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Leveraging the advancements in functional biomaterials and scaffold fabrication technologies for chronic wound healing applications

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1 **Mini Review**

2 **Leveraging the Advancements in Functional Biomaterials and Scaffold**
3 **Fabrication Technologies for Chronic Wound Healing Applications**

4
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13 **Keywords:** wound healing, biomaterials, chronic wounds, wound dressings, diabetic wound healing

14 **Abstract**

15 Exploring new avenues for clinical management of chronic wounds holds the key to eliminate
16 socioeconomic burdens and health-related concerns associated with this silent killer. Engineered
17 biomaterials offer great promise to repair and regenerate chronic wounds because of their ability to
18 deliver therapeutics, protect the wound environment, and support the skin matrices to facilitate tissue
19 growth. This mini review presents recent advances in biomaterial functionalities for enhancing wound
20 healing and demonstrates a move from sub-optimal methods to multi-functionalized treatment
21 approaches. In this context, we discuss the recently reported biomaterial characteristics such as
22 bioadhesiveness, antimicrobial properties, proangiogenic attributes, and anti-inflammatory
23 properties that promote chronic wound healing. In addition, we highlight the necessary mechanical
24 and mass transport properties of such biomaterials. Then, we discuss the characteristic properties of
25 various biomaterial templates, including hydrogels, cryogels, nanomaterials, and biomolecule-
26 functionalized materials. These biomaterials can be microfabricated into various structures, including
27 smart patches, microneedles, electrospun scaffolds, and 3D-bioprinted structures to advance the field
28 of biomaterial scaffolds for effective wound healing. Finally, we provide an outlook for the future while
29 emphasizing the need for their detailed functional behaviour and inflammatory response studies
30 under complex *in vivo* environment for superior clinical outcomes and reduced regulatory hurdles.

1 1. Introduction

2 Materials science has seen a drastic shift in paradigm recently, where the introduction of functional
3 biomaterials have substantially enhanced its applicability in the field of biomedicine [1]. The previously
4 sub-optimal designs have transitioned into biologically active materials capable of providing cues to
5 the host cells and manipulating the cellular microenvironment in unprecedented ways. Further,
6 various clinical challenges are present with the drug incorporated dressings, skin substitutes, topical
7 administration of insulin, antioxidants, skin glues, hyperbaric oxygen, and electrical stimulation
8 therapy to effectively heal chronic wounds. These dressings mainly cause infections, produce scar
9 contraction and pigmentations, and pose a substantial financial burden to the patient's pocket [2]–
10 [4]. With all these clinical challenges, one solution is to use functionalized biomaterials. These
11 bioactive biomaterials could have inherent antimicrobial, bioadhesive, anti-inflammatory and
12 proangiogenic properties, which help in producing promising results with minor complications in the
13 healing efficacy of chronic wounds. Also, these biologically active materials have tunable mechanical
14 properties, such as viscoelasticity, and stiffness, among others, that can decide the fate of the cellular
15 phenotypes [5]. Such mechanically relevant materials have also seen upgrades in the form of contact-
16 free remote exploitation, where external energy sources, such as light, sound, and magnetic and
17 electric fields, are frequently being employed to enhance the therapeutic effect of the platform [6]. In
18 the present context, we define functional biomaterials as biologically active substances that can (a)
19 host living cells, (b) carry therapeutically active components, and (c) can be upgraded to highly
20 programmable, remotely triggered, “smart” materials for drug delivery and tissue engineering-based
21 applications. The need for such biomaterials has become prominent in cases of chronic wound healing
22 where underlying causes, such as diabetes, alter the healthy physiological processes involved with
23 wound healing [7]. In chronic ulcer-based applications, where the wound fails to heal because of
24 various limitations including severe inflammation and lack of angiogenesis, wound dressings derived
25 from functional biomaterials provide superior therapeutic effects in contrast to their previously sub-
26 optimal counterpart [8], [9]. This is because such scaffolds have low moisture retention capacities and
27 can absorb limited amounts of the wound exudates, thereby increasing the chances of developing
28 infection at the wound bed [9]. Such scaffolds primarily include skin substitutes in the form of
29 autografts, allografts, and xenografts, which exhibit intense immune rejection [10], [11]. These
30 substitutes promote negligible cell-to-cell interactions and display weak adherence to cells and
31 biomolecules. Hence, they cannot effectively mimic the biological microenvironment and
32 functionalities of a healthy tissue site [12], [13]. Instead, this causes hindrance to the natural wound
33 healing process at the injured tissue region. Incorporating growth factors to these scaffolds have
34 shown early promising results [14]. However, unprotected growth factors undergo rapid enzymatic
35 degradation when delivered *in vivo* to the wounded site, where protease enzymes are abundantly
36 present [15]. Some of these growth factors also have a very short half-life that limits their potential
37 [16]. Due to all these limitations, such skin graft-based therapies, even when supplemented with
38 growth factors, have turned into a less desirable treatment for chronic wound healing [9].

39 Alternatively, tissue-engineered functional biomaterials provide a suitable protective environment to
40 the growth factors for their improved efficacy [17]. Furthermore, such functional biomaterials
41 containing active ions or therapeutic molecules help to accelerate the healing efficacy of the chronic
42 wound with negligible side effects. The primary role of such biomaterials in the treatment of non-
43 healing wounds is to augment the healing process by interacting with cells and supporting the wound

1 microenvironment [10]. These patches provide a platform for the controlled delivery of various wound
2 repair therapeutics, support matrices for cellular growth, and establish a barrier against infections.
3 Dressings developed from protein and sugar-based biopolymers have shown significant improvement
4 in the closure of chronic wounds. One such biocompatible and biodegradable polymeric material,
5 chitosan, derived from chitin, is a polysaccharide that possesses inherent antimicrobial properties
6 [18]. However, protein-based polymers, such as collagen, hyaluronic acid, and gelatin, provide a
7 favourable platform to interact with cells and present biomolecule binding structures [19]–[23].
8 Furthermore, their structural features offer excellent properties for loading wound healing drugs and
9 therapeutic nanomaterials. However, functional biomaterials derived purely from natural sources
10 show weak mechanical properties. This has led to the era of next generation designs that incorporate
11 various organic and inorganic nanomaterials within the polymeric matrices. This incorporation
12 functionalizes the natural dressings by improving their mechanical properties and promoting wound
13 healing by enhancing angiogenesis, accelerating reepithelization, and supporting the remodelling of
14 tissues [24]–[26]. Several parameters, including the size and shape of nanomaterials play a critical role
15 in determining their biological efficiency [27]. For instance, size and shape of nanomaterials influence
16 active substance delivery, determines the penetrability of the nanomaterials through the cell
17 membranes, and control cellular responses [27]. The nanomaterials can also provide biomaterials with
18 contact-free external stimuli-based responsiveness [28]. These smart dressings may also be loaded
19 with active biomolecules, such as DNA, cytokines, hormones, angiogenic factors, anti-inflammatory
20 drugs, genes, mRNA, and microRNA to supplement the bioactivity of the dressings [16], [29]–[31].
21 Such composite materials provide better cell adhesion, proliferation, and migration properties to
22 enhance the repairing process of chronic wounds.

23 Designing appropriate fabrication strategies to apply these functional biomaterials effectively at the
24 wound site is equally important for successful biomedical applications. Hydrogelation is one such
25 strategy where biomaterial-based polymers can be crosslinked to prepare biocompatible, water-
26 swellable, native tissue-mimicking three-dimensional (3D) constructs [32]. Hydrogelation can be
27 personalized by 3D bioprinting-based fabrication strategies, where the developed tissue constructs
28 can conform to the shapes of individual wounds [33]. However, the network structures formulated by
29 hydrogelation results in small pores, which are inefficient in transporting macromolecular solutes to
30 the core of the designed construct. Cryogelation is an alternative strategy where interconnected
31 macropores are generated, increasing nutrient transport and providing larger space for cell seeding
32 and migration [34]. Another fabrication strategy for applying biomaterials comes in the form of
33 microneedles [35]. Microneedles are applied frequently in immunobiological applications, drug
34 delivery, disease detection, and so on. Microneedles have also found use in chronic wound healing
35 systems where they help in retaining drug at constantly exuding wound beds [36]. **Figure 1** displays
36 various fabrication strategies along with the potential functionalities introduced by their biologically
37 derived constituents. Such novel systems hold tremendous potential in effectively treating chronic
38 wounds.

39 This mini review aims to report the latest technological advancement of functional biomaterials and
40 their fabrication strategies intended for healing chronic wounds. We explore the biomaterials
41 functionalities such as bioadhesiveness, antimicrobial characteristics, proangiogenic nature, and anti-
42 inflammatory properties to leverage the treatment and management of numerous complexities of the
43 chronic wound. Further, the importance of mechanical properties and mass transport properties of
44 these advanced biomaterials is highlighted here. Lastly, we discuss the modern trends in fabrication

1 strategies for applying new engineered, functional biomaterials, and highlight the potential concerns
2 that need to be addressed to improve their chances for translational success.

3 **2. Functional biomaterials with unique biological and mechanical properties**

4 Biomaterials play a vast role in providing a biologically active platform to the chronic wound
5 environment and facilitate the wound healing process by interacting with cells, extracellular matrices
6 (ECM), and multiple growth factors. Biomaterials can be derived and developed from natural or
7 synthetic polymers, ceramics, metals, or the combination of all [9], [37]. Specific considerations should
8 be taken to explore biomaterials based on the success of *in vivo* biocompatibility, biodegradation, and
9 stability assays. Advanced biomaterials bring in some unique functionalities such as bioadhesive,
10 antimicrobial, proangiogenic, and anti-inflammatory properties. These functionalities are important
11 for designing advanced chronic wound healing therapeutics.

12 **a. Bioadhesiveness.** Bioadhesive properties of biomaterials are an important consideration in
13 providing a robust wound healing environment because wounds often secrete mucus through mucous
14 membranes that are wet and slippery, limiting the ability of the dressing to adhere with the wound.
15 Various bioadhesive bandages have been developed to improve drug delivery to the wound site [38],
16 [39]. Chitosan and poly(acrylic acid) are among them and possess extensive mucoadhesive properties
17 [40], [41]. Adhesion to skin occurs when hydrogen bonds from poly(acrylic acid) react with the
18 mucosa, while negatively charged surfaces and cells interact electrostatically with positively charged
19 chitosan molecules [40], [41]. These mucoadhesive polymers have shown prolonged and sustained
20 drug delivery to the wound site [40], [41]. A gallic acid-modified chitosan-based wound dressing was
21 developed by *Sun et al.* for providing bioadhesiveness to the impaired wound [38]. The presence of
22 catechol groups and additional hydroxyl groups makes gallic acid a promising material for tissue
23 adhesive properties [38]. Interestingly Yuk et al. developed a double-sided tissue adhesive tape
24 provided with the biologically inspired dry crosslinking mechanism that can be used as a potential
25 tissue adhesive [42]. The tape was combined with gelatin, or chitosan attached with the crosslinked
26 chain of N-hydrosuccinimide ester grafted on polyacrylic acid. The designed tape can remove the
27 interfacial fluid from the surface and leads to temporary crosslinking with the tissue for enhancing the
28 adhesion ability and strength of the tape.

29 Our recently published work developed polydopamine-coated gelatin–alginate hydrogel as a binding
30 platform for bioactive molecules used for various tissue engineering applications [43]. Polydopamine
31 is extensively investigated as an adhesive material due to numerous catecholic amino acids in its
32 structure that binds them to various surfaces in both wet and saline conditions [43]–[45]. Further,
33 Mooney and his team developed bioinspired active adhesive dressings, shown in **Figure 2A**, illustrating
34 the firm adhesion of the hydrogel to the injured skin that was triggered by the changes of the skin
35 temperature, resulting in successful wound contraction [46]. Taken together, the bioadhesivity of
36 biomaterials provides suitable attachment to the skin and enhances the recovery of the affected
37 wound.

38 **b. Antimicrobial properties.** The nature of the diabetic wound environment promotes high chances
39 of wound infections because of high blood glucose levels. High levels of glucose reduce the proper
40 function of immune cells. The condition often leads to multiple pathogenic bacteria colonizing the
41 ECM and forming a complex biofilm [10]. 60-90% of diabetic wounds develop biofilms resulting in
42 chronic inflammation and delayed healing [47]. Various biomaterial-based antimicrobial wound

1 dressings have been developed to reduce the chances of getting an infection. Recently, Ding et al.
2 developed a polyurethane-based foam functionalized with different cationic groups
3 (poly(ethylenimine), poly(L-lysine), and chitosan) to present the antimicrobial potential [48]. The
4 designed platform showed good antimicrobial properties when tested against both gram-positive and
5 gram-negative bacteria [48]. Moreover, silver nanoparticles (AgNPs) have widely been used as an
6 antimicrobial agent for the treatment of chronic wounds [49]. They work by deactivating pathogenic
7 microorganisms by breaking disulfide bonds, which changes the tertiary structure of the proteins [50].
8 To summarize, multiple biomaterial-based fabrication techniques and therapeutics have been
9 developed to prevent chronic wounds from getting an infection or developing biofilms, thereby
10 increasing the chance of rapid healing of chronic wounds.

11 **c. Proangiogenic properties.** The lack of blood supply orchestrates poor vascularization in chronic
12 wounds resulting in reduced angiogenesis and becoming the leading cause for delayed healing of
13 chronic wounds. [51]. Growth factors have been commonly used as therapeutics to induce
14 angiogenesis in chronic wounds. One of the main limitations associated with growth factors is their
15 instability and cost [15], [16]. Alternatively, biomaterials show a more promising approach by releasing
16 ions or molecules that may enhance angiogenesis in the complex and poorly healing chronic wound
17 environment [52], [53]. Silica-based nanocomposite hydrogels have recently shown highly angiogenic
18 and antimicrobial properties that are promising for chronic wound healing [54]. Further, europium
19 oxide nanorods were reinforced in a nanocomposite hydrogel for skin regeneration [52]. At low
20 concentrations, these nanorods enhance the activity of reactive oxygen species both *in vitro* and *in*
21 *vivo*, leading to providing the pro-angiogenic potential to the material [55]. Also, such nanomaterials
22 show anti-inflammatory responses, accelerating wound healing in a mouse skin defect model [52]. In
23 addition, nitric oxide (NO) has been used as a potent mediator encapsulated into composite
24 biomaterials to leverage its angiogenic potential to enhance chronic wound healing [53], [56]. The
25 endothelial nitric oxide synthase or eNOS pathway stimulates the proliferation and migration of
26 endothelial cells needed for the angiogenic process, which is essential for the healing and regeneration
27 of impaired wounds [53], [56]. Such advanced approaches exhibit tremendous potential for high
28 angiogenesis, thereby providing superior healing efficacy for chronic wounds.

29 **d. Anti-inflammatory properties.** Anti-inflammatory cues to the wound have been researched via
30 various strategies, including but not limited to the delivery of anti-inflammatory drugs,
31 endogenous/exogenous production of NO synthase, promotion of antioxidant activity, and activating
32 immune regulation. The inflammation in chronic wounds results in intense pain to the patient, causing
33 severe complications to wound healing. Biomaterial-derived anti-inflammatory therapeutics have
34 attracted much attention to improving the recovery of chronic wounds. For instance, biomaterial-
35 based therapy may achieve controlled and responsive release of various inflammatory inhibition drugs
36 [57]. Interestingly, sericin has demonstrated excellent anti-inflammatory properties that have been
37 recently used in a composite hydrogel for developing an effective wound dressing [58]. Sericin reduces
38 inflammatory cell levels, which promotes anti-inflammatory efficacy, thereby accelerating the wound
39 healing process [59]. Most biomaterials possess more than one bio-functionality. For example, in
40 **Figure 2B**, polydopamine-modified graphene oxide (GDPE) hybrid hydrogels were fabricated to show
41 proangiogenic, anti-inflammatory, and antimicrobial properties [60]. The developed GDPE composite
42 hydrogels reduced inflammation and stimulated M2 polarization of macrophages in diabetic wounds
43 [60]. Therefore, various biomaterial platforms based on anti-inflammatory responses have been

1 researched to provide a practical approach for inflammatory wounds to promote healing in chronic
2 models.

3 Briefly, **Table 1** shows the functionalities of various biomaterials. All such beneficial biological
4 functionalities must be paired with the appropriate mechanical cues to form next generation chronic
5 wound healing platforms, discussed in the following section.

6 **e. Mechanical properties.** The selection of mechanically robust biomaterial characteristics, including
7 excellent stretchability, toughness, and high fatigue resistance for developing wound patches may
8 hold significant importance in the healing potential of chronic wounds. In the case of healthy skin, the
9 characteristic range of Young's modulus is between 56.8 to 141 MPa [61]. In addition, the
10 stretchability of human skin is between 20% to 180% [61]. Numerous biomaterial-derived dressings
11 have shown superior stretchability and toughness that can hold the possibility to mimic the native
12 healthy skin environment and repair chronic wounds. The mechanical properties of such biomaterials
13 are enhanced mainly by combining two or three materials such as polymers, ceramics, and metals. For
14 example, chitosan hydrogels were enforced with silver nanoparticles to gain extensive mechanical
15 properties and support wound structure [62]. Here, chitosan served as a chelating agent to interact
16 with silver ions through a coordination complex to gain ultra-high mechanical strength [62].

17 It has been demonstrated that the stretchability and toughness of healthy skin depend on age and
18 anatomical location [63]. Primarily the skin is composed of collagen and elastin, among other
19 components [63]. So, in the case of chronic wounds, the distribution and ratio among these
20 components become distorted. The structure appears tough but is more susceptible to damage.
21 During this stage, biomaterials may help regenerate the skin by mimicking the parameters and
22 behaviour of native skin. Moreover, the stiffness of the biomaterial is an important parameter because
23 it is stress/strain dependent. If the pressure on the hydrogel becomes too high, it causes mechanical
24 failure and ultimately breaks the hydrogel [64]. The stiffness of hydrogels should be equal to or higher
25 than the forces within the biological system to accelerate the wound healing mechanism. Thus, these
26 mechanical properties of biomaterials are highly desirable in designing a dressing for promoting
27 chronic wounds.

28 The mass transport properties of biomaterials are also significant, specifically for diabetic wound
29 healing. During the angiogenesis phase, the distribution of cell nutrients and oxygen is vitally
30 dependent on the biomaterial diffusion kinetics. The diffusion of these essential components depends
31 on the porosity and permeability of the biomaterials. However, when enough oxygen and nutrients
32 cannot reach the deep structure of biomaterials, the cells undergo necrosis and programmed cell
33 death [65]. In a recently published report, the authors use an advanced numerical processing
34 software, COMSOL Multiphysics, to determine a porous biomaterial's mass transport characteristics
35 [66]. Primarily the governing equation of Navier-Stokes is implemented in developing a computation
36 fluid dynamics (CFD) model for determining the mass transport characteristics of the biomaterials
37 [66].

$$38 \quad \rho \frac{\partial v}{\partial t} - (v \times \nabla)v + \frac{1}{\rho} \nabla P - \mu \nabla^2 - F = 0$$

$$39 \quad v \times \nabla = 0 \quad (1)$$

40 Where ρ is the density of the background fluid, v fluid velocity, μ dynamic viscosity coefficient, P stands
41 for pressure while ∇ is the del operator and F represents force. Other than mass transport, the

1 biomaterials' rheological characteristics, especially for hydrogels, are widely studied to determine the
2 viscosity, storage, loss, and compression modulus. For example, understanding shear-rheology helps
3 in designing injectable biomaterials. Therefore, information on both mass transport phenomena and
4 rheological properties are critical for preparing biomaterials for diabetic wound healing.

5 For decades, the conventional method for tuning the mechanical, mass transport and rheological
6 properties have been implemented by trial and error in the lab. However, this is both laborious and
7 expensive. The advancement of COMSOL-like processing tools and artificial intelligence (AI)
8 technology through deep machine learning has opened a new way to predict and learn biomaterial
9 behaviour in advance. The technology has already shown promising results in bioinformatics and
10 biomedicine [67]. Further, AI has been used in combination with *in vitro* and *in vivo* data along with
11 clinical trial results to predict the pharmacokinetics and pharmacodynamics of the drugs in the
12 designed model, mainly in the case of drug discovery [68]. Although the field is still in its infancy, Han
13 and co-workers have used the Fuzzy neural network-based deep machine learning program to predict
14 and develop high-strength titanium and aluminium alloys [69]. Such AI-based predictions of
15 physicochemical properties will pave the path to novel physiologically relevant biomaterials.

16 **3. Various scaffold fabrication strategies: implications in wound healing**

17 Non-healing chronic wounds place a significant burden on healthcare systems as well as individual
18 patients. These wounds, especially diabetic wounds, will ultimately lead to compromised mobility,
19 amputation, and sometimes death. The main problem with sub-optimal traditional dressings is that
20 the patient suffers from severe pain when removing the bandages from the wounds, which worsens
21 the wound health and increases inflammation to the site, hampering the healing process [70]. **Figure**
22 **3** has been developed to provide a comprehensive view of the material constituents, various
23 therapeutics, and the functional properties for wound healing scaffolds.

24 Over time, a wide variety of wound dressings have been developed with the potential to detect the
25 wound healing percentage in a real-time manner that helps to apply the suitable treatment efficiently.
26 These versatile, intelligent wearable dressings may contain numerous optical components that enable
27 fluorescence, colorimetry, and electrical impedance. These mechanisms are mounted onto the
28 conventional wound bandage substrates to form smart wound dressings to sense and transfer the
29 data from biomarkers at the wound site to generate electrical signals for applying suitable actions [9].
30 These dressings are smart enough to identify bacterial films because of the presence of bacterial
31 infection markers dependent on pH, temperature, toxins, and secreted enzymes. Further, it can
32 release impregnated particles or molecules to the wound bed in a controlled fashion [9]. For example,
33 Ochoa et al. designed a low-cost paper-based innovative, flexible real-time continuous oxygen-
34 generating and sensing patch for a wound bed to enhance wound healing. The designed platform
35 detected oxygen in a range of 5-26 ppm leading to a promising technique for developing smart diabetic
36 wound patches [71].

37 To incorporate such innovative properties, a new class of advanced wound dressings must be
38 developed to monitor the healing process and reduce the current limitations associated with healing,
39 simultaneously. Natural and synthetic polymers or their composites have been used in different
40 techniques, including membranes, foams, hydrogels, cryogels, nanofibers, nanomaterials,
41 microneedles, and 3D bioprinting as wound healing scaffolds or dressings. The key to selecting the
42 above techniques depends on the type, depth, extent of damage to the wound, and prevention of

1 wound exudates and infections to the wound site. The idea is to mitigate the limitations related to the
2 traditional dressings and provide a better moist environment to the wound and enhance the healing
3 process.

4
5 **a. Membranes.** Membranes or films are also used as a wound dressing. They are usually composed of
6 thin and transparent adhesive sheets of one or different combinations of biopolymers. Membranes
7 provide suitable permeability for gas and water vapours, however being impermeable to fluid and
8 bacteria. This mechanism helps in protecting the wound against water loss and invasion of
9 microorganisms. Membranes serve as a good wound dressing material, but they do not possess
10 enough swelling properties. As a result, it develops excess exudate to the wound site and may cause
11 a reason for infection [72]. However, it can be encapsulated with anti-infection therapeutics and drugs
12 to alleviate the limitations. Further, the fabrication technique is cost-effective and produces a large
13 yield of membranes in a short time. Also, membranes can be easily used to achieve the desired
14 bioadhesive properties by selecting appropriate functionalized biomaterial. Therefore, membranes
15 are being considered as a potential technique for developing effective wound healing scaffolds.

16
17 **b. Hydrogels and Cryogels.** In this context, hydrogels and cryogels have become one of the most
18 attractive and promising wound dressings because of their considerable moisture retention,
19 biocompatibility, biodegradability, and therapeutic properties [53], [73], [74]. They are of great
20 interest in wound healing applications and are composed of the 3D macromolecular structure of
21 crosslinked polymer network. Hydrogels are highly hydrophilic and can retain a large amount of
22 aqueous medium while keeping their form intact. It keeps the wound surface moist and acts as a
23 carrier for cells and therapeutics. The physical characteristics of hydrogels provide continuous and
24 flexible nano/micro-structures, good swelling capabilities, and are easy to mould into different shapes
25 [73], [75]. Several investigators have proposed various strategies and formulations for making
26 hydrogels based on the type of biomaterials [53], [73]. However, a few limitations need to be
27 overcome before upscaling the use of hydrogels, including the costly and lengthy synthesis of the gels
28 and the potential involvement of hazardous crosslinking materials. Lastly, the scaffolding technique
29 of hydrogel can be leveraged to gain good bioadhesive, antimicrobial, proangiogenic and anti-
30 inflammatory properties when the adequate functional biomaterial is selected. Overall, hydrogels
31 have emerged as a promising scaffold method for chronic wound applications.

32
33 **c. Nanofibers.** Nanofibers are another highly attractive group of scaffolds implemented in chronic
34 wound healing. Their nanostructure resembles the extracellular matrix (ECM) and thus helps cells
35 grow and mimic the native tissue environment [16]. However, the preparation strategies must ensure
36 the complete and safe removal of the inorganic solvents that are used for synthesizing the scaffolds.
37 Any remaining traces of the solvents in the porous structure of the scaffold may adversely affect the
38 cells and tissues. Overcoming the challenges, studies have been reported that highlight the potential
39 of nanofiber dressings for drug loading and controlled release [16], [19], as well as protein and genetic
40 material delivery [76], [77]. In addition, the nanofiber's mesh sizes and pore diameter can be easily
41 tuned to attain the desired drug delivery rate to the wound [16]. Hence, the characteristic properties
42 of nanofibers hold an excellent potential to be used as a wound healing scaffold.

43
44 **d. Nanomaterials and nanoparticles.** Nanomaterials have several properties that offer unique
45 advantages for chronic wound healing applications. Their small size, large surface to volume ratio,

1 biocompatibility, and ability to encapsulate a variety of molecules make them excellent drug delivery
2 vehicles for the delivery of therapeutics for chronic wound healing [78]. In addition, many of these
3 nanomaterials are stable, biodegradable, tuneable, and versatile [79]. Some examples of such
4 nanomaterial drug delivery vehicles that have been studied and used for the controlled release of
5 drugs are polymeric nanoparticles, liposomes, and micelles. While these materials are used to
6 encapsulate and deliver the bioactive agent and are typically incorporated in a scaffold, several other
7 nanomaterials themselves have properties that play a direct role in wound healing. A number of
8 inorganic nanoparticles have shown antibacterial activity, an important factor for chronic wound
9 healing. Silver nanoparticles are the most prominent antibacterial nanoparticles; however, gold,
10 titanium dioxide, and terbium oxide nanoparticles have also been used [78], [80], [81]. Copper
11 nanoparticles, in addition to having antimicrobial properties, are also bioactive and have been shown
12 to regulate the biological processes of wound healing in favour of improved treatment [82]. However,
13 one limitation of inorganic nanoparticles is their potential to cause an immunogenic response. To
14 overcome it, another class of nanomaterials being explored are derived from natural sources. An
15 example is exosomes. Exosomes are nanosized vesicles secreted by cells. Exosomes from stem cells
16 have been successfully used to promote favourable wound healing processes such as angiogenesis,
17 collagen synthesis, and recruitment of several factors [83], [84]. The results from several *in vitro* and
18 *in vivo* studies have shown that nanomaterials can successfully be used to treat chronic wounds [80],
19 [82]–[84].

20
21 **e. Microneedles Array.** The other promising approach is through microneedle technology which
22 pierces the outermost layer of the skin, the stratum corneum. The stratum corneum constitutes an
23 impenetrable barrier to hydrophilic or high molecular weight drugs. These drugs or molecules can only
24 be delivered into or through the skin if any of the few available methods disrupt the barrier function
25 of the stratum corneum. The microneedle arrays have emerged as a promising minimally invasive
26 method that can bypass the skin's stratum corneum and allow for the sustained delivery of wound
27 healing drugs at a predetermined distance within the skin [85]. They are composed of a network of
28 microneedles fabricated from silicon, metal, or polymeric material. For example, in **Figure 4A**, shark
29 tooth inspired microneedles were developed by integrating with an intelligent wound management
30 system. The *in vivo* results on diabetic mouse models present the completely healed wound area
31 among other groups [85]. Given this example, microneedles can painlessly puncture the epidermis,
32 thereby making microscopic pores through which wound healing drugs can quickly diffuse through to
33 reach the tissue microenvironment and facilitate the wound healing process. However, a limitation of
34 microneedles that needs to be considered for therapeutics and bioactive molecules delivery for
35 wound healing is that the thickness of the skin layer varies from patient to patient. Therefore, the
36 penetration depth of the microneedles could widely vary, leading to broad anomalies in delivering
37 therapeutics and drugs.

38
39 **f. 3D bioprinting.** 3D bioprinting is among the latest techniques that combines living cells, growth
40 factors, biomolecules and biomaterials in a controlled manner to print complex 3D constructs [86].
41 Bioprinting in recent years has advanced the development in healthcare areas such as personalized
42 prosthetics, implants, and tissue regeneration [86]–[88]. 3D bioprinted hydrogels show low
43 mechanical strength and, therefore, would require frequent dressing changes resulting in the
44 potential to lower patient compliance. However, in contrast to other dressing fabrication techniques,
45 bioprinting is (i) more precise, (ii) provides incredible flexibility in the manufacturing process, and (iii)

1 delivers a much faster and reproducible construction of the desired scaffold to the affected wound.
2 For example, collagen has been used frequently as a bioink to develop wound healing scaffolds [89].
3 As shown in **Figure 4B**, Xiaoxue et al. designed a 3D printed bionic hydrogel fabricated using
4 carboxymethyl cellulose/ ϵ -polylysine (CP) cured via UV irradiation [90]. The wound healing effect of
5 the developed hydrogel dressing was examined on the full thickness infected rat skin defect model.
6 The chosen printing technique of hydrogel with the respective biomaterial shows significant wound
7 closure compared to the commercial dressing (Tegaderm™ film). Hence, 3D bioprinting techniques
8 have exhibited a promising approach for wound management and can be further leveraged to
9 enhance the wound healing process in chronic patients.

10 **4. Conclusions and Outlook**

11 Biomaterials have progressed rapidly in regenerative therapy and have become an integral part of
12 chronic wound healing. However, despite the promising advancement in the field, several challenges
13 are yet to be overcome. Although derived from natural sources containing biological cues for
14 favourable cellular interaction, many natural biocompatible materials hold weak mechanical
15 properties and are prone to rapid degradation. Novel mechanical reinforcement strategies, such as
16 the addition of nanomaterials or the formation of interpenetrating polymeric networks, are being
17 developed to address these limitations. Another challenge lies in the heterogeneity in patients, leading
18 to variability in therapeutic outcomes. More patient-specific approaches must be undertaken to
19 overcome this problem and improve the clinical relevance of the designed scaffolds. 3D bioprinting is
20 an excellent tool for such personalization, where patient-specific stem cells can be used to print
21 bandages catering to the needs of the wound [91]. Along with addressing these issues, a new wave of
22 composite biomaterials is being designed, which brings in unique functionalities including
23 antimicrobial and anti-inflammatory properties, among others, to this therapeutic platform. As a
24 result, such a quickly expanding area of research needs critical analysis and insightful commentary to
25 improve the translational potential of the fabricated biomaterials. This demand in literature has led
26 us to write this mini review, where we have provided the readers with state-of-the-art strategies that
27 are being implemented to fabricate multifunctional bioactive biomaterials for chronic wound repair.
28 Here, we also predict the diverse biomaterials that have immense potential to excel in the upcoming
29 decade.

30 External stimuli-responsive biomaterials are such new-age candidates in wound healing applications.
31 Stimuli-responsive biomaterials may promote the wound healing mechanism in a variety of ways.
32 Biomaterials with external stimuli cues such as photo and electrical stimulation, ultrasound, and
33 magnetic field triggers can transduce an external energy source into a signal for cells in the
34 physiological environment. They can be controlled temporally and spatially, which in turn enables
35 precise control over the cellular response. For example, piezoelectric polymers can be potential
36 biomaterials that respond to generate an electrical charge by applying mechanical stress. This
37 electrical charge helps to promote fibroblast and keratinocyte proliferation and migration and
38 expedites collagen deposition, angiogenesis, and re-epithelialization [92]. In addition, photothermal
39 cues from biomaterials have also gained substantial attention in antimicrobial applications due to
40 deep tissue penetration, remote triggering, and non-invasiveness [93]. These photothermal
41 biomaterials may be composed of metallic and non-metallic nanomaterials, carbon-based
42 nanomaterials, or organic dye, among others [94], [95]. Recently Yunlong et al. developed a stimuli-
43 responsive photothermal cryogels for wound healing [93]. In another work, Ninan et al., developed
44 composite hydrogel loaded tannic acid/ferric ion works as a photothermal agent stimulated via near-

1 infrared radiation to kill the bacteria in the microenvironment [96]. Overall, external stimuli-
2 responsive biomaterials hold significant importance in terms of the healing of a chronic wound.

3 Another interesting approach is designing an inflammatory-responsive scaffold. It is well known that
4 untreated or prolonged inflammatory reactions can be a reason for the delayed healing of chronic
5 wounds. In normal conditions, these inflammatory responses deliver cytokines that alter the
6 phenotype of macrophages from pro-inflammatory to anti-inflammatory polarization [97]. Nitin and
7 his team developed a flare-responsive hydrogel for the treatment of inflammatory arthritis. They used
8 a triglycerol monostearate (TG-18) hydrogel, which can disintegrate in response to enzymatic activity
9 in inflammatory milieu [98]. In addition, corticosteroid triamcinolone acetonide (TA) was used as a
10 model drug that was encapsulated within the TG-18 hydrogel. This drug-loaded hydrogel activates in
11 response to arthritis-related enzyme activity [98]. Their results showed that the flare responsive
12 hydrogel was disassembled successfully in a mouse model and emerged as a next-generation drug
13 delivery platform for treating inflammation. This idea can be used to treat prolonged inflammation of
14 chronic wounds that may efficiently circumvent the issues related to inflammation. Lastly, the
15 alteration of cytokines through inflammatory responsive biomaterials may help recover the healing in
16 chronic wound models.

17 Aside from altering and leveraging biomaterials functionalities and other bioactive compounds for
18 wound healing, another promising approach is to use gene-editing technology via clustered regularly
19 interspaced short palindromic repeat (CRISPR)-associated protein (Cas9) technology for the treatment
20 of chronic wounds at genetic levels. The technology has already shown proof of concept over
21 developing nuclease-responsive hydrogels that can be engineered to deliver bioactive molecules,
22 nanomaterials, and cells [99], [100]. For example, English et al. developed a stimuli-responsive DNA
23 hydrogel based on CRISPR technology that responds to associated programmable nucleases. The
24 designed biomaterial attained rapid and sensitive cues to Cas enzymes and enhanced the modularity
25 of DNA hydrogels [99]. Overall, the technology provides untapped opportunities in the field of tissue
26 engineering and regenerative medicine.

27 Although material engineers have been able to successfully increase the functionality and complexity
28 of various biomaterials for diverse biomedical applications, we would like to emphasize here that close
29 attention should be given to properly understand the immunological response, mass transport and
30 biodegradation properties of such new biomaterials to maximize their translatability into the clinic
31 and avoid regulatory and economic hurdles. One of the significant issues for the clinical translation of
32 biomaterials is the foreign body response. It is a slow onset process, and the test of new devices or
33 technologies for longer trials remains a significant challenge. Consequently, avoiding the process and
34 implantation of a device without promising results may turn the body to severe fibrotic responses
35 [101]. One solution is to play around with the surface properties of biomaterials that can be tuned
36 with the patient's DNA, protein, or cells in modulating and eliminating the foreign body cues. The
37 target is to generate non-cytotoxic materials that evoke a minimal immune response. Another concern
38 for biomaterial translation into the clinic is scaffold vascularization. For example, a prefabricated
39 biomimetic vascular scaffold may provide the angiogenic molecules and can promote angiogenesis at
40 the site. However, they may exhibit limited abilities of conjunction with the host vascular network
41 [102]. The adhesion of ligands and advanced therapeutics to the scaffold with spatial control of
42 biophysical and biochemical responses may help to circumvent this gap. Also, the pharmacokinetics
43 and pharmacodynamics of the biomaterial need to be explicitly addressed for small molecules to

1 ensure adequate bioactivity and timely excretion. On the other hand, the evolving technology of omics
2 and machine learning may help decrease the challenge associated with the safe design of the material
3 and conduct various risk assessments before its implementation [103]. Additionally, with the ongoing
4 development of biomaterials properties, AI-based technology may be used to envisage further and
5 predict the promising potential of biomaterials.

6 In conclusion, our mini-review discusses the latest multi-functional, stimuli-responsive, bioactive
7 materials and their fabrication technologies for chronic wound healing applications. A thorough
8 understanding of the underlying mechanisms by which these biomaterials improve the healing
9 process will enhance their translational potential.

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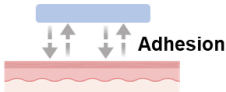
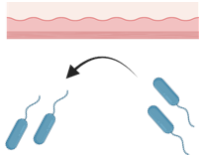
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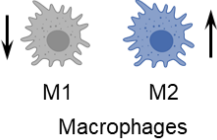
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Table 1: Examples of biomaterials developed as therapeutics for diabetic wound healing applications.

Functionalities	Biomaterials	Nanoparticles/Therapeutics	Biomaterial-therapeutic and/or Biomaterial-nanoparticle Interaction	Types of scaffolds	Testing Model	References
Bio adhesive properties 	Poly (acrylic acid)	Salicylamide	N/A	Hydrogel	Intestinal Pig (Yorkshire) mucosa	[41]
	Gelatin-Alginate	Dexamethasone	$\pi - \pi$ interaction	Hydrogel	Sprague-Dawley (female) rats	[43]
	Polydopamine	Hemoglobin Nanoparticles	Covalent & Non-covalent interactions	Polydopamine coated hemoglobin nanoparticles	N/A	[44]
Antimicrobial 	Polyurethane	imidazolium	Ionic	Foam	BALB/c (male) mice	[48]
Proangiogenic	Hyaluronic Acid-alendronate	Europium Oxide Nanorods	Coordination Interactions	Hydrogel	Female mice	[52]

	Polyethylene glycol diacrylate (PEGDA)	Bioactive Glass Nanoparticles containing copper and sodium alginate	Photocrosslinking	Hydrogel	Male ICR mice	[54]
	Chitosan-poly(vinyl alcohol)	S-nitroso-N-acetyl-DL-penicillamine (SNAP)	Physical encapsulation	Hydrogel	Fertilized Chicken Egg (<i>Gallus domesticus</i>)	[53]
<p>Anti-inflammatory</p> 	Diphenylalanine–dilysine (FFKK-OH)	Steroidal and non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (NSAIDs)	Hydrogen Bonding	Hydrogel	N/A	[57]
	Tannic Acid-Carboxylated agarose	Tannic Acid	Ionic Interactions	Hydrogel	N/A	[96]
	Poly(vinyl alcohol)/Chitosan/Silk sericin	Tetracycline	Physical encapsulation	Nanofibers	BALB/c (Male) mice	[58]
	Silk sericin	N/A	N/A	Hydrogel	Db/db mice	[59]

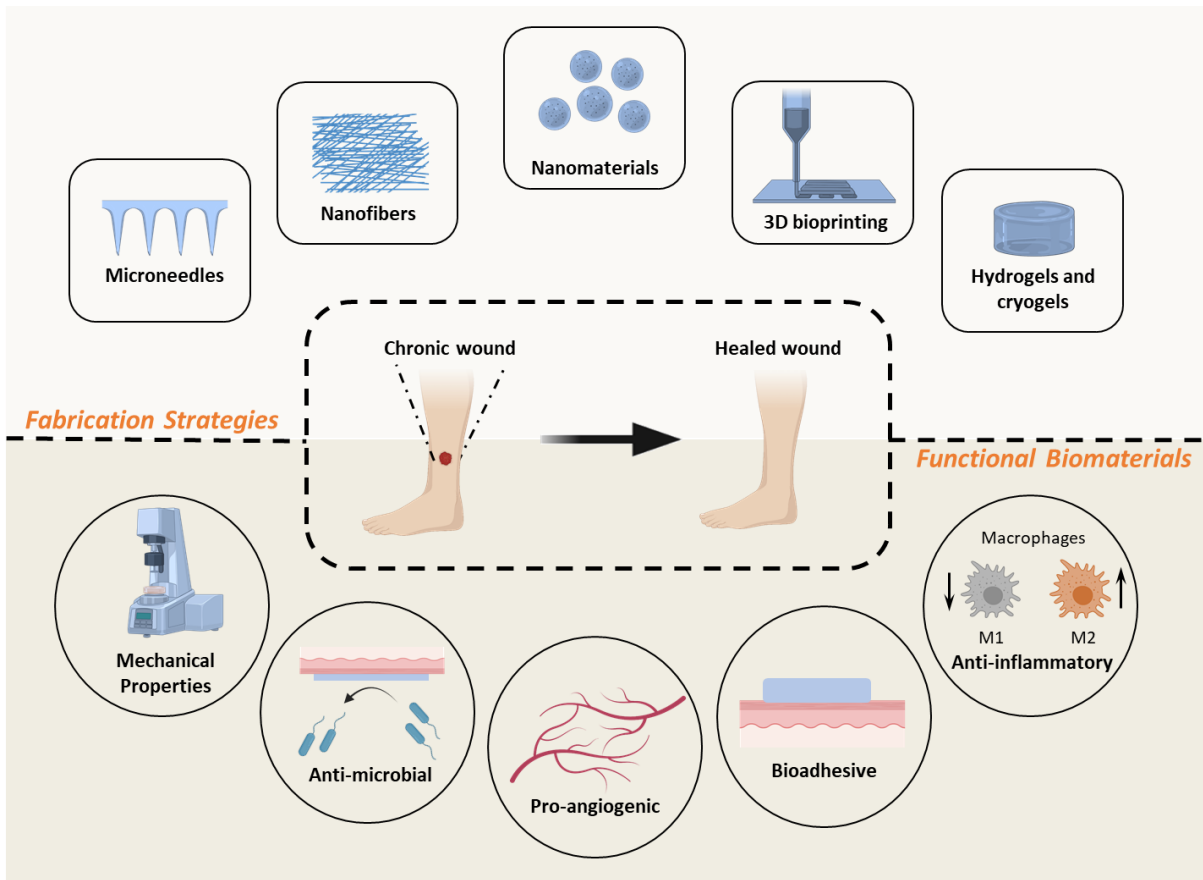


Figure 1: Overview of engineered biomaterial design functionalities along with the developed fabrication techniques to improve and enhance the wound healing process in patients with chronic wounds.

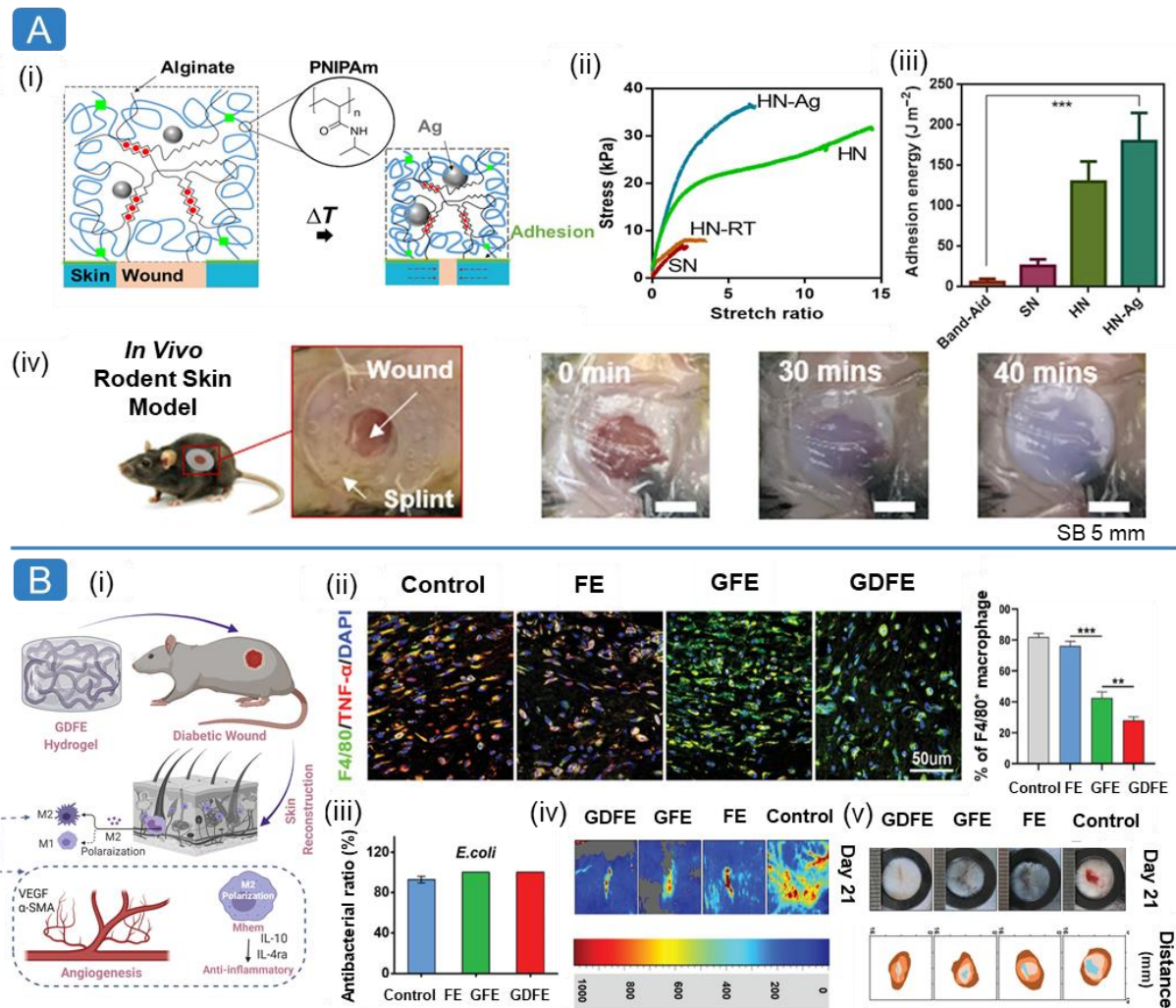


Figure 2: Schematics of highly adhesive hydrogels loaded with antimicrobial, anti-inflammatory, proangiogenic, and mechanical properties to accelerate chronic wound closure. A) Shows bioinspired active adhesive dressing; (i) Hydrogel designed with PNIPAm, alginate, and AgNPs illustrate wound contraction achieved by the firm adhesion of the hydrogel to the wound, which was triggered by the skin temperature; (ii-iii) Stress-strain curves of the designed hydrogel along with the graph of adhesion energy calculated on porcine skin revealed AgNP-laden hybrid hydrogel possessed strong adhesion energy compared to Band-Aid; (iv) *In vivo* results display that the skin temperature was triggering the adhesion of dressing to the wound which in turn accelerated the wound closure. Reproduced with permission [46] under permission of a creative commons license. B) (i) Displays polydopamine-modified GO (GDFE) hybrid hydrogel functionalized with proangiogenic, anti-inflammatory, and antimicrobial properties (recreated with BioRender.com); (ii) The developed GDFE hydrogel have reduced the inflammation and stimulated M2 polarization of macrophages on day 7 in diabetic wounds shown using F4/80 and TNF- α staining; (iii) Antimicrobial properties tested against *Escherichia coli* exhibited a broad spectrum of antibacterial activity of the hydrogels; (iv) Laser doppler scanned images of blood vessel flow and signal intensity on diabetic wound sites on day 21 shows that GDFE hydrogel possessed the highest level of blood flow among all groups; (v) *In vivo* results of diabetic induced mice model demonstrated accelerated wound contraction on day 21 with the GDFE hydrogel in comparison with the other groups. Reproduced with permission [60] Copyright 2021, Wiley-VCH GmbH.

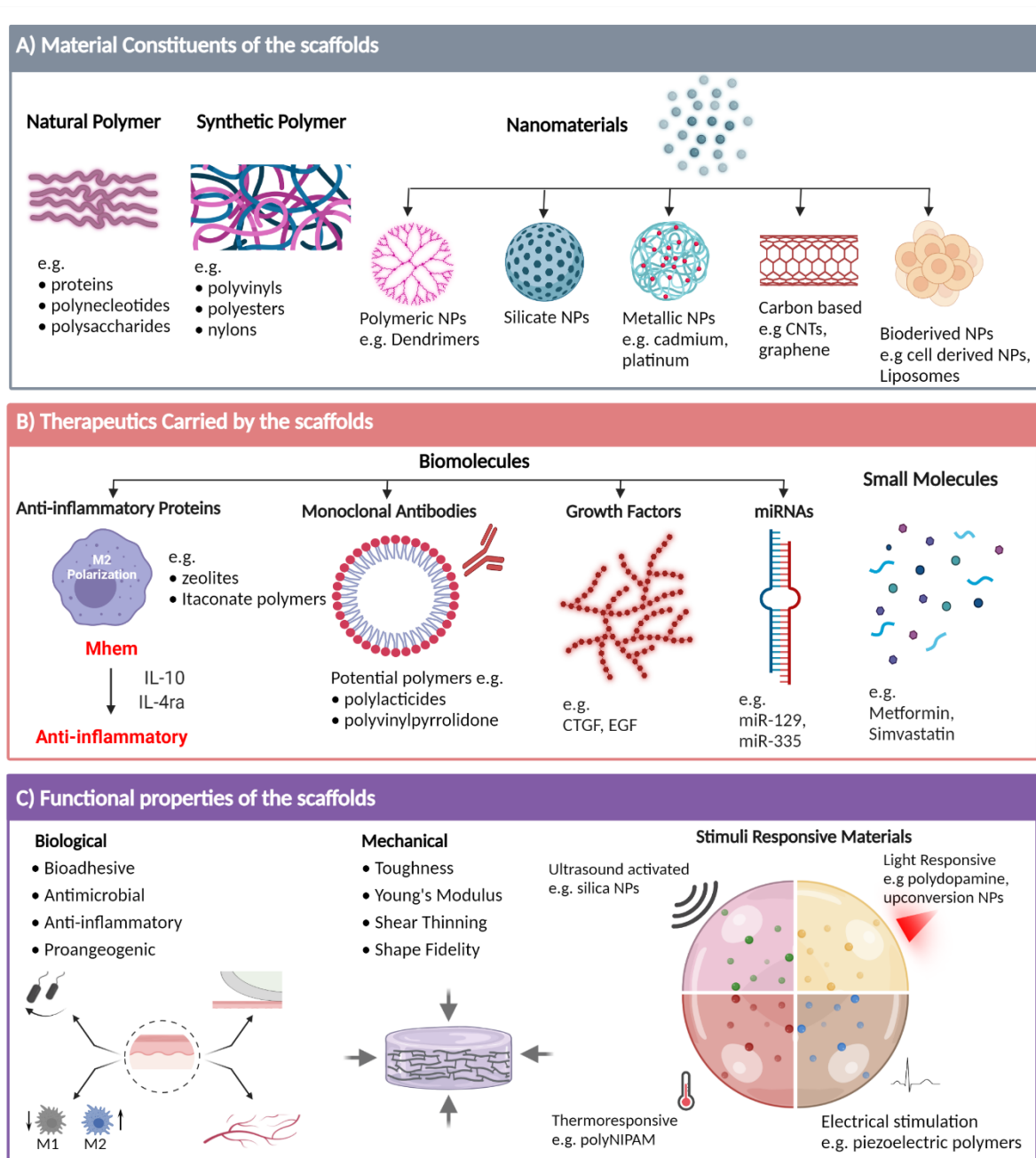


Figure 3: Simplified representation of material constituents, therapeutics, and the functional properties of the scaffolds. A) Wide range of natural and synthetic polymers and nanomaterials have been used as a constituent for developing wound healing scaffolds. B) Showcase various therapeutics such as multiple biomolecules and small molecules delivered through scaffolds. C) Functional properties of the scaffolds have been shown here, including biological, mechanical, and stimuli-responsive material characteristics specifically for chronic wound healing. Furthermore, various stimulants, such as light and ultrasound, among others, which are used for wound healing-based applications, have been highlighted here.

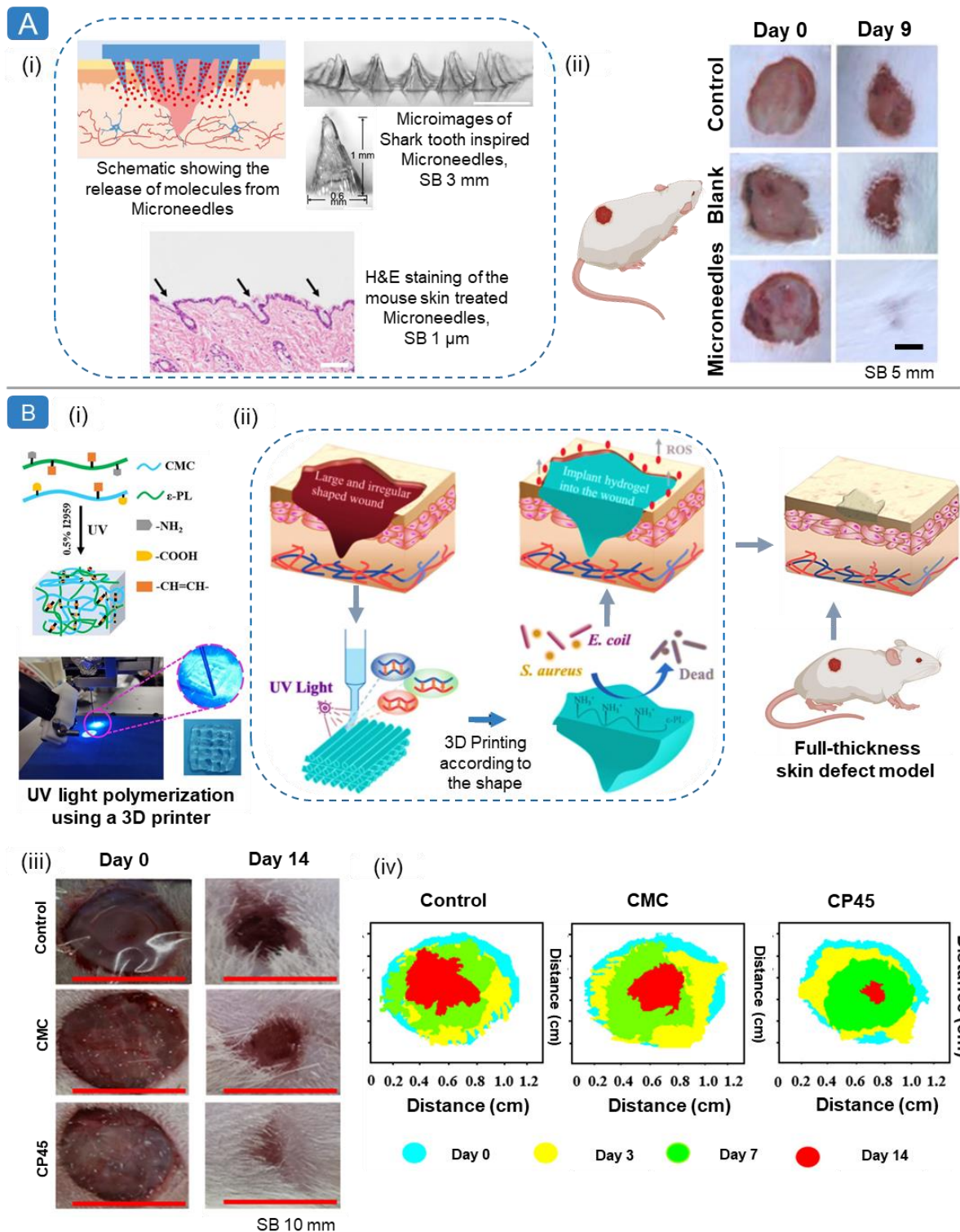


Figure 4: Examples of biomaterial-derived advanced wound healing techniques, including microneedles and 3D printed hydrogels. A) Shark tooth inspired microneedles were developed and integrated with an intelligent wound management system such as motion sensing, biochemical analysis, and healing rate; (i) Show microimages of the microneedles with the H&E staining picture of the mouse skin treated microneedles; (ii) *In vivo* results conducted on diabetic induced mouse model show the wound's complete recovery when treated with microneedles samples among other groups. Reproduced with permission [85] Copyright © 2021 American Chemical Society. B) (i-ii) 3D printed bionic hydrogel was fabricated using carboxymethyl cellulose/ ϵ -polylysine (CP) cured via UV

irradiation; (iii) The developed hydrogels were applied to the rat skin model and visually observed the wound closure potential of Control (commercial dressing Tegaderm™ film), CMC, and CP45 hydrogels, scale bar: 10 mm. (iv) Further, authors have shown the graphical depiction of the same *in vivo* wound experiment to demonstrate the percentage of healing with the duration of time among their hydrogels. The CP45 hydrogel has shown an effective wound closure rate compared to the other groups, making it a promising biomaterial for chronic wound healing applications. Reproduced with permission [90] © 2021 Elsevier B.V. All rights reserved.

Table of Contents Entry

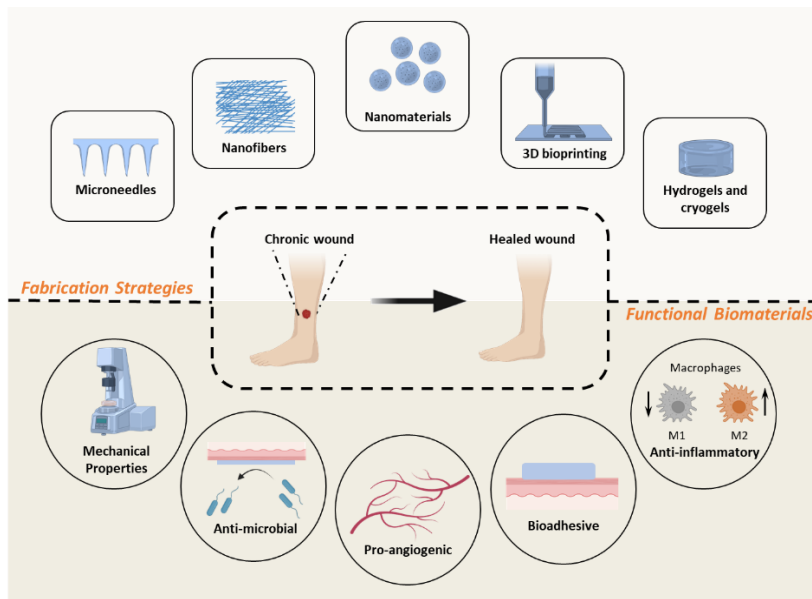


Table of Contents Entry: The graphic displays various biomaterial design functionalities along with the developed fabrication technologies to enhance the wound healing process in patients with chronic wounds.