cells or perfused with media.

Integration with host vasculature post-implantation remains a critical bottleneck. Constructs must not only sustain *in vitro* viability but also rapidly anastomose with surrounding vessels after implantation. Research into angiogenic factor gradients, mechanoresponsive ECMs, and dynamic bioreactor conditioning is underway to enhance this transition. Nevertheless, full vascular mimicry remains one of the most pressing unsolved challenges in functional tissue printing.

## **11.5 Post-Printing Maturation**

### **11.5.1 Bioreactor Use**

Once a tissue construct is printed, it does not immediately possess the functional, mechanical, or physiological characteristics of native tissue. Post-printing maturation is essential to promote cell differentiation, extracellular matrix deposition, mechanical integrity, and bioactivity. Bioreactors are engineered systems that provide a controlled environment for such maturation, supplying nutrients, mechanical cues, and appropriate oxygenation [15]. Depending on the tissue type, bioreactors can deliver dynamic compression (for cartilage), shear flow (for vasculature), or tensile strain (for muscle or ligament) to simulate *in vivo* conditions. Perfusion bioreactors, in particular, are used to overcome diffusion limits by continuously circulating culture media through and around the printed construct, enhancing mass transport and waste removal. Moreover, electrical or biochemical stimulation can be applied in a spatially and temporally controlled manner to influence lineage-specific differentiation. For example, cardiac patches may be subjected to electrical pacing to promote synchronized contraction and improve sarcomere formation. Despite their promise, bioreactors add complexity and cost to the bioprinting workflow. Designing systems that are GMP-compliant, scalable, and capable of simultaneously conditioning multiple tissue types remains a hurdle. Furthermore, translating bioreactor-optimized constructs into implantation-ready tissues requires strict validation of sterility, function, and immunological compatibility. Future advancements must focus on modular, automated, and closed-loop bioreactor platforms tailored for different tissue classes.

## **11.6 Scalability and Reproducibility**

### **11.6.1 Transition to Industrial Manufacturing**

For bioprinting to transition from experimental setups to mainstream healthcare solutions, it must overcome significant scalability and reproducibility challenges. Most bioprinting protocols are optimized for benchtop use and depend on manual interventions, inconsistent material sources, and non-standardized processes. This makes it difficult to replicate results across different labs, let alone manufacture constructs at clinical or industrial scale [16]. Reproducibility is undermined by variability in cell source, passage number, and phenotype; by differences in bioink composition and crosslinking kinetics; and by operator-dependent errors in printing setup or handling. Addressing these issues requires automation, standard operating procedures, and quality assurance metrics at every stage of the production pipeline. Industrial bioprinting must also align with manufacturing paradigms such as good manufacturing practice (GMP) and ISO certification. This necessitates the use of validated equipment, traceable materials, and electronic batch records. Additionally, high-throughput printing platforms with real-time monitoring and closed-loop control systems will be essential to ensure consistency across batches. Several companies are developing bioprinting platforms with robotic integration, in-line quality control, and modular scalability. However, translating these innovations into hospital-grade tissue manufacturing remains an emerging frontier. Ultimately, the goal is to establish robust manufacturing pipelines capable of producing patient-specific constructs at scale, on demand, and with clinically validated performance.

**Table 11.1: Challenges Faced by Bioprinting Innovation**

Category	Challenge Area	Description	Examples	Potential Solutions	References
<b>Technical Challenges</b>	<b>Bioink Development</b>	Finding or creating bioinks that can mimic the properties of native tissues, ensuring biocompatibility and functionality.	Current bioinks often lack mechanical strength, cell viability, and proper structure formation after printing.	Development of more sophisticated bioinks that better mimic natural tissue behavior, including those from algae, collagen, and synthetic polymers.	19
	<b>Precision and Resolution</b>	Achieving high-resolution, precise 3D printing of cellular structures with functional complexity.	Current printers may have difficulty printing fine details or creating complex tissue architectures.	Advances in printing technology (e.g., multi-nozzle systems, higher resolution printers) to improve resolution and control.	20
	<b>Cell Viability Post-Printing</b>	Ensuring that cells remain viable and functional after the printing process, which can damage cells due to shear stress and lack of nutrients.	Some cells die during or immediately after the printing process, limiting the effectiveness of bioprinted tissues.	Use of micro-environmental control during printing, including nutrient reservoirs, and improvements in bioreactor systems for cell recovery.	21
	<b>Structural Integrity of Bioprints</b>	Maintaining the strength, flexibility, and	Bioprinted tissues or scaffolds may	Development of stronger, more flexible	22

		durability of bioprinted structures, especially under physiological conditions.	not fully mimic the mechanical properties of natural tissue.	bioinks, and post-printing processes like crosslinking or curing to improve structural integrity.	
<b>Regulatory Challenges</b>	<b>FDA Approval and Regulatory Frameworks</b>	Navigating the complex regulatory requirements for bioprinted medical devices and tissues.	Bioprinted organs and tissues may face difficulties in gaining approval for clinical use.	Development of specific regulatory guidelines for bioprinted medical products, including phased testing protocols and clear standards.	23
	<b>Ethical Concerns</b>	Addressing concerns regarding the use of bioprinted human tissues, including the potential for organ printing and human enhancement.	Bioprinted organs for transplantation or human genetic manipulation raise significant ethical dilemmas.	Development of ethical guidelines for organ printing, especially in terms of equity, access, and the potential for misuse.	24
	<b>Standardization of Procedures</b>	The need for standardized processes and protocols for bioprinting to ensure consistency, reproducibility, and safety.	Lack of universally accepted standards for bioink composition, printer settings, and post-printing treatments.	Collaboration among industry, regulatory bodies, and academia to create universal guidelines and standards for bioprinting processes.	25



<b>Financial and Economic Challenges</b>	<b>High Costs of Bioprinting</b>	The initial costs of bioprinting equipment, bioinks, and necessary technologies are prohibitively expensive for widespread adoption.	High cost of purchasing bioprinters, maintenance, and consumables in research and clinical settings.	Investment in low-cost bioprinting platforms and development of more affordable bioinks through research grants and commercial partnerships.	26
	<b>Scalability of Production</b>	Scaling up bioprinting processes for mass production of bioprinted tissues, organs, or pharmaceutical products.	While bioprinting is promising for research and small-scale production, large-scale manufacturing remains a challenge.	Innovations in automated bioprinting systems, integration of AI and robotics for scalability, and the use of multiple printers in parallel.	27
	<b>Market Adoption</b>	Overcoming skepticism and gaining acceptance of bioprinted products in medical and consumer markets.	The market for bioprinted products (e.g., organs, cosmetics, food) is still developing and faces public resistance.	Strategic collaborations with major medical institutions, educating the public on the safety and benefits of bioprinted products, and ensuring transparent testing.	28
<b>Ethical and Social Challenges</b>	<b>Privacy and Security of Bioprinted Data</b>	Concerns about the security of patient data when using	Bioprinted tissues for organ printing may require data on the	Development of secure data encryption systems and privacy	29

		bioprinted technologies in healthcare.	patient's genetics, creating privacy risks if not properly handled.	guidelines for handling bioprinted patient data.	
	<b>Public Perception and Acceptance</b>	Addressing public fears and misconceptions about bioprinting, especially in relation to organ cloning or genetic modification.	Public concerns over the safety, ethics, and long-term effects of using bioprinted organs or tissues in humans.	Public education campaigns, transparency in research, and dialogue with regulatory bodies to establish safety and ethical standards.	30
<b>Interdisciplinary Collaboration</b>	<b>Lack of Expertise Integration</b>	Bioprinting requires collaboration between engineers, biologists, chemists, and clinicians, which can be difficult to coordinate.	Successful bioprinting projects often require expertise in multiple disciplines, which may not always align.	Establishment of interdisciplinary research centers and cross-disciplinary education programs to foster collaboration.	31

This Table 11.1 addresses the primary challenges faced in bioprinting, covering technical, regulatory, financial, and ethical aspects of the field. Technically, there are issues with developing bioinks that mimic native tissues, achieving precise printing resolutions, maintaining cell viability post-printing, and ensuring structural integrity. Potential solutions include advancements in bioink composition, printing technology, and micro-environmental control during the printing process. Regulatory challenges include the difficulty in gaining FDA approval for bioprinted medical products, addressing ethical concerns regarding human tissue printing, and the lack of standardized protocols for bioprinting processes. Financially, the high costs of bioprinting equipment and scalability for mass production are obstacles, with solutions involving cost-effective platforms and automation technologies. Social challenges, such as privacy concerns over patient data and public skepticism about bioprinting, require

secure data encryption, education campaigns, and transparent research. Finally, interdisciplinary collaboration remains a barrier, necessitating the establishment of centers that integrate expertise across fields like engineering, biology, and medicine to foster successful bioprinting projects.

## **11.7 Regulatory Challenges**

### **11.7.1 Approval Pathways**

Bioprinted tissues and organs occupy a unique regulatory grey zone that straddles the boundaries between medical devices, biologics, and advanced therapy medicinal products (ATMPs). Regulatory bodies such as the U.S. Food and Drug Administration (FDA), European Medicines Agency (EMA), and the Pharmaceuticals and Medical Devices Agency (PMDA) in Japan have yet to issue definitive, harmonized guidelines that address the unique composition, function, and manufacturing process of bioprinted products [17]. The complexity lies in the hybrid nature of these constructs. A single bioprinted skin patch, for instance, may include living cells (biologic), scaffolding material (device), and growth factors (drug). The classification depends on the product's primary mode of action, but the ambiguity of such assessments can lead to regulatory delays or rejections. Furthermore, the absence of consensus on acceptable preclinical models, in vitro performance metrics, and long-term safety endpoints hampers clinical trial design and approval applications [18]. Additionally, quality assurance is complicated by batch-to-batch variability inherent in cell-based products. Regulatory requirements such as identity, purity, potency, and sterility must be adapted for biologically active constructs, often requiring real-time and functional assays. The European Union's Regulation (EU) 2017/745 and the U.S. FDA's Tissue Reference Group Rapid Inquiry Program (TRG-RIP) represent steps toward clarity, but they remain insufficiently specific for bioprinting applications. To mitigate these challenges, collaborative frameworks involving regulatory agencies, academic institutions, and industry stakeholders are necessary. Initiatives like the Regenerative Medicine Advanced Therapy (RMAT) designation in the U.S. and early scientific advice programs in the EU offer accelerated pathways for novel bioprinted products. However, systematic, global harmonization of standards, endpoints, and definitions is imperative to streamline the transition of bioprinted constructs from bench to bedside.

## **CONCLUSION**

This chapter highlights that while 3D bioprinting presents revolutionary potential in fields such as regenerative medicine, organ replacement, and pharmaceutical testing, its clinical translation is still limited by a host of interconnected challenges. Technical barriers, including low print resolution and difficulties in synchronizing multi-material deposition, continue to affect the precision and complexity of constructs. Biologically, maintaining high cell viability during printing and ensuring sufficient nutrient and oxygen diffusion in large constructs remain critical hurdles. The limitations of current bioinks ranging from suboptimal rheological properties to poor scalability and short shelf life further complicate efforts to standardize and reproduce functional tissues. Another major bottleneck is vascularization, where the formation of capillary networks is essential yet difficult to replicate with current techniques. Additionally, post-printing tissue maturation requires complex and costly bioreactor systems, which are not yet optimized for clinical workflows. From a regulatory perspective, the lack of well-defined approval pathways for bioprinted constructs adds another layer of uncertainty,

delaying commercialization and broader adoption. Overall, the chapter emphasizes that overcoming these multifaceted barriers requires a coordinated, interdisciplinary approach involving innovations in materials science, bioengineering, and policy-making. Only through collaborative efforts and standardization can the field of bioprinting progress from experimental promise to practical, scalable medical solutions.

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