

## Advances in autologous cartilage engineering for ear and nasal reconstruction: Current status and future prospects

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### Abstract

The case of autologous cartilage engineering has revolutionized ear and nasal reconstruction. This event has resulted in an improved aesthetic and functional outcome in the surgical treatment of congenital, traumatic, and oncologic defects. As described in this review, the usage of tissue engineering treatments, which use autologous chondrocytes to alleviate immunogenicity and donor morbidity of traditional modalities such as rib graft cartilage or alloplastic implants, is of great importance. New technologies, such as 3D bioprinting and nanofibrous scaffolds, have made it possible to reproduce intricate auricular and nasal designs accurately, and bioinks such as nanofibrillated cellulose-alginate can be used to provide high-fidelity constructs. The microtia and nasal alar reconstruction with clinical translations are promising, and in the case of engineered cartilage, integration and minimal adverse outcomes were found in a 12-30-month follow-up. Nonetheless, issues that still exist are the long-term shape fidelity, biomechanical inferiority of the regenerating cartilage compared to that of the native cartilage and limited vascularisation in larger constructs. The problem of considerable prices and regulatory obstacles also hinders the mass use. The workarounds timely emerge in the form of emerging technologies, including dynamic, patient-specific structures with 4D bioprinting and machine learning optimized scaffold design. The directions of the future lie in prevascularized grafts, cost-effective biofabrication, and an increased variety of clinical trials to validate the long-term efficacy in various populations. Combining biomimetic scaffolds, powerful imaging technology, and a customised approach, autologous cartilage engineering exists to revolutionise reconstructive surgery, so long as the effort behind the continued research continues to solve the questions of enhanced scalability and regulatory hurdles. This review reviews the latest advances, critically assesses the limitations, and suggests ways of clinical translation to functional, long-lasting, and aesthetically better outcomes.

**Keywords:** Autologous Cartilage; Tissue Engineering; 3D Bioprinting; Ear Reconstruction; Nasal Reconstruction

### 1. Introduction

#### 1.1. Background and Clinical Relevance

Reconstruction of ear and nose cartilage plays a vital role in the treatment of congenital anomalies, e.g. microtia, trauma and oncologic nose cartilage defects, which seriously affect facial aesthetics and functionality. Conventional procedures of reconstruction, like using autologous rib cartilage and alloplastic implants, are highly limited. The biocompatible rib cartilage grafts are associated with donor site morbidity: pain, scarring, and possible deformities of the chest wall; and can imitate the 3-dimensional structure of auricular or nasal cartilage. Silicone or porous polyethene Alloplastic implants are associated with extrusion, infection and poor integration into tissues, with long-term results not being optimal. The mentioned issues necessitate the creation of new methods to secure aesthetic accuracy and functional recovery. On tissue engineering principles, autologous cartilage engineering represents a good prospect since patient-

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derived chondrocytes are used to build constructs that resemble native cartilage with small immunogenicity. The clinical potential of this practice was proven in a landmark study, in which nasal chondrocytes grown on collagen type I/III membranes were implanted into reconstructed nasal alar lobules after tumor removal to provide both functional and aesthetic recovery without any adverse outcomes lasting a year (Fulco et al., 2014). This opportunity is possible because of the tissue engineering triad (cells, scaffolds, and additional bioactive factors). This solution eliminates the disadvantages of standard approaches to the problem, where patient-specific solutions can be developed following the biomechanical and anatomical requirements of the ear and nasal tissue.

The development of cell sources, creation of scaffolds and biofabrication processes has facilitated the development of autologous cartilage engineering. Nasal septum, auricular, or costal cartilage is mainly used to harvest autologous chondrocytes that are desirable because they are compatible and prone to an immunorejection risk. Small nasal septum biopsies and other minimally invasive methods of harvest have minimized the morbidity of the donor site, whilst the condition of not using bovine or xenogeneic material for culture medium allows maximized chondrocyte proliferation and redifferentiation. However, expansion of chondrocytes in culture is not without difficulty because the cells can dedifferentiate to become fibroblasts, which negatively impacts the quality of the extracellular matrix (ECM). The problem has been addressed by innovations such as the three-dimensional (3D) growing media and factors such as transforming growth factor-beta (TGF-beta). There has been a significant improvement in scaffold materials, where the availability of natural (e.g., collagen, acellular cartilage matrix) and synthetic (e.g., polycaprolactone, poly-4-hydroxybutyrate) scaffolds has been noted, which mimic natural conditions, inducing cell adhesion and deposition of the ECM. The introduction of 3D bioprinting processes has transformed the fabrication of scaffold design so that now it is possible to construct accurately the auricular and nasal complex through bioinks such as nanofibrillated cellulose-alginate. It was demonstrated that 3D-bioprinted constructs containing chondrocytes and mesenchymal stem cells (MSCs) are capable of forming human cartilage *in vivo*, which emphasizes the feasibility of bioink as a way to preserve cell viability and shape fidelity (Apelgren et al., 2017). Anatomical precision can additionally be increased by integration of computed tomography (CT) or magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) data to enable patient-specific use (Otto et al., 2015).

New developments in autologous cartilage engineering are aimed at breaking biological and technical obstacles to enhance clinical outcomes. The problem of avascularity of cartilage is solved through the concept of pre-vascularization, whereby the endothelial cells are co-cultured with chondrocytes, thus improving diffusion and survival of the constructs after implantation. Nanofibrous scaffolds have been demonstrated to be a mimetic of native ECM, and this improves the biomechanical properties and the functional performance of the chondrocytes (Bichara et al., 2014). Nevertheless, these strides have seen engineered cartilage with relatively reduced glycosaminoglycan levels and tensile strengths as compared to native ones, thus necessitating the need to develop newer studies concerning the optimization of scaffolds and the durability of engineered constructs. Small-scale clinical trials have been promising in reinstating both aesthetics and functionality, and specifically in nasal reconstruction. Nevertheless, there are issues of inflammation, fibrosis and regulatory matters. Bioprinting costs and *in vitro* culture costs are limiting its use, and *in vitro* cultures have the limitation of high costs. Regulation frameworks like those implemented by the U.S. Food and Drug Administration or European Medicines Agency require high-quality data on their safety and efficacy. New technologies, including 4D bioprinting and machine learning to develop the scaffold, have possible solutions that will allow obtaining dynamic personalized constructs (Al-Himdani et al., 2017). These developments are the basis of the present study, which will focus on the development of feasible, cost-effective autologous ear and nasal reconstruction using cartilage engineering with a focus on overcoming technical hurdles and obstacles to clinical translation.

## 1.2. Evolution of Autologous Cartilage Engineering

The history of the reconstruction of the ear and nose cartilage defects started with autologous donor materials, namely, grafts of the cartilage of the rib, to solve human congenital malformations (such as microtia), or traumatic lesions, or oncologic defects. There were successes in the mid-20th century when surgeons carved rib cartilage by hand to create a replica of the three-dimensional architecture of the auricle or nasal framework. Significant contributions to the microtia repair are reported in large case series (Brent, 2002). Although the grafts were biocompatible, their use was constrained by donor site morbidity (such as pain, scarring, and possible chest wall deformities). It was generally not very accurate to replicate the anatomical shapes that needed to be replaced, since the relatively rigid and stiff periphery of the costal cartilage is not easily moulded. This was followed by the development of alloplastic implants, i.e. porous polyethene or silicone, in the second half of the century to avoid the donor site complications. However, these were associated with problems, including extrusion and infection, with poor long-term results (Oliver et al., 2019). These issues underscore the need for new solutions that offer the biocompatibility of autologous tissue, along with improved aesthetic and functional outcomes. This led to the emergence of tissue engineering as a method that could revolutionize the field, restoring both the aesthetics and functionality of missing tissue in a single procedure.

Innovative methods (autologous cartilage engineering) became the critical point and were achieved thanks to the tissue engineering triad of cells, scaffolds, and bioactive factors. First studies toward the use of autologous chondrocytes cultured on nasal /auricular Cartilage in developing tissue-engineered constructs were pioneered in the 1990s, to reduce immune responses, in comparison to allogeneic and synthetic-based constructs. It was established that autologous methods can positively affect the integration of tissue and decrease the chances of rejection. This fact may be traced in the clinical trial concerning the construction of the nasal tissue with the use of nasal chondrocytes grown on the collagen carrier (Fulco et al., 2014). The development of 3D bioprinting went further in transforming this area, as extremely precise patient-specific scaffolds can be printed using bioinks such as nanofibrillated cellulose-alginate, which keep chondrocytes viable and allow them to deposit extracellular matrix (Apelgren et al., 2017). These innovations have ended the paradigm of crude grafting and changed it to a high-tech approach of biofabrication with a lineage that potentially leads to clinically viable, scalable interventions.

### *Objectives of the Review*

- The Objectives of this paper include, to:
- Evaluate recent advances in autologous cartilage engineering for ear and nasal reconstruction.
- Discuss current clinical applications and their outcomes.
- Identify challenges and propose future research directions for clinical translation.

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## **2. Fundamentals of Autologous Cartilage Engineering**

Autologous cartilage engineering transforms ear and nasal reconstruction due to patient-derived chondrocytes, bio-mimetic scaffolding and bioactive factors to form tissue constructs that simulate native cartilage. This strategy not only reduces immunogenicity/donor site morbidity as compared to classical rib grafts or alloplastic implants. However, in addition to innovation in 3D bioprinting and scaffold optimization, improvements in anatomical fitting and coupling were achieved, addressing avascularity and poor regenerative properties of cartilage. The current studies establish the possibility to mitigate biomechanical issues, which leads to the prospects of scalable and patient-specific applications (Fulco et al., 2014; Apelgren et al., 2017).

### **2.1. Biology of Cartilage**

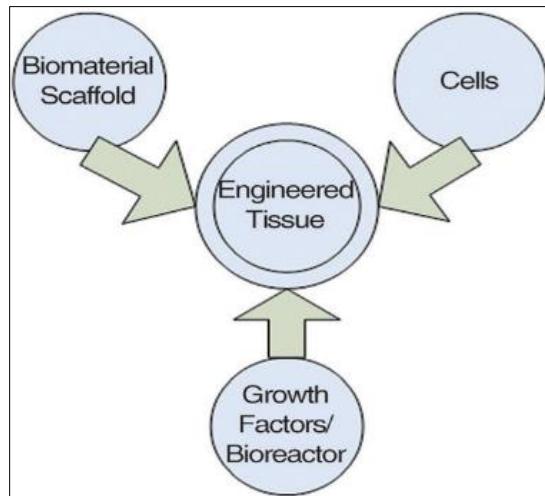
Nasal and auricular tissues are based on the structure of hyaline and elastic cartilages, which have different compositions depending on their functionality. In the nasal septum, hyaline cartilage is mainly made of collagen type II, proteoglycans, and water, which comprises a compressive strength and elasticity needed to support the nose. Type II collagen, containing a lot of elastic fibers, makes elastic cartilage the primary tissue in the auricle, necessary to provide flexibility and maintain specific shapes related to the aesthetic appearance of the ears (Watson and Reuther, 2014). Both types of cartilage are inserted in an extracellular matrix (ECM) produced by chondrocytes that ensures the homeostasis of the tissue. This gives cartilage strength because ECM has a high-water content bound by glycosaminoglycan such as chondroitin sulfate. Nonetheless, this dense ECM and the low density of chondrocytes restrict the diffusion of nutrients, which is problematic when the purpose is the tissue engineering of tissues in an attempt to have the property of the native cartilages (Sophia Fox et al., 2009).

The avascularity and cellularity of cartilage have a limited capacity to repair defects caused by trauma, congenital abnormalities or oncologic debulking procedures. Lacking a vascular supply, the chondrocytes will depend on diffusion as their source of nutrients and oxygen, which is a restrictive factor in terms of metabolism and proliferation. This weak cell-to-matrix ratio also negatively affects the ability to self-repair because it is not uncommon that damaged cartilage gets repaired into a poorer fiber-like cartilage with a lower biomechanical strength (Apelgren et al., 2017). Clinical uses: Nasal septal, auricular, and costal cartilages vary widely in their clinical usefulness and biomechanics. Nasal septal cartilage has an excellent compressive strength and low volume, which makes this tissue desirable in the internal reconstruction of the nose. The auricular cartilage has elasticity and inadequate volume to cover significant defects. More voluminous and stiff costal cartilage is broadly utilized, yet at the risk of donor site morbidity (Otto et al., 2015). The differences determine chondrocyte selection and scaffolding in autologous cartilage engineering, in an attempt to achieve the biomechanical matches that will introduce the best functional and aesthetic results.

### **2.2. Principles of Tissue Engineering**

The tissue engineering triad, comprising cells, scaffolds, and bioactive factors, operates in synergy to facilitate cartilage reconstruction. The source of the primary cell is the autologous chondrocytes that are obtained using nasal, auricular, or costal cartilage because they can express cartilaginous extracellular matrix (ECM) components such as type II collagen and glycosaminoglycans. The scaffolds are used to supply a three-dimensional structure upon which the cell

adhesion, proliferation and differentiation occur, and the bioactive factors, one example is transforming growth factor-beta (TGF-beta) or bone morphogenetic protein-7 (BMP-7), induce the chondrogenesis and elaborate the ECM. The triad will help repair ear and nasal defects, as is the case, since it can be used to create viable cartilage constructs that replicate the properties of the native tissue. As an example, nasal alar construction through chondrocytes seeded on a collagen scaffold was proven to be effective during clinical trials, with stable formation of cartilage and no adverse effects observed (Fulco et al., 2014). A combination of these elements occurs as an essential factor in the building of patient-individualized structures that renovate aesthetics and competency.



**Figure 1** The foundational triad of tissue engineering comprises three essential components—biomaterial scaffolds, cells, and growth factors/bioreactors—which synergistically interact to form engineered tissue. Each element plays a critical role in mimicking native tissue architecture and function, ensuring structural integrity, cellular viability, and functional regeneration for clinical reconstructive applications. Adapted from O'Brien and Fergal. (2011)

The application of autologous chondrocytes is crucial for preventing immune rejection, ensuring compatibility, and facilitating long-term connection to host tissues. Autologous chondrocytes improve the chance of survival and functioning of the construct, as opposed to allogeneic cells or synthetic implants, because there is no risk of immune response. The biomimetic scaffolds, aimed at mimicking the characteristics of a native ECM in terms of biochemical and mechanical properties, are of immense importance as they facilitate the direction of chondrocyte behavior and support Tissue integrity. Bioinks in the form of collagen, hyaluronic acid, or nanofibrillated cellulose can be used to ensure appropriate cell viability and deposition of the ECM, and 3D bioprinting has been used to achieve suitable scaffold structures, which fit the anatomy of a patient (Apelgren et al., 2017). Application of such scaffolds provides their porosity and degradation patterns in favor of diffusion of nutrients and remodeling of the tissue that is vital in the success of reconstructive surgery, in avoiding the avascular character of the cartilage, leading to overall durability and effectiveness (Watson and Reuther, 2014).

### 2.3. Advantages of Autologous Approaches

Use of autologous cartilage engineering provides a highly biocompatible biomaterial solution to ear and nasal reconstruction, because there is a minimal risk of immune rejection with the use of allogeneic or synthetic implants. Autologous procedures will avoid the immunogenicity issue of allogeneic cells and, in turn, induce a response; as well as synthetic implants that present the risk of extrusion and infection (Oliver et al., 2019) by using patient-derived chondrocytes, which can be obtained through nasal, auricular, or costal cartilage (Oliver et al., 2019). The efficacy of autologous chondrocytes has been proven in clinical trials, and the constructs on nasal cartilages did not display any adverse immune responses even at the 12-month follow-up point, which emphasizes their enhanced biological properties of integration into biologic incorporation with the host tissues (Fulco et al., 2014). This biocompatibility gives the ability to be long-lasting and functional, which are of paramount concern, especially in the reconstruction of more complex structures such as the auricle or the nasal alar lobule, where immune compatibility is necessary to maintain long-term aesthetic and functional results.

Autologous processes are complicated by the possibility of patient-specific constructs so that optimal aesthetic and functional outcomes can be achieved. Computed tomography or magnetic resonance-based imaging, along with 3D bio printing, enables the use of bioinks such as nanofibrillated cellulose-alginate capable of supporting chondrocyte

viability and deposition of the extracellular matrix to provide precise replication of patient anatomy (Apelgren et al., 2017). In vitro chondrocyte proliferation also reduces the morbidity of the donor site since small biopsies can be used, e.g., 6 mm nasal septal biopsies, which eliminate the risk of complications, e.g., pain or scar formation, as is the case when harvesting cartilage such as the rib (Otto et al., 2015). Such fabric displays the ability to be tailored to resemble the biomechanical characteristics of native cartilage, which is successful in repairing microtia or other nasal defects. Due to the capability to overcome the drawbacks of traditional practices, engineering of autologous cartilage presents scalable and patient-specific treatments in the area of reconstructive surgery.

### 3. Advances in Cell Sources and Culture Techniques

Autologous chondrocyte procurement is one of the pillars of cartilage engineering in ear and nasal reconstruction; the primary sources are the nasal septum, auricular and costal cartilages. Nasal septal cartilage contains large amounts of chondrocytes that demonstrate strong proliferation capabilities but small volume, thus, it may be recommended to for use as a source in nose repairs, whereas auricular cartilage does not provide a vast number of cells but is very elastic, and thus, it can be applied in ear reconstruction (Fulco et al., 2014). Costal cartilage as a source is rich in cells yet exposes the patient to donor side morbidity like pain and chest wall deformities (Otto et al., 2015). According to comparative studies, nasal chondrocytes have better proliferation and redifferentiation capacity than costal chondrocytes, which leads to the formation of fibrocartilage (Watson and Reuther, 2014). The morbidity of the 6 mm nasal septum biopsies (Minimally invasive techniques) has also declined by cutting down the amount of tissue to be taken and still producing an adequate number of chondrocytes to be engineered (Fulco et al., 2014). Growth of chondrocytes in vitro also increases cell production, and culture conditions are optimized with the use of autologous serum instead of fetal bovine serum to prevent xenogeneic risk. This, however, leads to long-term expansion, which results in dedifferentiation of chondrocytes that lose their chondrogenic phenotype and secrete collagen type I in place of collagen type II; this makes the cartilage less efficient in quality (Schnabel et al., 2002). Indicators to improve redifferentiation are 3D culture systems, i.e. 3D culture in pellets or hydrogel cultures, and growth factors (TFBS), such as transforming growth factor-beta (TGF-B) and bone morphogenetic protein-7 (BMP-B), capable of inducing the synthesis of ECM and restoring chondrogenic features, which can significantly improve the results of the constructs (Watson and Reuther, 2014).

To overcome the limitations of autologous chondrocytes, alternative sources of cells are currently under investigation, including mesenchymal stem cells (MSCs) and induced pluripotent stem cells (iPSCs). Co-culturing MSCs with chondrocytes can boost chondrogenesis in vitro as MSCs can produce bioactive factors to promote ECM synthesis; meanwhile, the results of a study have shown that a combination of chondrocytes and iPSCs could improve the chondrogenesis of auricular constructs (Apelgren et al., 2017). In cartilage, iPSCs can provide an unlimited supply of cells, as the patient's cells can be reprogrammed into chondrocytes, and this method appears promising for cartilage. However, iPSCs also possess drawbacks like the poor reproducibility of the differentiation efficiency and the generation of teratomas, which would demand numerous safeguard measures (Otto et al., 2015). The other problems related to the ethics of iPSCs are in the field of genetic manipulation and the long-term safety risks that these treatments carry, which require strict control. Less contentious yet having a drawback of inducing steady chondrogenic enucleation without hypertrophy is the use of MSCs. Both alternative sources still require optimization up to a level of autologous chondrocytes, which are still viewed as the gold standard, as they have no reported adverse effects, and there is clinical evidence of efficacy (Fulco et al., 2014). The breakthrough in cell harvesting and cell culture should play a central role in making scalable and patient-specific cartilage constructs that satisfy the increasing needs of functional and successful ear and nose reconstruction methods.

### 4. Scaffold Materials and Fabrication Techniques

#### 4.1. Biomimetic Scaffolds

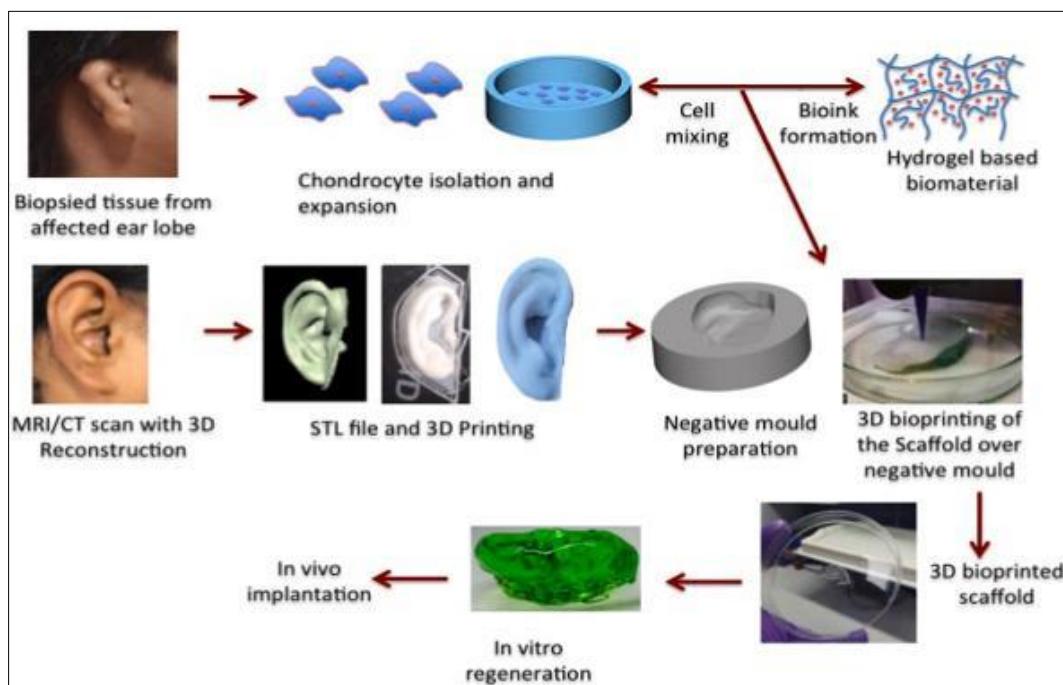
In ear and nasal reconstruction, we use biomimetic scaffolds in autologous cartilage engineering, whereby native extracellular matrix (ECM) is recreated to provide support to chondrocytes. Natural scaffolds such as type I/III collagen membranes, acellular cartilage matrix (ACM), and gelatin is highly biocompatible. They are more compatible with cell adhesion owing to the copious resemblance to native cartilage ECM. With successful nasal reconstruction using collagen membranes, the proliferation of chondrocytes and deposition of ECM occur (Fulco et al., 2014). The artificial scaffolds, such as polyglycolic acid (PGA), polycaprolactone (PCL), and poly-4-hydroxybutyrate (P-4HB), overcome the rigidity restrictions of the natural materials and offer the capability of variable mechanical properties and slow degradation rates. PGA is degraded, thus sustaining early cell growth, whereas PCL provides long-term structural stability (Otto et al., 2015). Hybrid scaffolds: hybrid scaffolds, made of a mixture of natural and synthetic materials, are an optimum in terms of biocompatibility and aesthetics. As an example, the collagen-PCL implants can be used to increase the viability

of chondrocytes in their auricular constructs without decreasing structural integrity (Watson and Reuther, 2014). The hybrid structure combines the flexibility of the elastic auricular cartilage with the compressive strength demanded in the nose area. Thus, this structure is ideally suited to patient-specific tissue engineering.

#### 4.2. 3D Bioprinting

The technology of 3D bioprinting has transformed the way scaffolds are produced because it allows the production of patient-specific auricular and nasal constructs that show high anatomical accuracy. It is supported by the use of bioinks, which get into a given 3D structure to print, e.g. nanofibrillated cellulose-alginate (NFC-A) that can help the chondrocyte survival and endogenous ECM production in large 3D constructs and preserve their native cartilage architecture (Apelgren et al., 2017). To achieve high-fidelity shape replication during printing, especially when replicating complex contours (as seen in the auricle), the NFC-A bioinks exhibit a crucial phenomenon (shear-thinning). With included computed tomography (CT) or magnetic resonance imaging (MRI), anatomically precise modelling can be made, up to the physical anatomy of the corresponding patient. Moller et al. (2017) demonstrated that a bioprinted scaffold seeded with autologous chondrocytes can maintain cartilage tissue formation *in vivo* and achieves better aesthetic outcomes than those projected for conventional grafts. The approach helps resolve the limitations of manual carving of rib cartilage grafts in providing solutions that have been personalized to experience improved functional and cosmetic results in reconstructive surgeries.

#### 4.3. Scaffold Optimization



**Figure 2** Illustration of the 3D bioprinting process for auricular cartilage, depicting imaging, CAD modeling, bioink printing, and implantation for patient-specific constructs. This workflow highlights biocompatible bioinks and autologous chondrocytes, advancing ear reconstruction (adapted from Dwivedi, R., et al., 2022)

Optimizing scaffolds is crucial for adhesion, proliferation, and ECM deposition, directly influencing the success of engineered cartilage. The nutrient distribution and activity of chondrocytes depend on pore size (100–500  $\mu\text{m}$ ), porosity (~80%), and a moderate degradation rate. The pore size must be large enough to allow cell infiltration, while the porosity should not be too low; otherwise, cells may not penetrate sufficiently. Additionally, the scaffold should not degrade too rapidly to ensure structural support (Watson and Reuther, 2014). Co-culturing the endothelial cells with chondrocytes proves a prevascularization approach that implants more nutrients into the avascular constructs of cartilage, for the survival of the implant (Otto et al., 2015). Large auricular constructs cannot keep their shape under the mechanical load, but mechanical reinforcement (e.g. the use of PCL internal cores) makes them structurally stable. These cores are fidelity preserving, yet they permit progressive degradation and remodeling of tissue to occur. It has been demonstrated that optimized scaffolds with balanced biomechanical parameters and prevascularization can tremendously enhance long-term results by overcoming challenges such as inflammation and fibrosis in clinical use

(Apelgren et al., 2017). Such advancements open up the horizons of sustainability and functionality in cartilage constructs through reconstructive surgery.

## 5. Clinical Applications and Outcomes

The use of tissue-engineered cartilage has facilitated advancements in clinical settings, particularly in ear reconstruction and nasal reconstruction, including cases of microtia and the rebuilding of tumors or related deficiencies. Researchers have tested bioengineered autologous chondrocytes seeded on 3D-printed biodegradable scaffolds in clinical trials for ear microtia reconstruction. Such experiments have proven aesthetic and functional success, and the constructs have remained in shape long-term, even in tiny samples, which was up to 2.5 years (Otto et al., 2015). However, difficulties still arise, such as long-term stability, because engineered cartilage might contain less glycosaminoglycan; there is a possibility of resorption or deformation. Fibrosis and inflammation are dangerous too, as they threaten fidelity of shape and necessitate an anti-inflammatory approach to durability (Watson and Reuther, 2014). In reconstructive surgery of the nose, autologous nasal chondrocytes have been seeded onto collagen type I/III membranes in a first-in-human trial to give nasal alar lobules reconstruction after tumor resection without adverse events, achieving aesthetic satisfaction and functional recreation after 12 months (Fulco et al., 2014). "Clinicians have successfully used the therapy to treat trauma-associated nasal defects, demonstrating its flexibility for multi-dimensional reconstruction.

Comparative tissue-based analysis reveals significant advantages of tissue-engineered constructs over traditional autologous rib cartilage grafts and alloplastic implants. In contrast to rib grafts, which lead to the morbidity of the donor site (i.e., pain and deformity of the chest wall), engineered constructs have somewhat limited requirements in terms of tissues to be used, thus minimizing this issue (Oliver et al., 2019). The aesthetic results of customizable shapes formed due to the 3D bioprinting technology are much greater than alloplastic implantation due to the risk of extrusion and infection. Moreover, autologous constructs have the advantage of a closer tissue integration, which reduces the rejection (Apelgren et al., 2017). Nevertheless, some weaknesses remain. First, there is limited follow-up data to demonstrate durability, and existing clinical trials are too small to reliably determine the safety and efficacy of these therapies in heterogeneous environments. Therefore, more studies are needed to address this gap.

**Table 1** Comparison of Autologous, Alloplastic, and Tissue-Engineered Approaches for Ear and Nasal Reconstruction

Aspect	Autologous Rib Cartilage Grafts	Alloplastic Implants	Tissue-Engineered Cartilage
Material Source	Patient's own rib cartilage, harvested surgically (Brent, 2002).	Synthetic materials (e.g., silicone, porous polyethylene) (Oliver et al., 2019).	Autologous chondrocytes (nasal, auricular, or costal) seeded on biomimetic scaffolds (e.g., collagen, NFC-A) (Fulco et al., 2014; Apelgren et al., 2017).
Biocompatibility	High; no immune rejection due to autologous nature (Brent, 2002).	Moderate; risk of immune response, extrusion, or infection (Oliver et al., 2019).	High; autologous cells minimize immunogenicity, enhancing integration (Fulco et al., 2014).
Donor Site Morbidity	Significant; pain, scarring, and potential chest wall deformities (Brent, 2002).	None; no tissue harvesting required (Oliver et al., 2019).	Minimal; small biopsies (e.g., 6 mm nasal septum) reduce complications (Otto et al., 2015).
Shape Fidelity	Limited; manual carving struggles to replicate complex 3D auricular/nasal structures (Watson and Reuther, 2014).	High; preformed implants can mimic shapes but lack customization (Oliver et al., 2019).	High; 3D bioprinting with CT/MRI integration enables patient-specific constructs (Apelgren et al., 2017).
Mechanical Properties	Good compressive strength; less elastic for auricular needs (Watson and Reuther, 2014).	Rigid; poor elasticity, may not mimic native cartilage (Oliver et al., 2019).	Variable; lower glycosaminoglycan content, but improving with nanofibrous scaffolds (Otto et al., 2015).

Clinical Outcomes	Reliable for nasal support; variable aesthetic outcomes in microtia due to shaping challenges (Brent, 2002).	Aesthetic initially good; high rates of extrusion/infection over time (Oliver et al., 2019).	Promising; nasal trials show no adverse events at 12 months; auricular trials show stable shapes (Fulco et al., 2014; Otto et al., 2015).
Advantages	Biocompatible, durable; established surgical technique (Brent, 2002).	No donor site morbidity; readily available (Oliver et al., 2019).	Customizable, biocompatible, reduced morbidity; potential for complex architectures (Apelgren et al., 2017).
Limitations	Donor site morbidity; limited shape precision; long recovery (Brent, 2002).	High complication rates (e.g., 10–20% extrusion); poor integration (Oliver et al., 2019).	High costs; limited large-scale trials; biomechanical inferiority to native cartilage (Watson and Reuther, 2014).
Regulatory Status	Standard practice; no specific regulatory approval needed (Watson and Reuther, 2014).	Approved materials; long-term safety concerns persist (Oliver et al., 2019).	Experimental; requires extensive FDA/EMA safety and efficacy data (Fulco et al., 2014).

## 6. Current Challenges in Autologous Cartilage Engineering

### 6.1. Technical Challenges

The long-term structural integrity and shape fidelity of engineered cartilage constructs are a significant challenge. Tissues that are engineered tend to have a low amount of glycosaminoglycan, which results in little compressive strength and is likely to deform in the long term, especially in the auricular reconstruction (Watson and Reuther, 2014). It is essential to control the inflammatory reactions because implantation may result in the activation of fibrosis or calcification, which interferes with the construct functionality. New approaches, such as anti-inflammatory coatings, are being explored and need optimization (Otto et al., 2015). Another challenge is to obtain adequate vascularization of large constructs, which cannot be achieved because of the avascular nature of cartilage and due to the poor diffusion of nutrients; central necrosis of large grafts is common (Apelgren et al., 2017).

### 6.2. Clinical Translation Barriers

The application of tissue-engineered cartilage for ear and nasal reconstruction faces significant regulatory impediments due to stringent requirements imposed by authorities such as the U.S. Food and Drug Administration and the European Medicines Agency. To ensure patient safety, organizations must provide comprehensive evidence of safety and efficacy. This evidence typically takes decades to accumulate, or several years of longitudinal data, to facilitate widespread clinical use, resulting in a significant delay (Watson and Reuther, 2014). Small-scale studies, including those in autologous chondrocytes in nose rebuilding, are promising, with no untoward incidents during the initial 12 months, although sample sizes make these studies limited (Fulco et al., 2014). The multi-tier regulation system that has to go through extensive preclinical and clinical confirmation of its efficiency usually extends the duration of the approval procedures, and to simplify the process, unified rules should be employed to exclude safety violations. The existence of this regulatory burden is further exacerbated by the reproducibility of results, which suggests that consistency in manufacturing is necessary, thereby hindering expedited implementation.

The barriers to 3D bioprinted and in vitro-culture processes are the high cost of the processes, which constrains accessibility, especially within the health care systems with limited resources. The reason is that specialized equipment (e.g., bioprinters) and expensive reagents (e.g., growth factors, e.g., TGF-2/TGF-2 or BMP-7) increase the cost of production of a tissue-engineered solution that should not be widely applicable (Otto et al., 2015). Moreover, the absence of commercially large, multicenter clinical trials slows down the process because the majority of the research deals with small groups of patients, which are not enough to determine long-term safety and effectiveness in different groups of individuals (Fulco et al., 2014). Barriers to solving them will involve investing in cost-efficient technologies, like standardized scaffolds, and cooperation on large, multicentric trials to achieve it. Otherwise, autologous cartilage engineering risks remaining a promising technology that will never fulfil its potential as a revolutionary technology in the field of reconstructive surgery.

### 6.3. Biomechanical Limitations

The biomechanical properties of engineered cartilage are generally inferior to those of native cartilage, primarily due to lower levels of glycosaminoglycan and type II collagen, which affect tensile strength and elasticity (Sophia Fox et al., 2009). Such a mismatch is especially problematic in the auricular cartilage, the complex architecture of which (including the elastic fibre network) is challenging to mimic. Even advanced bioinks have difficulties comparing the complexity of curvature, flexibility and deformation to the natural auricular cartilage, which also affects the aesthetic results of scaffolds (Otto et al., 2015).

### 6.4. Addressing Challenges

Overcoming these challenges requires interdisciplinary innovation. Advances in prevascularization, such as co-culturing endothelial cells, and smart biomaterials with controlled degradation could enhance construct survival and biomechanical fidelity (Apelgren et al., 2017). Streamlining regulatory pathways and developing cost-effective bioprinting techniques are essential for clinical scalability, ensuring autologous cartilage engineering achieves its potential in reconstructive surgery.

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## 7. Future prospects

Innovation in biomaterials will result in further development of autologous cartilage engineering as a result of innovative biomaterial development in systems that degrade controllably to liberate bioactive molecules to enhance chondrogenesis and integration. Other sorts of materials, such as hydrogels, which carry growth factors such as TGF- $\beta$ , can be incorporated in a manner such that they can manipulate cellular responses dynamically, to mediate the synthesis of extracellular matrix (ECM) (Watson and Reuther, 2014). Nanofibrous scaffolds that are architecturally similar to the native ECM increase the attachment and differentiation of chondrocytes. Additionally, the cartilage formed in experiments using electrospun polycaprolactone nanofibers was also improved (Otto et al., 2015). Biofabrication methods of the next generation, and, in particular, 4D bioprinting, offer the opportunity to obtain dynamic and reactive constructs responding to changes in physiological conditions with time after implantation, which is the long-term structural stability. Machine learning is transforming the way scaffolds are designed because they can predict the biomechanical performance as well as optimize parameters such as porosity, and computational models can be used to enhance clinical outcomes depending on the patient-specific information (Mellor et al., 2017).

An important area of future development is personal medicine, where recent advancements in imaging (e.g., CT/MRI) and computational modelling have enabled patient-specific cartilage constructs suitable for restoring the ear or nose. Such designs are specific to anatomies and help improve both the aesthetic and functional results (Apelgren et al., 2017). Widening the use of cell-based engineered cartilage to include prevascularized skin grafts provides the benefits of comprehensive repair of an ear: they have the structure and functions, but with an aesthetic outcome. To make it clinically scalable and translatable, cost-cutting methods involve designing standardized scaffolds that can work with autologous cells to be off-the-shelf. The extended clinical trials to other populations and indications, including tracheal reconstruction, will confirm their use in the long term and expand their use (Fulco et al., 2014). Joint approaches toward increasing the efficiency of the regulatory routes and maximizing cost-efficient biofabrication will also guarantee that these advancements will transfigure reconstructive surgery, providing patient-specific solutions to patients in an affordable, state-of-the-art manner.

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## 8. Discussion

The autologous cartilage engineering has revolutionized the field of ear and nasal reconstruction with significant clinical advances and technological breakthroughs. The results of clinical trials have shown the promising potential of using bacterial cell autologous chondrocytes seeded in collagen scaffolding biomaterials in nasal alar reconstruction that not only restores functional results but also brings aesthetic satisfaction without any adverse effects within 12 months of the interventions (Fulco et al., 2014). To address that, 3D bioprinting using nanofibrillated cellulose-alginate bioinks supports the accurate reconstruction of hearing apparatuses and allows replicating highly complicated ear structures, showing better shape integrity than the conventional rib cartilage graft-based reconstruction, which cannot replicate complex shapes (Apelgren et al., 2017). In comparison to alloplastic implants that may cause extrusion and infection, tissue-engineered constructs integrate better and result in fewer complications, as indicated in systematic reviews on the disadvantages of using synthetic materials (Oliver et al., 2019). Whether it is imaging of the patient, i.e. computed scans or biofabrication processes, combining the two creates improved aesthetic and functional results, which creates a paradigm shift where the traditional grafting method is being increasingly replaced by complex, bespoke solutions that focus on accommodating the needs provided by the human body during the reconstructive process.

**Table 2** Summary of Clinical Trials and Outcomes in Autologous Cartilage Engineering

Study	Indication	Cell Source	Scaffold/Bioink	Study Design	Key Outcomes	Challenges/Limitations
Fulco et al. (2014)	Nasal alar lobule reconstruction (post-tumor resection)	Autologous nasal septal chondrocytes	Collagen type I/III membranes	Observational first-in-human trial, 5 patients, 12-month follow-up	Functional restoration, aesthetic satisfaction, no adverse events after 12 months	Small cohort size, limited long-term data (>12 months), need for larger trials
Apelgren et al. (2017)	Cartilage formation (potential for auricular/nasal reconstruction)	Autologous chondrocytes and mesenchymal stem cells (MSCs)	Nanofibrillated cellulose-alginate (NFC-A) bioink	Preclinical <i>in vivo</i> study, transitioned to early human application, variable follow-up	Successful <i>in vivo</i> chondrogenesis, stable cartilage formation, high shape fidelity	Limited human trial data, challenges in scaling to clinical settings, variable MSC differentiation
Otto et al. (2015)	Auricular reconstruction (microtia)	Autologous auricular chondrocytes	Polycaprolactone (PCL) and collagen hybrid scaffolds	Pilot clinical study, small cohort, up to 2.5-year follow-up	Satisfactory aesthetic outcomes, stable constructs in small-scale trials	Lower glycosaminoglycan content, inflammation risks, need for long-term stability data
Möller et al. (2017)	Auricular and nasal cartilage reconstruction	Autologous chondrocytes and MSCs	NFC-A hydrogel bioink	<i>In vivo</i> human cell-laden constructs, preclinical to early clinical, variable follow-up	High-fidelity 3D-printed constructs, viable cartilage formation <i>in vivo</i>	Limited clinical follow-up, high bioprinting costs, need for larger cohort studies
Watson and Reuther (2014)	Nasal reconstruction (trauma and tumor defects)	Autologous nasal chondrocytes	Collagen-based scaffolds	Review of early clinical applications, variable patient numbers	Improved functional and aesthetic outcomes compared to alloplastic implants	Small-scale studies, need for standardized protocols, regulatory hurdles

Despite these advancements, biomechanical and biological challenges hinder the full potential of engineered cartilage. Constructs often exhibit lower glycosaminoglycan and collagen type II content, compromising tensile strength and elasticity, particularly in replicating auricular cartilage's complex 3D structure (Otto et al., 2015). Inflammation and fibrosis further threaten long-term stability, necessitating strategies like smart biomaterials with controlled degradation and bioactive molecule release, such as TGF-β, to enhance chondrogenesis (Watson and Reuther, 2014). Prevascularization through co-culturing endothelial cells with chondrocytes improves nutrient diffusion in large constructs, reducing necrosis risks (Apelgren et al., 2017). Interdisciplinary collaboration among surgeons, engineers, and biologists is essential to integrate expertise in scaffold design, cell culture optimization, and clinical application. By combining insights from these fields, researchers can develop solutions to improve biomechanical fidelity and ensure durable, functional constructs that meet clinical needs.

Ethical and regulatory considerations remain critical for advancing autologous cartilage engineering. Autologous chondrocytes offer ethical advantages due to their biocompatibility, avoiding risks associated with alternative cell sources like induced pluripotent stem cells (iPSCs), which pose concerns about teratoma formation and genetic manipulation (Otto et al., 2015). However, logistical challenges in cell harvesting and expansion persist, requiring efficient protocols to minimize patient burden. Regulatory frameworks, such as those enforced by the FDA and EMA, demand extensive long-term safety and efficacy data, delaying widespread clinical adoption (Watson and Reuther, 2014). Developing standardized guidelines and robust clinical trial protocols will facilitate translation, ensuring tissue-engineered cartilage meets rigorous standards. Collaborative efforts to streamline regulations and validate outcomes across diverse populations will be key to realizing the transformative potential of this technology in reconstructive surgery.

## 9. Conclusion

Autologous cartilage engineering marks a transformative leap in ear and nasal reconstruction, surpassing traditional rib cartilage grafts and alloplastic implants by minimizing donor site morbidity and delivering superior aesthetic and functional outcomes. Clinical trials have demonstrated stable nasal alar reconstruction using autologous chondrocytes on collagen scaffolds, achieving functional restoration and aesthetic satisfaction over 12 months. Advances in 3D bioprinting with bioinks like nanofibrillated cellulose-alginate enable precise replication of complex ear structures, while optimized cell culture techniques enhance chondrocyte viability and tissue integration. These breakthroughs align with the study's objective to develop biocompatible, patient-specific constructs, establishing a foundation for innovative reconstructive solutions that address the limitations of conventional methods.

To realize the full potential of autologous cartilage engineering, larger, multicenter clinical trials are critical to validate long-term safety and efficacy across diverse populations. Investment in cost-effective technologies, such as standardized scaffolds compatible with autologous cells, will improve accessibility and facilitate widespread clinical adoption. Continued research into biomimetic scaffolds and personalized approaches, including 4D bioprinting and computational modeling, will further enhance construct durability and functionality. This study underscores the urgent need for collaborative efforts to overcome regulatory and economic barriers, ensuring that autologous cartilage engineering revolutionizes reconstructive surgery with scalable, patient-specific solutions that improve quality of life.

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