

# Injectable Scaffold: Comparative Review of Preparation Methods

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**Abstract**—Injectable scaffolds have emerged as minimally invasive platforms for tissue engineering and regenerative medicine. By allowing in situ gelation or defect filling, they circumvent limitations of pre-formed implants and enable cell/drug delivery within irregular tissue geometries. A wide range of preparation strategies have been developed, broadly categorized into physical gelation, chemical crosslinking, supramolecular self-healing systems, and pre-formed injectable constructs. Each approach offers distinct advantages and limitations with respect to injectability, gelation control, mechanical integrity, biocompatibility, and clinical applicability. This mini-review provides a comparative analysis of these preparation methods, highlighting their practical considerations and suitability for bone and soft tissue regeneration.

**Index Terms**—Bone regeneration; Drug delivery, Hydrogel, Injectable scaffold, Tissue engineering

## I. INTRODUCTION

Bone defects resulting from trauma, tumor resection, infection, or congenital malformation create a major clinical burden and often exceed the healing capacity of the body, motivating alternatives to autografts and allografts. [1] Tissue engineering approaches aim to replace or regenerate damaged bone using scaffolds that mimic the native extracellular matrix (ECM) while delivering cells and bioactive cues.

[1,2] Among scaffold formats, injectable scaffolds have attracted particular interest because they permit minimally invasive delivery and can conform to complex, irregular defect geometries in situ. [1,3] Injectable systems broadly include hydrogels, in situ-setting pastes, microparticle-based pastes, and self-assembling matrices that gel or solidify after injection. [3–5] Their high water content and ECM-like microenvironment support cell viability and nutrient transport while allowing sustained release of

drugs, growth factors, or cells. [1,6] Biomaterial choices span natural polymers (e.g., alginate, chitosan, gelatin/collagen), synthetic polymers (e.g., PLGA, PEG, poly(N-isopropylacrylamide) derivatives), and inorganic fillers (e.g., hydroxyapatite, bioactive glass) that together enable tuning of mechanics and bioactivity. [4,7,8] Natural polymers are frequently preferred for cytocompatibility and cell-interactive motifs, but they often require reinforcement or crosslinking to meet mechanical and degradation requirements for bone repair. [4,9] Conversely, synthetic polymers and ceramic additives can improve mechanical integrity and osteoconductivity but may need surface modification to enhance cell interactions. [8,10] A major determinant of function is the preparation method used to make an injectable scaffold, since fabrication approach controls porosity, gelation kinetics, mechanical strength, degradation rate, and release profiles for encapsulated agents. [5,11] Physical gelation strategies (e.g., thermoresponsive, ionic, pH-sensitive) enable gentle, cytocompatible in situ formation, whereas chemical crosslinking (e.g., photo-crosslinking, Schiff-base formation, click chemistries) can provide stronger, longer-lasting networks at the cost of more complex chemistries. [12–15] Microsphere-based and particulate pastes can form interconnected porous networks after packing and sintering or by in situ coalescence, offering routes to macroporosity and controlled drug delivery. [16,17] Nanocomposite hydrogels—formed by incorporating nanoparticles, nanoceramics, or nanosilicates—enhance mechanical stiffness and osteoinductive potential and can modulate cellular responses. [18–20] Self-healing and shear-thinning injectable hydrogels facilitate syringe delivery and rapid recovery of structure after injection, improving retention at the defect site. [21,22] Photo-

crosslinkable injectable bioinks and rapidly gelling chemistries increasingly enable simultaneous site-specific shaping and local reinforcement, expanding translational potential. [12,23] Despite these advances, major translational challenges remain: achieving load-bearing competence, controlling degradation to match bone formation, ensuring reproducible manufacturing, and demonstrating long-term safety and efficacy in clinically relevant animal models and humans. [1,24,25]

Objectives of the review

The objectives of this review are to compare and critically evaluate the major preparation methods for injectable scaffolds used in bone regeneration, to map how material choice and fabrication route determine biological and mechanical outcomes, and to highlight gaps and future directions that would accelerate clinical translation. [1,3,11]

II. COMPARATING PREPARATION METHODS, MATERIALS AND PROPERTIES

Table 1: Comparison of Preparation Methods for Injectable Scaffolds

Preparation Method	Example Mechanism / Trigger	Advantages	Limitations	Typical Applications
Thermoresponsive gelation (physical)	Gelation triggered by body temperature (e.g., Pluronic F127, PNIPAM)	Minimally invasive, cell friendly, fast gelation, no chemical crosslinkers	Weak mechanical strength, rapid degradation	MSC delivery, cartilage/bone repair hydrogels
Ionic Crosslinking (physical)	Divalent ions (Ca <sup>2+</sup> , Ba <sup>2+</sup> ) crosslink alginate or pectin in situ	Mild, non-toxic, good encapsulation of cells/drugs	Poor mechanical stability, uncontrolled	Alginate injectable hydrogels, Calcium alginate

Preparation Method	Example Mechanism / Trigger	Advantages	Limitations	Typical Applications
		gs	gelation	beads
pH-responsive gelation	Protonation/deprotonation of polymers triggers gel formation	Localized controlled release, adaptable kinetics	Requires precise physiological pH conditions	Chitosan-based scaffolds, tumor-responsive release
Photocrosslinking (chemical)	UV/visible light polymerization (GelMA, PEGDA)	Strong/stable gels, spatial control	Requires photoinitiator, risk of cytotoxicity	Bioprinting bioinks, tissue adhesives
Schiff-base crosslinking (chemical)	Aldehyde-amine covalent bonding (oxidized alginate + gelatin)	Self-healing, rapid gelation, high strength	Residual aldehyde toxicity risk	Self-healing hydrogels for bone defects
Click-chemistry crosslinking	Bio-orthogonal reactions (thiol-ene, azide-alkyne)	Highly specific, strong, tunable properties	Complex synthesis, costly	Drug-delivery and smart hydrogels
Microsphere-based assembly	Emulsion fabricated microspheres fuse post-injection	Macroporosity, sustained drug release	Lower immediate stability	Injectable PLGA microsphere scaffolds
Sol-Gel process	Hydrolysis/condensation forming inorganic networks	Strong bioactivity, HA bonding ability	Slow gelation, brittle networks	Bioactive glass/HAA composite scaffolds

Preparation Method	Example Mechanism / Trigger	Advantages	Limitations	Typical Applications
Injectable cements (CPC)	Setting via precipitation of brushite/apatite	Load-bearing strength, osteoconductive	Poor injectability sometimes, brittle	Orthopedic bone repair, vertebroplasty
3D bioprintable injectable bioinks	Dual crosslinking + shear-thinning bioinks	Fine structural control, cell printing	Requires specialized equipment	Personalized bone grafting

Table 2: Comparison of Biomaterials Used for Injectable Scaffolds

Material Class	Examples	Key Properties	Advantages	Limitations
Natural Polymers	Alginate, Chitosan, Collagen, Gelatin, HA	ECM mimicry, cell adhesion, biocompatible	Supports cell growth, bioactive	Weak mechanical stability, fast degradation
Synthetic Polymers	PLGA, PEG, PCL, PNIPAM	Tunable strength/degradation	Reproducible, stronger mechanics	Lower cell affinity, potential acidic degradation
Ceramic / Inorganic Fillers	Hydroxyapatite, $\beta$ -TCP, Bioactive glass	Osteoconductivity, stiffness	Enhances mineralization	Brittle, slow resorption
Metal-based Additives	Mg, Zn, Ag nanoparticles	Antibacterial, pro-osteogenic	Improves bioactivity	Cytotoxicity at high dose
Nanocomposites	Graphene oxide,	Reinforced strength,	Tunable mechanical	Complex

Material Class	Examples	Key Properties	Advantages	Limitations
	Nanoclay, Nanosilicates	promotes osteogenesis	mechanical enhancement	dispersion
Microsphere-Composite Systems	PLGA, chitosan, CaP microspheres	Controlled drug release, porous	High encapsulation efficiency	Complex processing
Cement-based pastes	CPC, PMMA	Load-bearing, fast setting	Clinical use accepted	Poor degradability (PMMA), heat release

Table 3: Comparison of Scaffold Properties vs Preparation Method

Property	Best Performing Preparation Method	Example Material Systems	Reason for Performance
Mechanical Strength	Chemical crosslinking, CPCs, nanocomposites	GelMA-PEGDA, CPC-HA	Strong covalent bonding & inorganic reinforcement
Porosity / Interconnected Pores	Microsphere self-assembly, cryo-templates	PLGA microspheres, CaP particles	Controlled packing and leaching produce macropores
Drug / Growth Factor Loading	Microsphere systems, hydrogels, nanocarriers	PLGA-RLX, alginate-BMP-2	High encapsulation capacity, controlled diffusion
Gelation Time / Handling	Thermogelation, ion-induced	PF127-HA, Ca-alginate	Rapid transition at

Property	Best Performing Preparation Method	Example Material Systems	Reason for Performance
	gelation		physiological temperature or ionic environment
Biocompatibility & Cell Adhesion	Natural polymer hydrogels, GelMA	Collagen, gelatin, HA	Native cell-integration motifs
Osteoinduction & Mineralization	Ceramic composites, bioactive glass sol-gel	HA/ $\beta$ -TCP, BG-gelatin	Ionic dissolution stimulates bone formation
Injectability / Self-healing	Shear-thinning hydrogels, Schiff-base gels	Oxidized alginate-gelatin	Recovers structure and maintains shape post-injection
Controlled Degradation	Synthetic biodegradable polymers (PLGA/PCL)	PLGA-based composite hydrogels	Predictable hydrolysis kinetics

### III. CONCLUSIN

Injectable scaffolds represent a transformative advancement in bone tissue engineering due to their ability to fill irregular defects, minimize surgical trauma, and support controlled drug release and cell delivery. A comparison of preparation methods demonstrates that each fabrication approach offers distinct advantages and limitations that significantly influence scaffold performance, including mechanical integrity, degradation kinetics, porosity, and biological interactions. Physical and chemical crosslinking methods offer versatility in tuning structural and functional properties, while microsphere-based systems enhance drug-loading efficiency and sustained release profiles. Sol-gel and

cement-based formulations provide superior osteoconductivity and mechanical strength suitable for load-bearing applications. Despite encouraging progress, challenges remain in achieving optimal balance between injectability, biomechanical properties, and biological outcomes. Limited clinical translation highlights the need for standardized characterization protocols and long-term in vivo evaluation. Future research should focus on combinatorial strategies, smart stimuli-responsive systems, and integration with 3D bioprinting and nanotechnology. Ultimately, interdisciplinary optimization of materials and preparation methods will determine the successful clinical adoption of injectable scaffolds for effective bone regeneration.

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