

**Exploring the Potential of 3D-printing in Biological Education: A Review of the Literature**

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 Manuscripts

# 1 Exploring the Potential of 3D-printing in Biological Education: A Review of the Literature

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5 **Abstract (227 words):** Science education is most effective when it provides authentic  
6 experiences that reflect professional practices and approaches that address issues relevant to  
7 students' lives and communities. Such educational experiences are becoming increasingly  
8 interdisciplinary and can be enhanced using digital fabrication. Digital fabrication is the process  
9 of designing objects for the purpose of fabricating with machinery such as 3D-printers, laser  
10 cutters, and CNC machines. Historically, these types of tools have been exceptionally costly and  
11 difficult to access, however recent advancements in technological design have been accompanied  
12 by decreasing prices. In this review, we first establish the historical and theoretical foundations  
13 that support the use of digital fabrication as a pedagogical strategy to enhance learning. We  
14 specifically chose to focus attention on 3D-printing because this type of technology is becoming  
15 increasingly advanced, affordable, and widely available. We systematically reviewed the last 20  
16 years of literature that characterized the use of 3D-printing in biological education, only finding  
17 a total of 13 articles that attempted to investigate the benefits for student learning. While the  
18 pedagogical value of student-driven creation is strongly supported by educational literature, it  
19 was challenging to make broad claims about student learning in relation to using or creating 3D-  
20 printed models in the context of biological education. Additional studies are needed to  
21 systematically investigate the impact of student-driven creation at the intersection of biology and  
22 engineering or computer science education.

23 **Keywords:** Life sciences; three-dimensional printing; learning; teaching; interdisciplinary

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25 problems” presented at the annual meeting of the Society for Integrative and Comparative  
26 Biology, January 3-7, 2020 at Austin, Texas.

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## 28 Introduction

29 Digital fabrication in the form of 3D-printing has emerged as an innovative pedagogical approach  
30 to enhance Science, Technology, Engineering, and Mathematics (STEM) learning across a range  
31 of settings and for a variety of purposes. Evidence from the learning sciences suggests that  
32 individuals learn when they engage in the process of making through digital fabrication (Bevan  
33 2017; Blikstein 2013; Papert and Harel 1991). Further, recent advances in fabrication technology  
34 accompanied by dropping prices have revolutionized what is possible to create in the modern  
35 world. Blikstein (2013) referred to this as the *democratization of invention* – any motivated  
36 individual can access the materials, tools, and expertise to create something of their own design.  
37 This revolutionary idea is the foundation of today's Maker Movement - a grassroots, Do-It-  
38 Yourself community of hobbyists, tinkerers, computer programmers, scientists, engineers, and  
39 artists (Resnick and Rosenbaum 2013; Martin 2015). This movement has spurred the creation of  
40 *educative making* as a pedagogical approach to support STEM learning in formal schooling (Bevan  
41 2017). Previous research has positively connected educative making to learning gains in  
42 mathematics (Garneli et al. 2013), art (Peppler 2013), writing (Cantrill & Oh 2016), computing  
43 (Papert 1980), and spatial reasoning abilities (Leduc-Mills and Eisenberg 2011). It has also been  
44 associated with supporting development of twenty-first century skills, such as creative confidence  
45 (Barron and Martin 2016), self-efficacy and perseverance in problem-solving (Peppler and Hall

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3 46 2016), resourcefulness (Sheridan and Konopasky 2016), and adaptive expertise (Martin and Dixon  
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5 47 2013).

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10 49 Simultaneously, there have been increased calls for improving engineering and computer science  
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12 50 education at a national level (Committee on STEM Education 2018; National Research Council  
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14 51 [NRC] 2012; 2014). Digital fabrication is one effective approach that integrates engineering design  
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16  
17 52 and computing, providing an efficient mechanism to expose students to these disciplines. While  
18  
19 53 many of these reform-based documents are specific to K-12 education, it follows that university-  
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21 54 based educators should also heed calls to enhance their teaching through the inclusion of digital  
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24 55 fabrication opportunities for college students. Brewer and Smith (2011), in their report identifying  
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26 56 the actions necessary to improve biology education, emphasized the interdisciplinary nature of  
27  
28 57 biology and noted that the most recent discoveries in the biological sciences have occurred only  
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31 58 because there has been a blending of established disciplines. The future education of young  
32  
33 59 scientists requires that long-standing divisions found in academic institutions begin to blur or even  
34  
35 60 break down existing silos completely (NRC 2010). This change in education to focus attention  
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38 61 more broadly on training our STEM workforces does not exclude our future physicians, as they  
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40 62 also should be educated broadly with a focus on integrative and interdisciplinary courses (NRC  
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42 63 2009).

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47 65 However, many studies investigating educative making have occurred in selective spaces (e.g.,  
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49 66 high school robotics clubs) or with specialty groups (e.g., pre-professional students). We advocate  
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51 67 that this pedagogical approach should be used in the context of formal classrooms and laboratories,  
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54 68 places that are accessible to more individuals. Current evidence suggests that the United States

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3 69 will need 1 million *more* STEM professionals than it is expected to produce in the next decade  
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5 70 (National Science Board 2020). Moreover, the diversity of the STEM workforce is still vastly  
6  
7 71 unrepresentative of the United States population in terms of gender and ethnicity. For example, in  
8  
9 72 2017, only 29% of individuals in the STEM workforce identified as female (National Science  
10  
11 73 Board 2020). Similarly, the number of underrepresented minorities (URM) in STEM careers  
12  
13 74 continues to lag behind the overall population: only 13% of individuals who identified as Black,  
14  
15 75 Hispanic, American Indian or Alaska Native were employed in a STEM career compared to 28%  
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17 76 of the total US population (National Science Board 2020). Digital fabrication in the form of 3D-  
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19 77 printing is one mechanism that holds promise for appealing to diverse groups of individuals.  
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21 78 However, regardless of future career aspirations, it is imperative that *all* individuals have  
22  
23 79 opportunities to gain technological fluency in the twenty-first century. This echoes past calls of  
24  
25 80 increasing scientific literacy for the general populace to prepare well-educated citizens who are  
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27 81 capable of understanding and interacting with scientific ideas in their everyday lives (DeBoer  
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29 82 2001).  
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38 84 To understand how and in what ways educative making has been used to support efforts in the  
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40 85 context of biology education, we conducted a systematic literature review guided by the  
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42 86 following question: *How is digital fabrication in the form of 3D-printing used to support*  
43  
44 87 *biological education?* To answer this question, we first provide an overview of historical and  
45  
46 88 theoretical views on learning that support the use of educative making before reviewing current  
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48 89 literature. Indeed, there are decades of research across education and psychology that support the  
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50 90 use of educative making to enhance learning. These historical and theoretical views on learning  
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52 91 support our claim that *students should create in order to learn*. We argue that an understanding  
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3 92 of these views is essential for all and should not be isolated to the domain of social scientists and  
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5 93 educational researchers. We explicitly discuss these works in the context of a journal for  
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8 94 scientists to label them and to provide resources and justification for those working to enhance  
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10 95 their own teaching practices in an era of increased accountability and university budget cuts  
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12 96 (e.g., Burke and Gordon 2020). Importantly, we need educators to be the voice for best practices  
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14  
15 97 as many of the pedagogical suggestions in this paper run counter to current demands to increase  
16  
17 98 class enrollments and shift coursework online (e.g., Chirikov et al. 2020).  
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20  
21 100 The drive to develop curriculum that engages students to create is not new and we can see it as  
22  
23 101 early as 1762 when Jean-Jacques Rousseau (1712-1778) advocated for a new method of  
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25 102 education (Martinez and Stager 2013). Rather than simply telling students what they need to  
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27 103 know, Rosseau (1762) argued for a *student-centered* approach that valued the learner as a  
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29 104 thinking being. This view runs counter to common lecture-based teaching methods that “tell”  
30  
31 105 students what is important. Rousseau was one of the first to advocate for a student-centered  
32  
33 106 teaching approach (Cremin 1964). These ideas were expanded by Friedrich Froebel (1782-  
34  
35 107 1852), who developed “Froebel gifts” to aid in learning; objects such as geometric and pattern  
36  
37 108 blocks (Martinez and Stager 2013). Using physical objects to support learning is still a common  
38  
39 109 practice in teaching today; for example, consider an organic chemistry course that invites  
40  
41 110 students to use three-dimensional models to support visualization of complex molecules.  
42  
43 111 Additionally, Maria Montessori (1870-1952) worked to develop a “scientific pedagogy” of  
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45 112 education, based on psychology and experimental methods (Montessori 2013). Like Froebel,  
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47 113 Montessori saw the need to engage learners in sensory experiences to support their development.  
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3 114 Importantly, these ideas are viewed by some as foundational to today's Maker Movement that  
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5 115 calls for student-driven creation of meaningful artifacts (Blikstein and Worsley 2016).  
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10 117 Further, John Dewey (1859-1952)'s focus on experiential learning also speaks to the value of  
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12 118 educative making as a pedagogical approach. Dewey was an American philosopher and  
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14 119 psychologist who is widely regarded as one of the most influential education reformists of the  
15  
16 120 twentieth century (Cremin 1964). To Dewey, the school was seen as a lever of social change  
17  
18 121 (Cremin 1964). This sentiment resonates with past calls to ensure all citizens are scientifically  
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20 122 literate (DeBoer 1991), as well as current calls to broaden participation in the STEM workforce  
21  
22 123 (National Science Board 2020). Dewey (1938) was a proponent of the "continuity of experience,"  
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24 124 positing that disconnected experiences between home and school can be disruptive to a learner's  
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26 125 intellectual growth. The term *growth* is often associated with Dewey's educational philosophy, but  
27  
28 126 Dewey (1938) believed that growth occurred through the purposeful progression of carefully  
29  
30 127 selected *experiences*, designed to bring individuals to realize their full worth and potential in the  
31  
32 128 world, or to reach self-realization. Educative making provides a mechanism to realize Dewey's  
33  
34 129 radical visions for activity-driven lessons that are relevant to students' lives and the larger society.  
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36 130 Recent technological advancements in fabrication technology have afforded new tools for student  
37  
38 131 creation that instructors can use to enhance their teaching practices. Dewey's (1897; 1902; 1938)  
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40 132 work is often cited as justification for *experiential learning* - the idea that students learn knowledge  
41  
42 133 and skills from participating and reflecting on direct experiences situated in the world (not  
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44 134 necessarily a classroom). William Heard Kilpatrick (1918), influenced by Dewey, argued that  
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46 135 curriculum should engage students in meaningful activities that start with their own interests,  
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54 136 rather than predetermined subject matter. This type of pedagogy has become known as *project-*  
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3 137 *based learning* and is a current practice in many schools today, aligning well with educative  
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5 138 making approaches. Students can engage in meaningful projects to fabricate objects that enhance  
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8 139 their STEM learning.  
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12 141 Paulo Freire (1921-1997) is another significant figure often cited as justification for the Maker  
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14 142 Movement (Blikstein 2013; Blikstein and Worsley 2016). To Freire (1970), education and social  
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17 143 identity were intricately connected, and he believed it was through honest, trusting dialogue that  
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19 144 people were better positioned to reflect upon and recognize the realities of their world and begin  
20  
21 145 to formulate plans of action for liberation. This pedagogical approach is called *critical pedagogy*  
22  
23 146 (Blikstein 2013). Freire advocated for “problem-posing education,” situated in local and personal  
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26 147 problems, with the aim of allowing students to critically analyze the realities of their world and  
27  
28 148 begin to conceptualize possibilities for creating change. A modern application of Freire’s ideas is  
29  
30 149 found in Blikstein’s (2008) work with youth in an impoverished Brazilian city. Blikstein conducted  
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32  
33 150 a two-week workshop designed for students to select a personally relevant problem in their  
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35 151 community and design a solution that involved technology. He found students took on a “re-  
36  
37 152 purposing” culture, remixing and reusing old or defective technologies in novel ways. Further,  
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40 153 Blikstein (2013) argued that educative making provides an opportunity to validate low-income  
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42 154 students’ personal experiences: they may be able to leverage existing technical expertise situated  
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44 155 within their community where manual, blue-collar work is more common. In short, technology has  
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47 156 democratized and enhanced what individuals are capable of creating in the modern world.  
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51 158 The experiences students have in the classroom have been influenced by a number of theoretical  
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53 159 perspectives on learning. Burrhus F. Skinner (1904-1990) was a prominent American  
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3 160 psychologist and behaviorist who had a highly reductionist view of learning. According to  
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5 161 Skinner, behavior is modified by consequences and learning involves reproducing behaviors that  
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7 162 have positive outcomes while avoiding behaviors that have negative outcomes (Skinner 1974).  
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10 163 Skinner (1984) argued that learning can be maximized through programmed instructional  
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12 164 materials by teachers trained in behavioristic approaches. This approach, however, largely  
13  
14 165 ignored the fact that internal thoughts and feelings influence an individual's actions (Deprato and  
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16 166 Midgley 1992). Remnants of Skinner's learning theory of *behaviorism* are still evident in  
17  
18 167 schooling practices today (e.g., awards and certificates to reward behavior; detention as a  
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20 168 consequence to deter behavior; rigid and standardized curriculum), however scholars throughout  
21  
22 169 the twentieth century pushed back on his reductionist conceptions of learning and development  
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24 170 in favor of theoretical orientations that considered the individual as a thinking being, capable of  
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26 171 acting in accordance with their free will.  
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31 172  
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33 173 Jean Piaget (1896-1980) was a Swiss psychologist who is credited with developing the fields of  
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35 174 developmental psychology, cognitive theory, and evolutionary epistemology. Piaget considered  
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37 175 learners as "active builders of knowledge" and this view forms the foundation of his learning  
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39 176 theory of *constructivism* (Papert 1999). Constructivism is viewed as a theory of learning in contrast  
40  
41 177 to Skinner's behaviorism (Fosnot and Perry 1996). Constructivism's implications for teaching and  
42  
43 178 learning are significant. Piaget's (1980) theory of constructivism was focused on cognitive  
44  
45 179 development and deep understanding; instead of viewing learning as a linear path, it was seen as  
46  
47 180 complex and multi-faceted. Constructivism is often cited as theoretical justification for *active*  
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49 181 *learning* approaches that call for instructors to provide opportunities for students to activate prior  
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51 182 knowledge on a specific topic, stop and process new information in connection to their past  
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183 experiences, and actively apply this new information to a relevant task. Again, educative making  
184 provides a mechanism to guide planning of relevant learning tasks connected to students' prior  
185 knowledge and lived experiences.

186  
187 Seymour Papert (1928-2016) is considered the “father” of today’s current Maker Movement  
188 (Martinez and Stager 2013). In his seminal book, *Mindstorms: Children, Computers, and*  
189 *Powerful Ideas*, Papert (1980) advocated for learners to program the computer, as opposed to the  
190 computer programming the child. Having worked with Piaget during the 1960s, Papert was greatly  
191 influenced by his work and used Piaget’s theory of constructivism to formulate a new theory of  
192 learning, *constructionism*. This theory suggests that people learn best when making an artifact for  
193 public consumption (Papert and Harel 1991). In contrast to constructivism, Papert’s (1991) theory  
194 of constructionism can apply to both a teaching and learning perspective. Individuals learn best  
195 when they are constructing, but educators can also use this to guide their instructional design and  
196 teaching. Importantly, constructionism, as a theory of teaching, contrasts transmission models of  
197 instruction—students who are simply told how to solve a problem, rather than experiencing how  
198 to solve a problem, often fall short of meaningful learning that is assimilated.

199  
200 The act of creating an object through digital fabrication in the form of 3D-printing holds great  
201 promise for learning. Historical and theoretical views have encouraged learning through creation  
202 for hundreds of years, yet recent advancements in technology have revolutionized what individuals  
203 are capable of creating in the modern world. Many K-12 schools and universities are adding spaces  
204 on campus to create, sometimes referred to as makerspaces, fabrication labs, or design studios.  
205 However, many of these spaces are still reserved for select courses (e.g., studio art; engineering)

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3 206 and are not used in an interdisciplinary manner across courses. Moreover, specific types of content  
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5 207 areas, such as life science, are less represented in the research literature. To understand how and  
6  
7 208 in what ways student-driven creation using 3D-printing has been incorporated in biological  
8  
9 209 education efforts, we conducted a systematic literature review spanning the years 2000 to early  
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11 210 2020 and discuss the sparsity of efforts to integrate these in a systematic manner. We conclude  
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13 211 with recommendations for educators and directions for future research.  
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### 19 213 **Research Methods**

20  
21 214 The following overarching question guided our literature review: *How is digital fabrication in the*  
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23 215 *form of 3D-printing used to support biological education?* While we recognize there are other  
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25 216 tools that can support active construction (i.e., CNC machines, laser cutters), we specifically  
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27 217 focused attention on the 3D-printer as a tool of construction because of its increasing use in  
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29 218 university settings accompanied by decreasing prices (Barrett et al. 2015). Further, we specifically  
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31 219 limited our search to studies that investigated student or teacher outcomes connected to 3D-  
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33 220 printing in the context of life science or biology education across the schooling experience (K-12;  
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35 221 undergraduate; and graduate studies) to document promising pedagogical practices and identify  
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37 222 gaps for future research at the intersection of biology and engineering or computer science  
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39 223 education.  
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### 47 225 **Data Collection**

48  
49 226 We first specified a set of appropriate search engines and search terms in consultation with our  
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51 227 project team and university librarian. Our team specifically included a faculty member with  
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53 228 expertise in biology (Lent) and STEM education (Hansen), as well as student researchers.  
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3 229 Ultimately, we included the following online databases in our search due to their focus on science  
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5 230 and/or education research: 1) Association for Computing Machinery Digital Library (ACM), 2)  
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7 231 Wiley Online Library, 3) EBSCO Education Source, 4) Springer Online, 5) ScienceDirect, and 6)  
8  
9 232 The National Science Teaching Association (NSTA). We avoided database aggregators (i.e. Web  
10  
11 233 of Science, Google Scholar) due to the varying criteria for inclusion in these types of databases.  
12  
13 234 The key search terms used were “3D printing” AND “Biology OR Life Science” AND “Education  
14  
15 235 OR Teaching OR Learning,” as well as derivatives of these terms. Our search was also limited  
16  
17 236 from the years 2000-2020 because access to 3D-printing technology has increased in this time  
18  
19 237 frame due to dropping prices and technological advancements. It is important to note that this  
20  
21 238 search was conducted at the beginning of 2020, so only articles published in January or February  
22  
23 239 2020 were included in the review. This yielded a total of 454 articles across the various search  
24  
25 240 engines.  
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### 33 242 **Data Analysis**

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35 243 Next, as a team, we evaluated each paper based on Kitchenham’s (2004) predetermined quality  
36  
37 244 criteria to determine suitability for inclusion in this review. Specifically, we ensured each article  
38  
39 245 was unbiased, internally valid, and externally valid. A study was considered *unbiased* if the authors  
40  
41 246 identified sufficient details about the overall research aims, participants, data collection methods  
42  
43 247 and analysis, as well as findings and implications connected to relevant past studies. A study was  
44  
45 248 considered *internally valid* if the overall design was likely to minimize systematic error within the  
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47 249 study. Finally, a study was considered *externally valid* if the effects observed were likely  
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49 250 applicable outside of the study. In short, we included empirical articles with sound research designs  
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51 251 and potentially generalizable results.  
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6 253 In our evaluation, we only included peer-reviewed studies in the form of journal articles or  
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8 254 conference proceedings that had an explicit connection to biology or life science. The studies we  
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10 255 included represented a variety of research methodologies, ranging from qualitative case studies  
11  
12 256 with limited numbers of participants to quasi-experimental methods seeking to test specific  
13  
14 257 interventions and simultaneously control extraneous variables. Additionally, we included studies  
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16 258 that focused attention on any type of student or educator, ranging from K-12 schools to pre-  
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18 259 professional, graduate programs. Most excluded articles were removed due to their lack of focus  
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20 260 on students, teachers, or learning. A large number of studies were also excluded for failing to focus  
21  
22 261 attention on the life sciences specifically. Recall that our goal was to review studies that  
23  
24 262 investigated the benefits of incorporating 3D-printing for the learning or teaching process in the  
25  
26 263 life sciences. Our team met on a weekly basis over the course of 6 months to evaluate the 454  
27  
28 264 articles included in the review. Discussion was used to reach consensus if opinions differed about  
29  
30 265 whether to include an article in the review. In total, we found 13 articles that met our criteria (see  
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32 266 Table 1).

### 37 38 267 **Results**

39  
40 268 The following section provides an overview of the 13 studies that met our criteria for inclusion  
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42 269 (see Appendix A). First, we describe the type of research (quantitative, qualitative, or mixed  
43  
44 270 methods), the disciplinary content focus area, and the participants involved in the studies. Then,  
45  
46 271 we provide an overview of how 3D-printing was used to enhance teaching or learning, as well as  
47  
48 272 data collection methods for assessing the learning experience. Finally, we discuss the overall  
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50 273 significance of these findings and conclude with recommendations for future research.  
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## 275 **Type of Research**

276 We used Creswell's (2009) descriptions of research designs to classify the studies included in  
277 this review as quantitative, qualitative, or mixed methods. According to Creswell (2009),  
278 *quantitative* studies seek to examine relationships among variables, most often through  
279 instruments designed to measure specific constructs and generate numerical data for statistical  
280 analysis; whereas *qualitative* studies seek to explore and understand participants' perceptions or  
281 experiences in a particular setting about a social or human problem, most often through  
282 interviews, focus groups, or researcher observations that are analyzed inductively to generate  
283 descriptive themes that reflect the complexity of the situation. Finally, *mixed methods* studies use  
284 both quantitative and qualitative data. For example, a mixed methods study might involve  
285 collecting quantitative survey data using Likert-scale responses, but supplement the quantitative  
286 data with qualitative data such as participant interviews or observations.

287  
288 The majority of studies included in our review reported quantitative (6) or mixed methodologies  
289 (5), with fewer studies (2) reporting qualitative research designs. Of the quantitative studies,  
290 most (5 out of 6) reported using Likert-scale survey instruments: half of these studies (3) used a  
291 survey to evaluate the students' overall *experience or satisfaction* after using or making 3D-  
292 printed models, whereas the remaining half (3) used surveys to assess changes in students'  
293 *conceptual understanding* of course content after using 3D-printed models. Similarly, all of the  
294 mixed methods studies also administered surveys to evaluate participants' overall satisfaction  
295 before and/or after using 3D-printed models; yet these studies included additional types of  
296 qualitative data (e.g., focus groups, student work samples, observations). Finally, both qualitative  
297 studies primarily relied on observations of students working with 3D-printed materials.

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5 299 **Context: Subjects & Students**

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8 300 All studies included in the review related to biology or life science education, more broadly. A  
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10 301 closer inspection of the specific disciplinary content areas revealed greater diversity in foci. Most  
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12 302 studies investigated 3D-printing in the context of anatomy (4) or molecular biology and  
13  
14 303 biochemistry (3) courses. Other studies focused attention on 3D-printing in the context of  
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16 304 environmental science (1), physical therapy (1), veterinary medicine (1), dentistry (1),  
17  
18 305 biomechanics (1), and general STEM coursework (1). Most studies investigated 3D-printing in  
19  
20 306 the context of undergraduate coursework (6) or graduate coursework (4). Fewer studies (2)  
21  
22 307 investigated the use of 3D-printed materials with K-12 students. Finally, only 1 pilot study  
23  
24 308 included participants from multiple age demographics (high school and undergraduate).  
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31 310 **Data Collection Techniques**

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33 311 The most common type of data collected across all 13 studies included in this review was survey  
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35 312 responses from participants. However, most studies (11) only used surveys to evaluate the user's  
36  
37 313 experience after using 3D-printed materials, not to assess their learning. Of these studies, over  
38  
39 314 half (6) used a Likert-scale survey that was designed by the authors; only 2 of these studies  
40  
41 315 explicitly mentioned the additional inclusion of qualitative, open-ended questions. The remaining  
42  
43 316 studies that used surveys (5) were also designed by the authors, but did not use a Likert-scale  
44  
45 317 design. Less than half (5) of these studies reported on measures taken to validate the survey  
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47 318 instruments. Only 3 studies included in this review administered a pre/post conceptual  
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49 319 assessment to measure changes in students' learning as a result of using or making 3D-printed  
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52 320 materials.  
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5 322 Other types of data collection were less common across the studies. Specifically, only 3 studies  
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7 323 reported using observations of participants engaged in learning activities. Similarly, only 2  
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9 324 studies conducted focus groups for participants to elaborate on their experiences or survey  
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11 325 responses. Only 2 studies used student work samples as evidence of learning. Finally, only 2  
12  
13 326 studies included course grades as a measure to evaluate students' learning outcomes.  
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19 328 **What was printed? How was it used?**

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21 329 In order to evaluate the breadth of purposes for using 3D-printed materials to enhance biological  
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23 330 education, we also analyzed what each study printed and how they used the created artifacts. The  
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25 331 majority of studies (6) printed models of bones, organs, or specific features of the human body  
26  
27 332 (e.g., Pterygopalatine fossa; teeth) for use in anatomy or health science courses. Three studies  
28  
29 333 investigated the use of 3D-printed models of complex molecules or proteins for use in  
30  
31 334 biochemistry coursework; two of these studies also included a digital interface to use in  
32  
33 335 conjunction with the physical models. An additional two studies focused attention on 3D-  
34  
35 336 printing objects for special populations of students, specifically printing assistive technologies  
36  
37 337 for physical therapy and printing tactile images of two-dimensional photographs for use in  
38  
39 338 undergraduate STEM laboratory courses by students who are blind or visually impaired (BVI).  
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41 339 Finally, 2 studies investigated the use of 3D-printing for K-12 students. One of these studies  
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43 340 investigated 3D-printing using plastic salvaged from the ocean to expose children to  
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45 341 environmental science and sustainability concepts. The remaining study reported using 3D-  
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47 342 printed materials in a STEM outreach event facilitated by undergraduate students to excite  
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49 343 younger students about the study of biomechanics.  
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3 3444  
5 345 **Impact on Learning**

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7 346 Only 4 studies specifically measured changes in students' conceptual understanding related to  
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9 347 course content after using 3D-printed materials: all of these studies reported an increase in  
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11 348 conceptual gains when students were allowed to use printed models. However, most studies  
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13 349 included in this review (8) only reported findings related to student satisfaction using 3D-printed  
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15 350 materials. In these cases, all 8 reported positive student perceptions. One study was unique in  
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17 351 that it sought to measure young students' self-identity as a scientist and engineer, attitudes  
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19 352 toward engineering, and attitudes toward biomechanics after participation in an outreach activity  
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21 353 using 3D-printed materials; results indicated significant gains in all three areas that were  
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23 354 assessed.  
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**Discussion**

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33 357 This paper provides a systematic review of the literature investigating the potential of 3D-  
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35 358 printing for teaching and learning in biological education throughout the twenty-first century  
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37 359 (2000 - 2020). Only 13 of the 454 articles reviewed met our criteria for inclusion (see Appendix  
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39 360 A). The main reason most articles were excluded (411 of the 454) was because they were not  
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41 361 education focused (i.e. related to educational research) or related to biological or life sciences.  
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43 362 Of the remaining 30 excluded articles, 15 were not related to 3D-printing and 15 were not  
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45 363 empirical or student-centered studies. All included articles used 3D-printing in the context of  
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47 364 biology or life science settings and attempted to evaluate the impact on students. The type of  
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49 365 students varied across studies, ranging from elementary school children to graduate students  
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52 366 pursuing professional degrees in health science fields. The most common methods of  
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3 367 investigation were quantitative, with many studies reporting the use of Likert-scale surveys.  
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5 368 However, most survey instruments were designed by the authors of each study and fewer yet  
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7 369 reported their procedures for survey validation. Further, most surveys were used to evaluate the  
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9 370 students' satisfaction using 3D-printed materials rather than conceptual changes in their  
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11 371 understanding of course content. Most studies used 3D-printed models for the study of human  
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13 372 anatomy (e.g., bones, teeth, organs) or the study of molecular biology (e.g., proteins, complex  
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15 373 molecules).  
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21 375 In general, all studies reported positive student outcomes connected to using 3D-printed  
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23 376 materials. However, due to the limited nature of data collected and analyzed across the studies, it  
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25 377 is challenging to make broad claims about student learning in relation to using or creating 3D-  
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27 378 printed models in the context of biological education. Many studies failed to collect multiple  
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29 379 types of data to triangulate their findings. One study emerged as a notable exception. Howell et  
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31 380 al. (2019) included three types of data (satisfaction surveys, conceptual assessments, and focus  
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33 381 groups) in their analysis to generate evidence-based claims about student learning in relation to  
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35 382 using 3D-printed materials in combination with interactive learning modules. This was the only  
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37 383 study that reported using three types of data in their analysis and was thus able to make more  
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39 384 robust claims about the value of 3D-printing for learning. Future studies should use mixed  
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41 385 methods research designs that investigate the impact on student or teacher learning across  
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43 386 multiple sources of data.  
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51 388 Of particular absence in the reviewed studies were investigations focused on educators. Not one  
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53 389 study specifically focused attention on the professional development required for instructors to  
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3 390 incorporate digital fabrication in the life sciences. We recognize that the training needs would  
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5 391 differ based on university and K-12 settings. For instance, university STEM faculty may need  
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7 392 targeted professional development about the value of student-centered approaches for learning,  
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9 393 whereas K-12 teachers may need support connected to the technology itself and engineering or  
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11 394 computer science content. Future studies should investigate the professional development  
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13 395 support necessary for K-16+ educators to incorporate digital fabrication in the context of  
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15 396 biological education.  
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### 20 21 398 **New Directions: Students as Creators**

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23 399 We only found one study that investigated students acting as creators using 3D-printing  
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25 400 technologies. Vones et al. (2020) described a 3D-printing workshop that allowed children to  
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27 401 create objects using ocean plastic to learn about engineering and environmental sustainability  
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29 402 principles. This was the only study that positioned students as creators. According to historical  
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31 403 and theoretical perspectives on learning, students should be actively engaged in the design  
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33 404 process, constructing a meaningful object to share with the world. We argue that this is a  
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35 405 significant gap in the current literature.  
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42 407 Future research should investigate the learning that occurs when students create using  
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44 408 technology, particularly in the life science domains. Studies investigating bioinspired design  
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46 409 courses are promising contexts to conduct future research at the intersection of biology and  
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48 410 engineering education and are becoming increasingly common in undergraduate education  
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50 411 (Nagel et al. 2016). For example, the University of California, Berkeley currently offers a  
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52 412 bioinspired design course that intentionally recruits students from different majors across  
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3 413 campus. Students have access to a design studio with fabrication technology and work in diverse  
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5 414 groups to engage in bioinspired design projects using knowledge of engineering, biology,  
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7 415 medicine, art, architecture, and business. Past projects have included gecko-inspired adhesives,  
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9 416 running robots, and medical prosthetics. Similarly, many K-12 schools have innovative programs  
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11 417 and projects (e.g., Cook et al. 2015; Newley et al. 2019), but often lack the capacity to conduct  
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13 418 rigorous research to investigate student learning outcomes in a systematic manner. Following  
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15 419 recent calls from the National Academies of Sciences, Engineering, and Medicine (2020), we  
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17 420 propose that university-based educators collaborate with K-12 schools to further investigate  
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19 421 student learning outcomes in engineering and computer science. This collaboration can enhance  
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21 422 continuity of learning experiences across a students' educational career, as advocated for by  
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23 423 Dewey (1938).  
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31 425 During our literature search, we also considered other types of technology beyond 3D-printing that  
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33 426 hold promise for integrating biology and engineering or computer science education. We identified  
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35 427 several articles that used 3D-modeling and digital fabrication that were ultimately not 3D-printing  
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37 428 (e.g., virtual reality, augmented reality). Similar to our review of papers focused on 3D-printing,  
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39 429 we found that most of these studies did not investigate learning outcomes or position students as  
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41 430 the creators. As technologies advance, more tools become available to enhance the way in which  
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43 431 students learn and how educators engage students in content. We argue that any new technology  
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45 432 implemented in the classroom should be implemented in a way that involves students in the  
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47 433 creative process. Moreover, these technologies must be user friendly for both educators and student  
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49 434 creators.  
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**Conclusion**

We evaluated 20 years of literature in our attempt to characterize the use of 3D-printing in biological education. While it is likely that we missed some studies in our pursuit, we were surprised by the lack of systematic investigations that examined the impact of 3D-printing on student learning in the life sciences. Past historical and theoretical works have shown the benefits of engaging students in the act of creation to solve interdisciplinary projects, but the use of this pedagogical approach in the life sciences is significantly lacking in the overall research literature. The historical and theoretical foundation provides a guide on how to be effective educators. As Skinner (1984) told us, those delivering the content must learn how to do so. Educators need to be more than just content experts. They need to realize that effective education must be a continual experience connecting all aspects of a student's life (Dewey 1938) and we need to do more than reproduce the status quo because we are responsible for democratizing science and making education equitable (Freire 1970). Students should not be viewed as empty vessels, but rather as participants in the creation and construction of knowledge (Papert and Harel 1991). We have known for more than a hundred years that the act of making holds tremendous promise in education and we are in an era that affords the opportunity to realize that promise.

We argue for additional studies to investigate the impact of student-driven creation at the intersection of biology and engineering or computer science education using mixed methods research designs that account for both the students' satisfaction and conceptual understanding of course content. We also strongly recommend that educational researchers and content experts in the biological and life sciences form partnerships, learn from one another, and work towards the goal of developing and properly assessing curriculum that engages students and educators as

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3 459 creators. Through more robust and systematic studies, we can develop the necessary evidence  
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5 460 base to support broad changes in educator professional development practices and overall policy  
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7 461 decisions about the value of students engaging in interdisciplinary projects that allow for active  
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9 462 construction using cutting-edge technology.  
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#### 14 464 **Author's Contributions**

16 465 A.K.H and D.D.L contributed to the conceptualization of the article. A.K.H., T.R.L., L.W.M.,  
17  
18 466 K.P., J.R., and D.D.L contributed to the data collection. A.K.H. analyzed and collated the final  
19  
20 467 data set. A.K.H, T.R.L., L.W.M., K.P., J.R., and D.D.L contributed to the writing of the  
21  
22 468 manuscript.  
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25 469

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28  
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#### 34 473 **Data Availability**

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36 474 The data underlying this article are available in the article and appendix.  
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For Peer Review

Table 1. *Total studies reviewed versus included*

<b>Database</b>	<b>Total</b>	<b>Included in Review</b>
ACM	152	2
Wiley	7	4
EBSCO	8	2
Springer	53	0
ScienceDirect	216	4
NSTA	18	1
Total	454	13

## Appendix A. Studies included in review

No.	Authors, Years	Journal / Conference	Area of Study	Participants	Sample Size	Methodology	Instruments	Printed models
1	Gillet et al. 2005	<i>Tangible Interfaces for Structural Molecular Biology</i>	Molecular Biology	High School & College Students	N/A	Qualitative	Observations	Augmented Reality (AR) & 3D-printed models for complex molecules
2	O'Reilly et al. 2015	<i>Anatomical Sciences Education</i>	Anatomy	Medical Students	22	Mixed	Likert-scale student satisfaction survey with open-response questions	3D printed anatomical models of the lower limb
3	Hasper et al. 2015	<i>Journal of College Science Teaching</i>	STEM	College students who are blind or visually impaired (BVI)	14	Mixed	Student satisfaction survey & Focus groups	3D printed tactile images of visual laboratory materials (pictures)
4	McDonald et al. 2016	<i>ASSETS '16 Proceedings of the 18<sup>th</sup> International Conference on Computers &amp; Accessibility</i>	Physical Therapy	Physical Therapy Faculty & Physical Therapy (PT) students	4 PT faculty; 65 PT students	Mixed	Pre/post student satisfaction surveys; Student design projects  Faculty survey to understand liability issues	3D printed Assistive Technologies for Physical Therapy
5	Li et al. 2016	<i>Anatomical Sciences Education</i>	Veterinary Medicine	Pre-veterinary students	203	Quantitative	Likert-scale student satisfaction survey	3D printed skeletal models of domestic animals

6	Vones et al. 2018	<i>Materials Today Communications</i>	Environmental Science	K-12 students	6	Qualitative	Student design projects; Observations	3D printing objects from ocean plastic
7	Reymus et al. 2019	<i>International Endodontic Journal</i>	Dentistry	Dental students	105	Quantitative	Student satisfaction survey	3D printed models of teeth
8	Lozano et al. 2018	<i>TEEM'18: Proceedings of the Sixth International Conference on Technological Ecosystems for Enhancing Multiculturality</i>	Anatomy	College students	280	Quantitative	Likert-scale student satisfaction survey	3D printed models of bones
9	Garas et al. 2018	<i>Annals of Anatomy-Anatomischer Anzeiger</i>	Anatomy	College students	23	Quantitative	Likert-scale student satisfaction survey; Pre/post conceptual assessment	3D printed models of heart, shoulder, and thigh
10	Lohning et al. 2019	<i>Journal of Chemical Education</i>	Biochemistry	College students	201	Mixed	Student satisfaction survey with open-response; course grades	3D models of proteins
11	Howell et al. 2019	<i>Biochemistry and Molecular Biology Education</i>	Biochemistry	College students	130	Mixed	Student satisfaction survey; Pre/post conceptual assessment; Focus groups	3D printed models and interactive learning modules

12	Tanner et al. 2020	<i>Anatomical Sciences Education</i>	Anatomy	College students	118	Quantitative	Likert-scale satisfaction survey; Pre/post conceptual assessment	Pterygopalatine fossa
13	Teeter et al. 2020	<i>Journal of Biomechanics</i>	Biomechanics	High School students	200	Quantitative	Pre/post Likert- scale survey about identity and attitudes	3D printing outreach activity for high school students

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