

Extracellular RNA Biomarkers for Chronic Non-Healing Wounds

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1 **Abbreviations**

2		
3	A1BG-AS1	A1BG antisense RNA 1
4	CASC2	Cancer susceptibility candidate 2
5	ceRNA	competitive endogenous RNA
6	cfNA	cell-free nucleic acid
7	cfRNA	cell-free RNA
8	circRNA	circular RNA
9	DFU	diabetic foot ulcer
10	DLEU1	Deleted in Lymphocytic Leukaemia 1
11	ECM	Extracellular matrix
12	EV	Extracellular vesicle
13	HOTAIR	HOX transcript antisense intergenic RNA
14	lncRNA	Long non-coding RNA
15	MALAT1	Metastasis-associated lung adenocarcinoma transcript 1
16	mRNA	Messenger RNA
17	miRNA	MicroRNA
18	MMP	Matrix metalloproteinase
19	ncRNA	non-coding RNA
20	NICE	National Institute for Health and Care Excellence (NICE)
21	NEAT	Nuclear enriched abundant transcript
22	PTEN	Phosphatase and TENsin homolog deleted on chromosome 10
23	sEV	Small extracellular vesicle
24	T2DM	type 2 diabetes mellitus
25	TIMP	Tissue inhibitor of matrix metalloproteinase
26	tRF	transfer RNA fragments
27	VLU	Venous leg ulcer
28	VEGF	Vascular endothelial growth factor
29	WAKMAR	Wound and keratinocyte migration-Associated RNA

30

Abstract

Chronic non-healing wounds represent a major clinical challenge, often associated with diabetes, vascular insufficiencies, and aging. Despite the substantial burden that such wounds place on patients and healthcare systems, few biomarkers have been approved for prediction of wound healing trajectories and outcomes, limiting opportunities to inform clinical management decisions or quantify patient responses to interventions. Recent advances have identified cell-free nucleic acids as powerful tools for gaining molecular insights because they offer a non-invasive, dynamic snapshot of physiological and pathological processes occurring throughout the body. In particular, cell-free RNAs from non-coding RNA families including microRNA , long non-coding RNA , circular RNA and transfer RNA fragments can be profiled on a large scale to reveal novel disease signatures to support biomarker development. The presence of such non-coding RNAs in serum, plasma or other biofluids provides a rich resource for uncovering new parameters that can support biomarker development for wound repair. In this review article, we highlight some of the current challenges associated with biomarkers for wound healing in clinical practice. We then survey microRNAs, long non-coding RNA and circular RNAs landscape in relation to their utility as biomarkers in diabetic foot ulcers and other chronic wounds. Collectively, these extracellular RNAs offer a multifaceted view of wound biology and may serve as non-invasive biomarkers for stratifying wound severity, predicting healing outcomes, and guiding personalized interventions.

Introduction

Chronic wounds are open wounds that often take months to heal, if they heal at all. These wounds include diabetic foot ulcers (DFU), venous leg ulcers (VLU), arterial ulcers, pressure ulcers and surgical wounds healing by secondary intention that fail to achieve full closure [1, 2]. Collectively these wounds are common, with major implications for those affected and the health systems that deliver their care. For instance, the costs of managing chronic wounds was estimated at US\$25 billion per annum in the USA and the prevalence 1–2% of the population in developed countries [3]. More recently, Guest and colleagues put the costs of wound management across the National Health Service of the United Kingdom at £8.3 billion, of which £5.6 billion was for managing unhealed wounds [4]. In a primary care setting in Barcelona, Spain, a 3-year evaluation put wound care costs at around US\$40 million, which extrapolated to \$2 billion across Spain [5]. Beyond these economic considerations, chronic wounds also have a substantial negative impact on health-related quality of life, which overall are comparable to those observed in congestive heart failure or chronic obstructive pulmonary disease [6]. Further, there is evidence that the 5-year mortality rate for patients after diabetes-related amputations is almost 50%, which is twice that reported for breast cancer [7]. It is also worth noting that there are limited effective treatments to promote wound healing across all wound types, and those that are evidence-based are mostly physical or mechanical in nature, such as negative pressure wound therapy, advanced dressings and compression therapy rather than biologically active innovations implemented in a stratified medicine framework [8, 9].

Wound healing progresses through well-established phases of inflammation, proliferation and remodelling, with co-ordinated interactions between diverse cell types orchestrating completion of the process [10, 11]. In chronic wounds, inflammation fails to resolve, neovascularisation is curtailed, extracellular matrix (ECM) formation and turnover is disrupted and keratinocytes adopt a hyperproliferative phenotype that prevents differentiation, migration and re-epithelialisation of the wound [12–14]. Against this backdrop, the ability to characterise the wound status and predict healing outcomes using biomarkers may offer a new framework for clinical management of chronic wounds by enabling personalised interventions that target the underlying molecular and cellular dysfunction associated with non-healing wounds. , However, although our understanding of

1 the cell and molecular biology of wound healing has grown tremendously in recent years, this
2 has not been paralleled with a similar increase in understanding of the biomarker profiles of
3 the wound microenvironment or indeed the blood-based biomarker profile associated with
4 different types of chronic wounds, and issues with study quality often limit the conclusions
5 that can be drawn [15-17]. Unsurprisingly then, no biomarkers are routinely recommended
6 in national clinical guidelines for wound care in the UK. The National Institute for Health and
7 Care Excellence (NICE) guidance on wound management does not recommend any
8 biomarkers for routine clinical use in wound assessment or treatment, though several
9 biomarkers have been explored in research settings (**Table 1**). The specificity of current
10 wound care biomarkers such as proteases and cytokines is unclear, and spatiotemporal
11 changes to their levels during wound healing makes their deployment as simple biomarkers
12 more difficult. This highlights the gap between biological insight and practical diagnostic tools.
13 In the UK, the only biomarker for wounds which has been evaluated by NICE is the
14 WoundCheck Protease status test [18]. However, according to NICE (2016), this has so far only
15 been tested in one small (n=35) prospective study, and its value therefore remains unclear.

Table 1. Illustrative biomarkers in wound healing identified in the literature, derived from references [19-23]

Biomarker	Type	Clinical Relevance	Strengths	Limitations
C-Reactive Protein	Acute-phase protein	Indicates systemic inflammation; elevated in infected or non-healing wounds	Easily measurable; widely used in clinical settings	Non-specific; elevated in various inflammatory conditions
Interleukins (e.g. IL-6, IL-8)	Cytokine	Pro-inflammatory; elevated levels may indicate impaired healing or infection	Sensitive to changes in inflammatory status	Levels can fluctuate; not specific to wound healing
Tumor Necrosis Factor-alpha	Cytokine	Promotes inflammation; high levels associated with chronic wounds	Key mediator in inflammation; potential therapeutic target	Systemic effects; elevated in various diseases
Matrix Metalloproteinases	Enzymes	Involved in extracellular matrix remodelling; elevated in chronic wounds	Reflects tissue remodelling activity; potential target for therapy	Overexpression can impair healing; requires balance with inhibitors
Tissue inhibitor of matrix metalloproteinases	Protease inhibitors	Reduced levels of TIMPs may worsen the impact of raised MMPs	May be measured from wound fluid.	Must be interpreted alongside MMPs to be clinically meaningful.
Vascular Endothelial Growth Factor	Growth factor	Stimulates angiogenesis; crucial for tissue regeneration	Promotes blood vessel formation; therapeutic potential	Overexpression may lead to abnormal angiogenesis
Heparin-binding EGF-like Growth Factor	Growth factor	Enhances keratinocyte migration and proliferation; aids re-epithelialization	Potent mitogen; involved in multiple healing phases	Potential role in tumorigenesis; requires controlled expression
Copper Peptide	Peptide complex	Stimulates collagen synthesis; promotes wound contraction and angiogenesis	Enhances tissue regeneration; antioxidant properties	Limited clinical data; requires further research
Angiopoietin-like 4	Glycoprotein	Modulates vascular permeability; promotes keratinocyte migration	Involved in angiogenesis; potential therapeutic target	Complex role in metabolism and cancer; requires careful modulation

1 Early proteomics studies on rodent wound fluid sought to identify peptides that may
2 promote wound repair or have antimicrobial properties [24, 25]. In addition, proteomics-
3 based analyses of wound fluid have gained traction for biomarker discovery to understand or
4 predict the healing trajectory of a wound, particularly in relation to proteases and cytokines,
5 as well as small molecules and microbes [21, 23, 26-28]. RNA-based biomarkers, particularly
6 cell-free RNAs (cfRNA), may offer greater molecular specificity and reflect dynamic gene
7 regulation processes central to healing and chronicity. Their presence in accessible fluids such
8 as wound exudate and plasma makes them promising candidates for non-invasive, prognostic
9 tools capable of personalising wound care. However, the cell-free nucleic acid (cfNA)
10 landscape of wound fluid has received limited attention whether in relation to DNA,
11 messenger RNAs (mRNA), non-coding RNAs (ncRNA). Hence the potential of wound fluid-
12 derived cfNAs as an alternative biomarker for monitoring and predicting outcomes for
13 patients with open wounds remains obscure.

14 Cell-free nucleic acids , particularly cell-free DNA, have emerged as tractable analytes
15 for testing a range of conditions including non-invasive prenatal testing, tumour profiling and
16 tracking, transplant surveillance and pathogen detection in infectious diseases [29]. The
17 potential to gain deeper molecular and mechanistic insight into the underlying disease
18 process has also led to a surge of interest in the exploitation of cfRNA as biomarkers for
19 cancer. Broadly, the study of cfRNA bifurcates into those that focus on mRNA and those that
20 focus on non-coding RNAs (**Figure 1**).

21 For ncRNA, the potential of cfRNA profiling is enormous because at least four
22 categories of well-defined ncRNAs have been established: microRNAs (miRNA), long non-
23 coding RNAs (lncRNA), circular RNAs (circRNA) and transfer RNA fragments (tRF) (**Figure 1**). In
24 many cases, the assessment of these ncRNAs as biomarkers has been linked to studies on
25 small extracellular vesicles (sEVs; exosomes).

26 Within this article, we evaluate the potential of ncRNAs, alone or associated with sEVs,
27 as biomarkers that can be marshalled to monitor and predict the trajectories and outcomes
28 of chronic non-healing wounds.

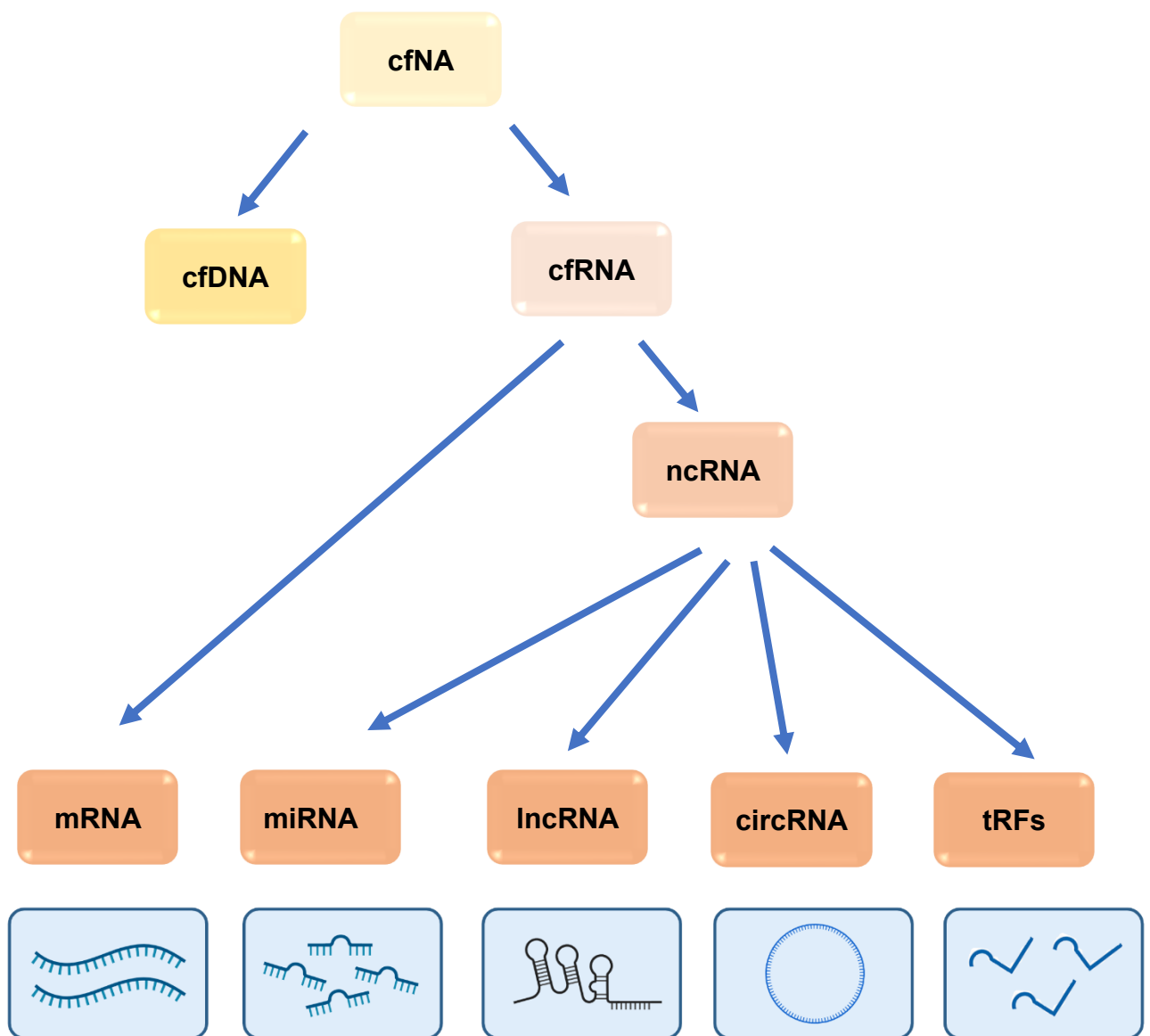


Figure 1: Cell-free nucleic acids (cfNA) amenable to analysis as biomarkers for wound repair. The cfNAs may be quantified in wound fluid, serum, saliva, urine and exosomes derived from these biofluids; ncRNA, non-coding RNA; mRNA, messenger RNA; miRNA, microRNA; lncRNA, long non-coding RNA, circRNA, circular RNA, tRF, tRNA fragments. Depictions of the RNAs were generated in BioRender.

Cell-free RNA

The presence of stable miRNAs in serum and plasma first highlighted the potential of miRNAs as a bloodborne biomarker that could be exploited for diagnostic or prognostic purposes in disease [30, 31]. These studies did not examine cfNAs in the context of bloodborne sEVs, which have since become a focus of much biomarker discovery work. Interestingly, more recent efforts have sought to uncover cell-free plasma mRNA biomarkers with diagnostic and prognostic potential for cancer [32-34], coronary disease [35], Alzheimer's disease [36, 37] and paediatric inflammatory syndromes such as bacterial/viral infection and Kawasaki disease [38]. Indeed, there is evidence that plasma cf-mRNAs may be enriched in cancer EVs [39]. However, the biomarker potential of cf-mRNA in plasma or plasma derived EVs from chronic wound patients remains under-explored, as the focus remains on miRNA, lncRNA and circRNA. These diverse RNA species may, together, offer exciting opportunities to uncover biomarker patterns that can support wound management, and we now appraise their potential in that regard.

MicroRNAs

MicroRNAs are endogenous small, non-coding RNA molecules, typically 22 nucleotides long, that regulate gene expression in a post-transcriptional manner by binding to the 3'-untranslated region (UTR) of target mRNAs [40]. This function of miRNA is intrinsically linked to their association with Argonaute proteins to form the RNA-induced silencing complex (RISC) which orchestrates the assembly of large multi-protein complexes that drive destabilisation, degradation or translation repression of target mRNAs [41].

Importantly, miRNAs play critical roles in numerous physiological and pathological processes, with a wide variety of roles in wound healing, modulating the expression of genes involved in proliferation, migration, differentiation, neovascularization and inflammation across multiple cell types as has been reviewed elsewhere by us and others [42-47]. These include miR-34a-5p and miR-34c-5p, which promote inflammation signalling in keratinocytes and impair wound closure in mouse wounds [48]; miR-132 which dampens keratinocyte inflammatory cytokine and chemokine production while elevating both keratinocyte proliferation and fibroblast migration [49, 50] and miR-129-5p and miR-335-5p which dampen the expression of matrix metalloproteinase 9 (MMP-9) [51]. In addition, miR-21-5p exerts pro-healing actions through an extensive network that includes anti-Inflammatory

1 regulation of nuclear factor kappa B (NF- κ B) via programmed cell death 4 (PDCD4), promotion
2 of keratinocyte migration by silencing of tissue inhibitor of metalloproteinases (TIMP-3) and
3 regulation of fibroblast function by targeting sprouty homolog 2 (SPRY /2), as reviewed
4 recently [52]. Notably, miR-21-5p is transferred from keratinocytes to myeloid cells via sEVs
5 to shift the latter towards a pro-healing fibroblast-like phenotype that granulation tissue to
6 support wound healing [53]. Further, multiple miRNAs regulate neovascularisation, with
7 elevation of miR-221, miR-222, miR-92a, and miR-301a-3p inhibiting angiogenesis, while miR-
8 296, miR-126, miR-378, and miR-210 promoted angiogenesis [47]. For more insight regarding
9 the roles of miRNA in skin healing, the reader is referred to a recent review by Doghish and
10 colleagues [54].

13 **Cell-free MicroRNAs as Biomarkers for Chronic Wounds**

14 Differential miRNAs expression in wound tissue from DFUs has received particular attention,
15 as reviewed elsewhere [38], though studies defining the miRNA signatures of VLU has also
16 been reported [55]. However, it remains unclear whether circulating miRNA can serve as
17 prognostic biomarkers that would enable healthcare providers to predict the trajectory of
18 wound healing and adjust treatment plans accordingly. Indeed, only a limited number of
19 studies appear to have examined cf-miRNAs in wound fluid or blood from patients with DFU
20 and other wounds, as summarised in **Table 2.** These include seminal work by Ren and
21 colleagues, which assessed miRNA in sEVs from wound fluid. Differential expression of 211
22 miRNAs, reporting 58 miRNAs that were elevated and 153 that were depleted in DFU-derived
23 EVs compared to control EVs [56]. The study focused on miR-205-5p and miR-195-5p which
24 they linked to the regulation of vascular endothelial growth factor A (VEGFA): transfer of the
25 DFU-derived EVs into endothelial cells elevated the expression of these miRNAs and
26 diminished VEGFA expression. Given the importance of VEGF, it appears feasible that these
27 may have value as biomarkers. Levels of miR-205-5p might be carefully calibrated during
28 wound repair, as both pro-migratory and anti-migratory effects have been reported in
29 keratinocytes [57, 58] but whether the high levels of miR-205 in DFU EVs reflect elevated
30 expression in structural cells of skin and blood vessels as opposed to EV released from
31 infiltrating blood cells remains to be established. It might not matter in any case as putative
32 transfer of miR-205-5p in a paracrine manner may contribute to impaired healing. The

1 important consideration from our perspective is whether monitoring miR-205-5p has
2 prognostic value in predicting patient outcomes to standard of care. It should also be noted,
3 however, that cf-miRNAs have not been formally validated in clinical contexts, whereas
4 circulating miRNAs with biomarker potential have been established in clinical settings linked
5 to cancer, ischemic stroke and myocardial infarction, as illustrated by several recent studies
6 [59-61].

Table 2: Extracellular miRNAs and lncRNAs as potential biomarkers in DFU

Condition	Sample	RNA	Evaluated in EVs	Sample size	Ref.
DFU	Serum	miR-205-5p↑	Yes	21 patients 18 controls	[56]
DFU	Wound fluid	miR-195-5p↑ miR-205-5p↑	Yes	21 patients 14 DM controls 18 healthy controls	[56]
DFU	Plasma	let-7e-5p ↑ miR-17-5p ↑ miR-191-5p ↑ miR-33a-5p ↑	No	41 patients 50 controls	[62]
DFU	Plasma	miR-203a-3p↑	Plasma	64 patients 52 controls	[63]
DFU	Serum-derived exosomes	miR-15a-3p↑	Detected in both serum and serum-derived exosomes	10 DFU patients 10 patients with non-diabetic foot wounds	[64]
DFU	Serum	lncRNA A1BG-AS1↑	No	77 DFU patients 85 T2DM patients 75 healthy controls	[65]
DFU	Serum	lncRNA DLEU1↑	No	71 DFU patients 71 Healthy controls	[66]

EV, Extracellular vesicle
lncRNA, long non-coding RNA
DLEU1, Deleted in Lymphocytic Leukaemia 1
DFU, diabetic foot ulcer
DM, diabetes mellitus
T2DM, type 2 diabetes mellitus patients

Long non-coding RNAs

Long non-coding RNAs are RNA transcripts that have traditionally been defined as consisting of at least 200 nucleotides but having little or no protein-coding capacity. While the 200 nt lower limit for lncRNA size has served as a useful cut-off to date, a recent Consensus Statement has sought to re-define lncRNAs as >500 nt [67]. This is to distinguish lncRNA more clearly from certain ncRNAs that are over 200 nt long but are not classical lncRNAs. The 60-300 nt long small nucleolar RNAs involved in ribosomal RNA modification and the small nuclear RNAs that execute pre-mRNA splicing, which are typically ~150 nt long but can be 60-450 nt long, fall into this category of intermediate RNAs [68, 69].

Although a few notable lncRNAs such as X-inactive specific and H19 had been discovered early in relation to developmental processes [70, 71], it was the characterization of large-scale mouse, human and fly transcriptome datasets that established the pervasive nature of lncRNA transcripts [72-75]. The recent NONCODEV6 study estimates the human genome has just over 173,00 lncRNAs, but the number of functional human lncRNAs seems to be 20,000-60,000 [76, 77].

Combined with their genomic and structural diversity and low sequence conservation, the relatively large number of lncRNAs has made the validation and functional annotation of lncRNAs challenging but they have been implicated in mRNA decay, structural scaffolding, chromatin remodeling, epigenetic regulation, transcriptional and post-transcriptional regulation, RNA splicing and editing and in development [78, 79]. Competitive endogenous RNA (ceRNA) binding represents another framework for understanding lncRNA function, and involves sequestration of endogenous miRNA by lncRNA [36,37]. Thus, the lncRNA competes with mRNA targets to capture miRNAs, thereby limiting the effective concentration of target miRNA that is available to mediate repression [36]. It should be noted that a significant proportion of so-called lncRNAs are now known to encode peptides via short open reading frames [80, 81]. These micropeptides, usually less than 100 amino acids long, have been implicated in a range of functions associated with protein phosphorylation, mRNA modulation and interactions with proteins associated with subcellular organelle membranes [82]. The *TINCR* (Terminal differentiation-Induced Non-Coding RNA) gene is one such lncRNA that is now known to encode an 87-amino acid long peptide that has been implicated in promoting keratinocyte proliferation to support wound healing [83]. However, this appears to be the exception among several lncRNAs implicated in wound repair, to which we now turn.

LncRNA and wound healing

Multiple lncRNAs have been implicated in wound healing as well as other aspects of skin biology, including keratinocyte differentiation, melanocyte behaviour and hair growth [84, 85]. From the epidermal perspective, such lncRNAs include wound and keratinocyte migration-associated lncRNAs (WAKMAR1 and WAKMAR2) [86, 87]; TET2-interacting long noncoding RNA, which contributes to disrupted ECM homeostasis by promoting expression of MMP-9 promoter [88] and lncRNA SNHG26 which shifts keratinocyte progenitor cells from the inflammatory to the proliferative state during wound healing [89]. Interestingly, keratinocyte sEVs delivered the lncRNA metastasis-associated lung adenocarcinoma transcript 1 (MALAT1) into macrophages, shifting them towards a pro-healing phenotype [90]. In fibroblasts, lncRNA cancer susceptibility candidate 2 (CASC2) levels were lower in wound tissues of DFU patients and CASC2 overexpression promoted fibroblast migration and proliferation and reduced their apoptosis [91]. On the other hand, lncRNA growth arrest-specific transcript 5 was elevated in diabetic wounds and drove macrophages towards a pro-inflammatory M1 phenotype [92]. The roles of these and other lncRNAs in relation to inflammation, angiogenesis and ECM turnover have been reviewed elsewhere recently [93]. Here, we first focus on lncRNAs associated with wound healing where there is also evidence of loading into EVs (H19, HOTAIR, NEAT1) then highlight two lncRNAs (A1BG-AS1 and DLEU1) identified as candidate biomarkers in DFU patient sera.

LncRNA-H19

Long noncoding RNA H19 has been established as a key regulator of programmed cell death and autophagy [94]. Recent evidence has emerged to suggest that H19 is downregulated in human mouse diabetic skin and elevated in exosomes from human hair follicle mesenchymal stem cells [95, 96]. Functionally, exosomal H19 appeared to promote wound repair promoting fibroblast proliferation through anti-inflammatory mechanisms that involved abrogation of pyroptosis, a form of programmed cell death mediated by the gasdermin family of pore-forming proteins [95-97]. This putative ability of H19 to dampen pyroptosis was associated with improved healing of diabetic mouse skin wounds through better re-epithelialisation and neovascularisation, and studies on HaCaT epidermal keratinocytes showcased suppression of the NLRP3, caspase-1, IL- β , and IL-18 axes of inflammation. However, it is not clear at present

if H19 levels are altered in exosomes from wound fluid, serum or plasma of patients with DFU or other chronic wounds. .

HOTAIR

HOTAIR (HOX Antisense Intergenic RNA) is a 2158 nucleotide lncRNA that was first identified in human fibroblasts following transcriptional profiling of the four HOX chromosomal loci present [98]. Mechanistically, HOTAIR was found to promote transcriptional silencing of chromosomal domains by Polycomb Repressive Complex 2-dependent H3K27 methylation [98]. Since then, multiple other roles have been established for HOTAIR, including serving as a ceRNA to sequester miRNAs as well as post-translational functions including ubiquitination and subsequent degradation of protein targets, as reviewed in [99]. In relation to wound healing, ethanol treatment was shown to boost the vascularization bioactivity of endothelial cell-derived EVs through mechanisms that included elevation of HOTAIR and MALAT1 within the EV cargo and downregulation of the anti-angiogenic miRNA miR-106b [100]. Additional evidence from the same group showed that HOTAIR overexpression in mesenchymal stem cells yielded EVs with raised HOTAIR levels to support wound healing in diabetic mice via increased angiogenesis [101]. HOTAIR expression increases after a burn injury in mouse skin and intradermal injections of HOTAIR-overexpressing epidermal stem cells promoted re-epithelialization and wound closure [102].

There is evidence in some contexts (laryngeal squamous cell cancer, acute myeloid leukaemia and liver fibrosis) that HOTAIR promotes methylation of phosphatase and TENsin homolog deleted on chromosome 10 (*PTEN*) by marshalling DNA Methyltransferase 3 beta expression [103-105]. The levels of such HOTAIR-dependent methylation of *PTEN* during wound healing have not been established to our knowledge but growing evidence links miRNA-mediated downregulation of PTEN to wound repair mechanisms [106-108].

Early studies considered the potential of serum-derived exosomal HOTAIR, in combination with exosomal miRNA-21, as candidate diagnostic and prognostic biomarkers for laryngeal squamous cell carcinoma [109]. Further investigations revealed HOTAIR elevation in urinary exosomes in bladder cancer [110], serum-derived EVs from lung cancer patients [111], colorectal cancer cell-derived exosomes [112] and in serum-derived exosomes from breast cancer patients, where HOTAIR levels appeared to have diagnostic and prognostic potential [113]. Together, these studies highlight the potential of HOTAIR as a biomarker

1 amenable to detection in liquid biopsies. However, the extent to which exosomal HOTAIR
2 levels vary in serum or wound fluid from patients with different types of complex wounds
3 compared to those whose wounds heal within a relatively short time frame has not been
4 established.

6 **Nuclear enriched abundant transcript**

7 Nuclear enriched abundant transcript 1 (NEAT1) lncRNAs include, a short isoform of 3.7 kb
8 (originally termed MEN ϵ , now known as NEAT1_1) and a large 23 kb which was initially known
9 as MEN β but is now called NEAT1_2 [114, 115]. This longer NEAT1_1 isoform has been
10 established as a central orchestrator of the assembly of paraspeckles, membraneless
11 organelles implicated in cancer, stress responses and developmental processes, as reviewed
12 in [116]. Elevation of NEAT1 has been implicated in multiple cancers, which mechanisms of
13 pathogenesis often associated with ceRNA effects of NEAT that lead to sequestration of
14 miRNA targets and subsequent elevation of various transcription factors and enzymes
15 associated with oncogenesis [117, 118].

16 There is evidence linking NEAT1 to angiogenesis as it downregulated in chronic DFU
17 compared to acute DFU, liberating miR-146 which in turn represses matG, an important
18 angiogenic transcription factor [119]. Depletion of NEAT1 was associated with impaired
19 endothelial cell migration and network formation. Notably, exosomal NEAT1 has been
20 reported in some contexts including serum-derived exosomes of rheumatoid arthritis
21 patients [120], cancer-associated fibroblasts [121] and endothelial cells under oxidative stress
22 [122]. However, NEAT1 has not been associated with exosomes from chronic wounds to our
23 knowledge.

25 **LncRNA A1BG-AS1**

26 A recent survey of lncRNA-mRNA coexpression network analysis in peripheral blood
27 monocytes identified 12 lncRNAs associated with inflammation in type 2 diabetes mellitus
28 (T2DM) peripheral blood monocytes [123]. In a subsequent study comparing serum levels of
29 lncRNA A1BG antisense RNA 1 (A1BG-AS1) in DFU, T2DM and control subjects (n = 77, 85 and
30 75, respectively), A1BG-AS1 was modestly (about 2-fold) upregulated in patients with DFUs
31 [65]. Close analysis revealed a correlation with fasting blood glucose, glycated hemoglobin

and Wagner grade scores when segregated into high versus low A1BG-AS1 serum levels [65]. Both univariate and multivariate analysis suggested A1BG-AS1 levels may have potential as a biomarker for predicting the risk of DFU in T2DM patients and quantifying severity of DFU [65]. High glucose was shown to raise A1BG-AS1 expression in human dermal fibroblasts and reduce miR-214 levels, but it remains to be seen whether this translates into A1BG-AS1-mediated effects of autocrine exosomal miR-214-3p-dependent angiogenesis reported early on by Verhaar and colleagues [124]. However, longitudinal studies are required to validate the potential utility of monitoring serum A1BG-AS1 levels in DFU patients.

LncRNA DLEU1

Deleted in Lymphocytic Leukaemia 1 (DLEU1) has been established as a cancer-associated lncRNA that is upregulated in various tumours [125]. Analysis of sera from 71 DFU patients and matched controls revealed a modest 1.5-fold increase in lncRNA DLEU1 expression in the DFU cohort. Unlike the above-mentioned study of lncRNA A1BG-AS1, the study on serum DLEU1 did not present deep analysis based on low *versus* high levels of lncRNA DLEU1 [66]. Nonetheless, there was some suggestion that serum lncRNA DLEU1 had biomarker potential for monitoring DFU. Functionally, lncRNA DLEU1 appeared to have an anti-angiogenic function based on studies of cultured endothelial cells but the impact of DLEU1 on wound-related angiogenesis *in vivo* has yet to be determined.

Notably, none of the above studies examined lncRNA in plasma or serum-derived sEV or in wound exudates. Hence there is likely to be more scope to uncover lncRNA biomarkers with prognostic value in managing chronic wound patients. On the other hand, circular RNAs may also be promising as chronic wound biomarkers, and we now consider their potential in that regard.

Circular RNAs: A Brief Background

Circular RNAs are ncRNAs characterized by their covalently closed-loop structure and absence of 5' cap and poly(A) tail typically found in linear RNAs [126]. Interest in circular RNAs has grown tremendously over the last decade but their discovery goes back to the 1970s, with the first report of circular RNA viroids that infect plant hosts by Kleinschmidt and colleagues [127] followed by observation of circular RNAs in HeLa cells by Hsu and Coca-Prados [128]. For

an elegant summary of the history of circRNAs, the reader is referred to a review by Kadener and colleagues [129]. The studies that moved circRNA from relative obscurity into the limelight emerged in 2013, when deep sequencing revealed their prevalence across human and other animal transcriptomes [130, 131] and their roles as competing endogenous RNAs that sequester miRNAs and thus reduce their availability to interact with target mRNA transcripts were defined [132, 133]. Interestingly, although primarily defined as non-coding RNA, evidence has emerged to show circRNA can be translated into protein [134-136].

Most circRNAs are derived from direct “back-splicing” of pre-mRNA exons though several other circRNAs have been defined based on the mechanism of biogenesis [137]. In any case, the circular structure of circRNAs renders them resistant to exonucleases, making them more stable than their linear counterparts. As a result, although their abundance tends to be low, they have emerged as promising biomarkers of disease, with high specificity and sensitivity [138, 139]. Further, a recent study of over 1000 human plasma samples, along with urine, bile and cerebrospinal fluid samples, revealed that circRNAs appeared to be preferentially sorted into EVs compared to linear RNAs, enabling functional enrichment [140]. Importantly, as with miRNA and lncRNA, circRNAs are also loaded into exosomes and have thus gained traction as novel biomarkers for cancer and other diseases [141-144].

Circular RNAs: Emerging Roles in Cutaneous Wound Healing

Recent studies have implicated circRNAs in both keratinocyte and fibroblast functions during wound repair [145-150]. Work from the Landén group on DFU [145] lay much of the foundation for understanding circRNA expression in chronic wounds. Wang, Landén and colleagues found that the expression of hsa_circ_0084443 (now known as circ_PRKDC) was reduced in normal wounds compared with intact skin, but expression of circ_PRKDC in DFUs was higher than in normal wounds [145]. Elevated circPRKDC may impair DFU by reducing keratinocyte migration via mechanisms in which circ_PRKDC sequesters miR-17-3p and miR-31, in turn modulating the activity of multiple pathways [145-147]. In an unrelated study that also used the Wang dataset as the starting point, Xiong and colleagues also found that a circRNA, circRNA-080968 was upregulated in DFU tissues compared to that of non-DFU wounds and its overexpression impaired keratinocyte migration [151]. Another circRNA implicated in wound repair is circCDK13, which was identified by analysis of the Wang dataset [145] followed by delineation of circRNAs depleted upon exposure of keratinocytes and fibroblasts to the advanced glycation end product-bovine serum albumin, to mimic the DFU environment [148]. CircCDK13 promoted the migration and proliferation of keratinocytes and

fibroblasts [148]. Notably, circCDK13 harboured N⁶-methyladenosine modifications that facilitated interactions with insulin-like growth factor 2 mRNA-binding protein 3, an important RNA-binding protein [148]. In addition, Landen and colleagues define the circRNA network in VLU and uncovered hsa-CHST15_0003 and hsa-TNFRSF21_0001 as upregulated circRNAs that appear to impair keratinocyte migration but boost proliferation, perhaps contributing to the pathologic hyperproliferation and impaired differentiation of keratinocytes at the wound edge in VLUs [152]. Interestingly, by segregating keratinocytes and fibroblasts prior to RNA sequencing, the Landén group also recently identified a bifunctional circRNA, CircGLIS3(2) that supports fibroblasts during wound repair [149]. The CircGLIS3(2) RNA stimulates ECM production while the 131-amino-acid protein encoded by CircGLIS3(2) enhances fibroblast proliferation via interactions with the transcription factor basic transcription Factor 3 [149]. Together, these studies showcase the importance of circRNAs in wound healing and raise the prospect of their being exploited as biomarkers in chronic wounds (Table 3).

Nevertheless, much remains to be done to establish the prognostic biomarker potential of circRNA in chronic wound exudates and in longitudinal contexts of healing versus non-healing wounds. For instance, there is some evidence that hsa_circ_0000907 and hsa_circ_0057362 in serum and serum-derived sEV may serve as potential biomarkers for early DFU diagnosis [153]. However, it is not clear if these circRNAs have prognostic value in predicting wound healing trajectories. Further, Bindereif and colleagues showed that circRNAs were associated with platelet-derived EVs [93]. It will therefore be interesting to uncover the circRNA landscape in platelet EVs at different stages of healing and non-healing wounds.

Conclusion

Are the most promising prospective cfRNA biomarkers to be found in wound fluid or in bloodborne EVs of serum and plasma? Can even less invasive liquid biopsies like saliva and urine provide cfRNA markers relevant to chronic wound management? In much the same way that wound fluid has been studied extensively to identify proteomic markers with prognostic value, attention should now be turned to defining the full RNA signatures of wound fluid and wound fluid-derived exosomes from a range of patients with diverse types of chronic non-healing wounds. Crucially, it will be important to compare healing and non-healing wounds to establish correlations between cfRNA expression and healing times in order to maximise the clinical relevance of such biomarker discovery programmes.

Critically, cfRNA alone may not suffice to achieve the high sensitivity and specificity crucial to ensure accurate identification of wound prognosis without false positives or false negatives. Hence, they will need to be integrated with other biomarkers, such as DFU

signatures from serum and plasma proteomics datasets [154-156]. Notably, a longitudinal study from Jozic and coworkers recently contrasted the proteomic profiles of chronic wounds using discarded wound dressings as a source of cells, EVs and soluble proteins and identified protein signatures that segregated healing from non-healing wounds [157]. Further, Veves and colleagues used a machine learning approach to identify serum proteins that delineated fast healing DFUs from slow healing ones [158]. Separately, metabolite profiling recently identified 402 small molecule metabolites in DFU exudates, though their predictive capabilities remain to be established [159]. Going forward, it will be interesting to exploit integrative approaches to connect cfRNA, protein and metabolite signatures to pathophysiological processes associated with chronic wounds datasets from the Veves and Landen laboratories [55, 152, 160, 161]. Such multi-omics integration promises to yield ever deeper insight into the molecular networks associated with chronic wounds. for sensitive biomolecular detection in clinical diagnostics.

Challenges remain in terms of standardising protocols for sample acquisition to support cfRNA and other biomarker profile studies, as has been outlined recently in relation to circulating miRNAs for cancer [162]. Nevertheless, there are exciting prospects for exploiting emerging biosensor technologies to real-world monitoring of cfRNAs in serum or exudates of chronic wound patients. These include a quantum-dot based triple sensor to detect lncRNA, miRNA and mRNA [163] and an upconversion nanoparticle-based lateral flow assay that was optimised for miR-21 detection [164]. Convergence of these and related technologies with machine learning algorithms [165] over the next few years will help shift cfRNA from the laboratory bench to clinical practice to improve patient outcomes.

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1 **Table 3:** Circular RNAs as potential biomarkers in wound healing

Condition	Sample	RNA	Sample size for validation	Ref.
DFU	Skin	hsa_circ_0084443* ↑ in DFU compared to NW (115 ↑ and 111 ↓ circRNAs in DFU vs. NWs)	19 DFU patients 8 healthy controls	[145]
DFU	Serum and Serum derived exosomes	hsa_circ_0000907 ↑ hsa_circ_0057362 ↑ in DFU compared to both controls and non-DFU	65 DFU patients 65 non-DFU DM patients 70 healthy controls	[153]
DFU	Skin	hsa_circRNA_072697 ↑ (25 ↑ and 40 ↓ circRNAs in DFU vs. NWs)	9 DFU patients 8 healthy controls	[166]
DFU	Skin	circRNA-80968 ↑ circRNA-081069 ↑ circRNA-100980 ↑ (515 ↑ and 615 ↓ circRNAs in DFU vs. NW)	37 DFU patients 16 non-DFU DM patients 18 healthy controls	[151]
VLU	Skin	hsa-TNFRSF21_0001 hsa-CHST15_0003	5 VLU patients 5 healthy controls	[152]
<p>*Now known as circ_PRKDC DFU, diabetic foot ulcer VLU, venous leg ulcer NW, normal wound circRNA, circular RNA</p>				

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Supplementary Information

Search Strategies for Tables 2 and 3

Searches were performed on PubMed between January and June 2025. Search terms included:

- circulating microRNA wound healing: 49 hits
- circulating microRNA diabetic foot ulcers: 10 hits
- circulating microRNA venous leg ulcers: 0 hits
- circulating microRNA arterial leg ulcers: 0 hits
- circulating microRNA pressure ulcers: 1 hit
- circulating microRNA surgical wounds healing by secondary intent: 0 hits
- exosomal microRNA biomarkers foot ulcers: 2 hits
- lncRNA diabetic foot ulcers NOT reviews: 37 hits.
- circulating lncRNA diabetic foot ulcers NOT reviews: 1 hit
- lncRNA exosomes wound healing skin: 17 hits
- circular RNA diabetic foot ulcers: 22 hits
- circulating circular RNA wound healing: 4 hits.
- circulating circular RNA diabetic foot ulcer: 0 hits
- exosome circular RNA wound fluid: 1 hit
- circular RNA wound fluid: 9

Review articles were excluded, and papers were hand searched by one author (KR) to select those most relevant.