

# **Cellular and Molecular Biology**

#### Review

# **CircRNAs in extracellular vesicles associated with triple-negative breast cancer Ashraf Ahmed Qurtam\***



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#### **Article Info Abstract**



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Triple-negative breast cancer (TNBC) is a highly aggressive cancer with distant metastasis. Accumulated evidence has demonstrated that exosomes are involved in TNBC metastasis. Elucidating the mechanism underlying TNBC metastasis has important clinical significance. Extracellular vesicles (EVs) present a promising avenue for diagnosing and treating triple-negative breast cancer (TNBC) through a technique called "liquid biopsy," offering a new wellspring of biomarkers. These tiny lipid bilayer vesicles, released by most cells, carry a diverse array of RNA molecules that can influence the behaviour of recipient cells. Among these, circular RNAs (circRNAs) have emerged as a subtype of noncoding RNAs capable of modulating gene expression by sponging microRNAs, thus playing crucial roles in various aspects of cancer development and progression, including TNBC. Despite their significance, our understanding of circRNAs involvement in TNBC remains incomplete. However, studies have shown that circRNAs are abundant in EVs, with exosomal circRNAs (exocircRNAs) particularly influential in cancer biology. These exo-circRNAs can be taken up by neighboring or distant cells, impacting numerous aspects of their physiological states, thereby enhancing cell communication and tumor dissemination. This review provides an overview of EVs key characteristics and functions before delving into exo-circRNAs potential roles in driving or suppressing TNBC, as well as their implications for cancer diagnosis, prognosis, and monitoring.

**Keywords:** Extracellular vesicles, Breast cancer, circular RNA, Extracellular vesicles (EVs), Cancer diagnosis

# **1. Introduction**

Extracellular vesicles are released by nearly all cells containing plasma and body fluids as part of their normal functioning, holding significant diagnostic and therapeutic potential for numerous diseases. The study of these vesicles enables a more precise understanding of intracellular communication between cells. There are two main types of extracellular vesicles: ectosomes and exosomes [1]. Ectosomes, ranging from 0.50 to 1 um in diameter, form directly through a budding process from the plasma membrane, while exosomes, ranging from 30 to 150 nm, originate from endosomes and are released into body fluids such as blood, saliva, breast milk, and urine [2]. Additionally, apoptotic bodies resulting from apoptosis are also considered extracellular vesicles, adding to their diversity.

The discovery of exosomes represents a revolutionary contribution to cell biology. Exosomes are enveloped by a lipid bilayer, providing stability to their contents and preventing easy destruction by RNases. They play pivotal roles in cell-to-cell communication and interaction with other cells through various mechanisms, including lectin, lipid, and integrins interactions. Moreover, exosomes are involved in immune system functions, viral replication, regulation of pathophysiological processes, and the tumor environment [3-5]. For example, tumor-derived exosomes (TDEs) contribute to the development of pre-metastatic

### niches [6].

Given their diverse functions, exosomes can serve as vectors for drug delivery into tissues. For instance, exosomes released by tumor cells facilitate communication with surrounding cells and can indicate cancer presence as a biomarker. Thus, the presence of exosomes holds promise for both diagnostic and therapeutic applications in various diseases.

### **2. Exosome biogenesis and release**

The biogenesis of exosomes involves a budding process where double invagination of the plasma membrane occurs, forming a multivesicular body (MVB). This is followed by the fusion of the MVB with the plasma membrane, leading to the expulsion of exosomes in the form of intraluminal vesicles (ILVs) via exocytosis [7]. MVBs can also be degraded through lysosomal fusion. In a direct pathway, T cells and erythroleukemia cell lines release exosomes directly from the plasma membrane [8]. For the delivery of exosomal contents to recipient cells, fusion with the plasma membrane and endocytosis are involved. The exchange of exosomal contents between cells facilitates homeostasis and helps combat stress. Intracellular signaling relies on the interaction between exosome surface proteins and receptors present in the recipient cell (Figure 1). The number of exosomes secreted varies according to

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through polymerization [21]. In many instances, ubiquitin is removed from cargo proteins by enzymes.

Additionally, alternative pathways involving ESCRT-III have been observed. These pathways can provide two auxiliary mechanisms: the ALIX-dependent pathway and the HD-PTP-dependent pathway [22]. These alternative routes offer further insight into the complex mechanisms of cargo sorting within cells.

# **2.2. ESCRT independent pathway**

This pathway operates independently of both ESCRT and ubiquitin. Membrane lipid rafts play pivotal roles in this process, with cholesterol, ceramide, and sphingolipids, along with proteins like tetraspanins, caveolins, and flotillins, contributing significantly [23,24]. Tetraspanins, for instance, are associated with both transporting cargos to multivesicular bodies (MVBs) and compartmentalizing endosomal membranes [25]. Among tetraspanins, CD63 has garnered particular importance in tumor signaling.

Caveolins, characterized by their hairpin structure, are membrane proteins that bind cholesterol [26]. Through the formation of caveolae, caveolins mediate endocytosis processes. Flotillin proteins are also crucial in this pathway, being involved in protein sorting processes [27].

Together, these lipid rafts and associated proteins play essential roles in a pathway that operates independently of ESCRT and ubiquitin, contributing to various cellular functions and signaling mechanisms [27'28].

# **2.3. Proteins**

The protein content inside exosomes varies between different cell types, but there are common sets of proteins consistently found among them. Many of these proteins are sorted through both the ESCRT pathways, while some are selectively sorted. Tetraspanins, notably CD81, CD63, CD82, Tsg101 (associated with ESCRT), Alix-1 (associated with MVB), and various heat shock proteins, are among the most common. For instance, Hsp90α requires Rab protein for sorting [29], with Protein Rab22a-NeoF1 and PYK2 interacting with Hsp90 for sorting. Ago2 is sorted when associated with Alix. Chaperones are also utilized for sorting, such as Hsp90 and Hsc70 for cytosolic proteins [30]. Hsc70 and LAMP2A bind to protein HIF1 $\alpha$ for sorting in an ESCRT-independent manner. Additionally, several enzymes including peroxidase, enolase-1, lipid kinase, and GTPase are found inside exosomes.

# **2.4. DNA**

Regarding DNA, research on its sorting into exosomes presents contrasting findings. Some studies suggest that DNA secretion from cells doesn't involve exosomes, while others propose that genomic DNA (gDNA) is sorted into exosomes. Single-stranded DNA and mitochondrial DNA were reported inside exosomes until 2014 [31-33]. In that year, Kahlert and colleagues confirmed the presence of double-stranded DNA in cancer cell exosomes using DNA digestion methods involving DNAse I [34'35]. Thakur and collaborators used an alternative method with shrimp DNAse, supporting the presence of double-stranded DNA [36]. It was initially thought that exosomal DNA originated from cytoplasmic DNA due to DNA damage or normal DNA metabolism, but this hypothesis doesn't fully explain the heterogeneity of DNA found inside exosomes [37]. The sizes of DNA found range from 100 bp to 10 Kbp.

cell type; for instance, cancerous cells release more exosomes than normal cells, with breast cancer cells releasing approximately 65 exosomes per hour [9].

Various technologies, such as dynamic light scattering, atomic force microscopy, Raman spectroscopy, transmission electron microscopy, and nanoparticle tracking analysis, allow for the measurement of exosomes [10], providing information about their size, concentration, and phenotypic characteristics [11-13]. Exosome isolation methods include centrifugation, ultrafiltration, chromatographic techniques, and microfluidics for high-purity extraction [14-15].

Exosomes contain diverse cargos, including lipids, DNA, miRNA, mRNA, proteins (membrane, nuclear, cytosolic), metabolites, and circRNAs [16]. The abundance and packaging of these components are regulated selectively, leading to heterogeneity in exosomal composition. This heterogeneity extends to exosome size, which can result from irregularities in the formation process via plasma membrane invagination [17]. Furthermore, exosomes can have a heterogeneous origin. Functionally, exosomes can induce both apoptosis and cell survival.

Cargo sorting within exosomes can involve ESCRT (endosomal sorting complex required for transport) pathways which comprise a multiprotein machinery that includes both ESCRT-dependent and ESCRT-independent mechanisms [18].

# **2.1. ESCRT dependent pathway**

The ESCRT (Endosomal Sorting Complex Required for Transport) complex plays a crucial role in cargo sorting within cells. This complex consists of class E vacuolar protein sorting (Vps) components, which include four subcomplexes: ESCRT-0, I, II, and III, working in a coordinated cascade [19]. Mono- or poly-ubiquitinylated proteins are recognized by STAM and Hrs within the ES-CRT-0 subcomplex. The FYVE domain aids in cargo sorting through the clathrin vesicle machinery. While the ubiquitin-binding domain (UBD) is present in both ESCRT-I and ESCRT-II, it is absent in ESCRT-III [20].

ESCRT-I and ESCRT-II combine to form a saddle-shaped complex, which then recruits ESCRT-III, ultimately leading to the production of intraluminal vesicles (ILVs) In cancer cells, the interaction of gDNA with tetraspanin CD63 aids in sorting [38]. Mitochondrial DNA can also be sorted by an LC3/autophagy-independent mechanism.

### **2.5. RNA**

RNA sorting inside exosomes is a selective process, with the presence of RNA in exosomes potentially resulting from absorption when exosomes circulate [39]. Various types of RNA, including non-coding RNA and miRNA, are found in exosomes. Certain miRNAs, such as miR-150 and miR-320, are prioritized during sorting. Protein involvement may also occur in the sorting of miRNAs within exosomes, with RNA binding proteins (RBPs) like YBX1, hnRNPK, FMR1, and Ago2 playing roles [40-43]. CircRNAs, like circRHOBTB3 and circNEIL3, are sorted by hnRNPA2B1, which is also involved in the sorting of miRNAs and lncRNAs [44, 45].

Circular RNA (circRNA) constitutes a significant portion of the non-coding RNA landscape. These molecules can exist freely in circulation or be enclosed within exosomes in the extracellular space. Their presence in exosomes involves various pathways. CircRNAs are abundant in eukaryotic cells and are conserved across species [46]. They have been implicated in various diseases, including cancers, autoimmune diseases, heart diseases, liver diseases, and renal diseases [47-49].

The circular closed-loop structure of circRNAs is formed by the attachment of the free 5' and 3' ends of RNA with a phosphodiester bond, creating a covalent bond [50]. Initially considered functionless, circRNAs have been found to play roles in gene expression regulation, protein interaction, and miRNA sponge activity, among others. They are produced through back splicing, distinct from linear RNA processing, which gives them protection from exonucleases and RNases, contributing to their stability and longer half-life compared to linear RNAs [51]. CircRNAs have emerged as biomarkers in various diseases and are predominantly found in the nucleus, though their transport mechanism to the cytoplasm remains unclear. Possible transportation mechanisms include ATP-dependent mechanisms and the involvement of N6-methyladenosine. Recent studies have highlighted the roles of helicase UAP56/URH49 in circRNA transport [52], with larger nucleotides transported by UAP56 and shorter ones by URH49 [53-55]. Following transportation, circRNAs may act as miRNA sponges, modulating gene expression in the cytoplasm.

# **2.5.1. Classification of circular RNA**

CircRNAs are classified based on their splicing junctions, leading to distinct categories: exonic circRNAs (ecircRNAs), intronic circRNAs (ciRNAs), and exonicintronic circRNAs (EIciRNAs). Additionally, a specific type called tRNA intronic circRNA (tricRNA) is formed from the splicing of pre-tRNA [56-61].

EcircRNAs mainly reside in the nucleus and consist of one or more exons. CiRNAs comprise introns, while EIciRNAs are composed of both exons and introns, primarily found in the nucleus. TricRNAs, on the other hand, are generated from pre-tRNA splicing [62-64].

CiRNAs are generated through lariat formation, where circularization occurs, and the DBR1 gene prevents debranching enzyme action. The size of ecircRNAs depends on the number of exons involved, influencing the effi-



ciency of back-splicing. EIciRNA formation requires the presence of internal repeats, allowing parental gene transcription. This process involves U1 snRNP acting through RNA-RNA interactions.

# **2.5.2. Abundance**

Studies have shown that approximately 20% of genes in the human brain produce circRNAs, whereas in the human heart, this percentage is around 9% (Figure 2). Interestingly, low proliferating cells tend to have more circRNAs compared to high proliferating cells [65-67]. Additionally, experiments have demonstrated higher expression of circRNAs in fetal tissues compared to adult tissues. Memczak et al. [68]. reported that circRNAs are particularly abundant in peripheral whole blood, and in human fibroblasts, approximately 25,000 different circRNAs have been identified [52].

# **2.3. TNBC**

Triple-negative breast cancer (TNBC) is a prevalent global health issue. Cancer encompasses a wide array of diseases, all stemming from disruptions in the normal cell cycle, which involves processes like mitosis for cell multiplication. Regulation of these cycles is crucial, with mechanisms such as apoptosis, or programmed cell death, eliminating non-functional cells. Genetic control plays a pivotal role in these processes. In cancer, there's an aberrant, uncontrolled proliferation of these cells, forming tumors that can metastasize to other parts of the body, leading to significant health complications.

Breast cancer, one of the most common types, has garnered attention as a growing concern [69]. Globally, it constitutes 10.4% of all female cancers, ranking second only to lung cancer. In 2004, breast cancer caused 519,000 deaths worldwide. Recent data from 2018 indicates approximately 2 million new cases and around 60,000 deaths annually, with 42,260 deaths reported in the US alone in 2019 [70]. While breast cancer predominantly affects women, it also affects men, albeit less frequently, potentially due to delayed diagnosis. Breast cancer can manifest in various regions of the breast and may present as benign, such as cyst formation, a type of fibrocystic change.

Breast cancer encompasses various subtypes, with triplenegative breast cancer (TNBC) representing 10-20% of cases [71]. TNBC is associated with lower survival rates compared to other subtypes and has a higher likelihood of recurrence within a five-year prognosis [72,73]. This type

lacks expression of three hormone receptors: estrogen receptor, progesterone receptor (ER/PR), and HER2 (human epidermal growth factor receptor) [74].

Treatment for TNBC typically involves chemotherapy, utilizing agents such as anthracycline, taxane-based drugs, and platinum salts [75,76]. Additionally, PARP inhibitors and immune modulators have received approval for TNBC therapy [77,78]. PARP plays a role in DNA repair through ADP ribose transfer, making PARP inhibitors a targeted treatment option [79]. Atezolizumab, in combination with nab-paclitaxel, has been recently approved in the US for TNBC [80]. TNBC often exhibits heightened expression of growth factor receptors like EGFR, VEGFR, and FGFR [81], suggesting potential targets for inhibition with drugs like imatinib and lapatinib. However, the effectiveness of these therapies remains limited, highlighting the need for the identification of suitable biomarkers for TNBC.

Conventional biomarkers in breast cancer include CEA, CA-125, and CA15-3. Recent research has identified several circular RNAs (circRNAs) as potential biomarkers, such as hsa\_circ\_0068033, hsa\_circ\_0001785, and hsa\_circ\_0108942, detectable in plasma. Among these, hsa circ  $0001785$  shows promise with a specificity of 75.6%. Comparative analysis with conventional biomarkers indicates that hsa\_circ\_0001785 has a higher area under the curve (AUC) value, suggesting its potential as a more effective biomarker for TNBC.

#### **2.4. Exo-circRNA in TNBC**

#### **2.4.1. Function (As miRNA sponge)**

In tumor malignancy, sponging plays a significant role. MiRNAs, short strands of RNA (19-25 nucleotides), are involved in post-transcriptional gene silencing. CircRNAs contain binding sites for miRNAs, and this sequestration aids in their regulation [82]. Due to these binding sites, circRNAs are known as competing endogenous RNA (ceR-NA). Some circRNAs have the ability to bind more than one miRNA [83]. For instance, circRAD18 can bind both miR-208a and miR-3164, leading to the upregulation of IGF1 and FGF2, which promotes TNBC progression. CircGFRA1, with a binding site for miR-34a [84], also promotes tumor progression. Reports indicate that circ-RNA CDR1as, also known as ciRS-7 and abundantly found in the mammalian brain, acts as the first miRNA sponge containing 74 binding sites. It sequesters miR-671, inhibiting miRNA-mediated cleavage through mismatched nucleotides. Other circRNAs, such as circHIPK2 with a single binding site for miR124-2HG, circHIPK3 with 18 binding sites discovered through luciferase screening, and circSRY with 16 binding sites for miR-138 found in mouse testis, also play roles in sponging miRNAs [85]. Circ0069094 acts as a sponge for miR-591, serving as a biomarker for detecting breast cancer.

In transcription regulation and alternative splicing, alternative splicing controls gene expression. Circ-RNAs in the nucleus can regulate gene expression. Studies have shown the involvement of circRNAs in inhibiting transcription, such as circURI1, which ultimately promotes cancer. Among the four types of circRNAs, EIciRNAs, consisting of both exons and introns, are known to regulate transcription and RNA pol II. The interaction between EIciRNAs and RNA pol II allows efficient binding of the enzyme to the core promoter. Examples include circPAIP2 and circEIF3 identified in the nucleus, which increases parental gene expression through interaction with U1 snRNA and ElciRNA. CircSIRT7 and circANKRD52 are also involved in regulation, with their interaction with the RNA Pol II complex upregulating parental gene transcription [86]. A recently discovered circRNA from the insulin gene interacts with the RBP TDP-43 (RNA-binding protein) and regulates the transcription of insulin secretion-associated genes. Insulin is crucial in regulating blood glucose levels, and a decrease in its production can lead to diabetes. CircRNAs are also involved in the transcription regulation of genes in signaling pathways like Wnt/β-catenin, as seen with circRNA 069718.

#### **2.6. Translation**

While most circRNAs are typically unable to undergo translation, recent research has identified circRNAs that can efficiently be translated into proteins. The inability of most circRNAs to translate is attributed to the lack of 5' capping required for translation initiation. However, it has been discovered that circRNAs can be translated in a capindependent manner. For instance, CircFBXW7 yields the protein FBXW7-185aa (21 kDa), although its functions remain unclear. Translation initiation is facilitated by the presence of a start codon (AUG), an open reading frame (ORF), and internal ribosome entry site (IRES) acting as templates. Examples include circMbl3 and circ-ZNF609, where IRES assists in translation [87-88]. Additionally, small peptides can be translated through m6A modification due to the presence of m6A motifs. Notably, circ-SMO, found in gliomas, encodes SMO-193aa, a component of the hedgehog pathway, while circPINTexon2 encodes PINT87aa, which is less abundant in glioma tissues [89]. CircAXIN1 encodes AXIN1-295aa, a participant in the Wnt pathway. Research indicates that the presence of multiple ORFs in circRNAs without stop codons facilitates translation (Table 1).

Few miRNAs are involved in translation repression by forming a complex with mRNA. CircRNA thus helps in translation by sponging miRNAs making mRNA free for initiating translation (Figure 3).

#### **2.5.1. Protein interactions**

Following miRNA sponging, another crucial function of circRNAs is facilitating protein-protein interactions, where they act as protein scaffolds or chaperones. This capacity for protein binding is facilitated by their tertiary structure. Such binding can have bidirectional effects, with proteins guiding circRNA synthesis and degradation. while circRNAs can act as protein sponges or decoys. Additionally, circRNAs are involved in protein translocation or transportation from the nucleus to the cytoplasm.

The oncogenic and tumor suppressor activities of exo-





**Table 1.** Exosomal circRNAs that can be translated (found in TNBC).



circRNAs are evident in triple-negative breast cancer (TNBC). There is an increased expression or upregulation of circRNAs in tumor formation, migration, and metastasis. For instance, circUBE2D2 in TNBC sponges miR-512-3p, leading to the upregulation of CDCA3 expression. Experiments have shown that the downregulation of miR-512-3p depletes circUBE2D2, resulting in tumor suppression. Another example is circANKS1B, which sponges miR-148A-3p and miR-152-3p, and its upregulation promotes tumor proliferation. Downregulation of circRNAs is associated with tumor suppression, where proliferation, invasion, and metastasis are inhibited. Examples include circNR3C2 and circTADA2A-E6.

CircITCH, implicated in various cancers, plays a crucial role in tumor suppression in TNBC. Its overexpression downregulates the Wnt/β-catenin pathway by sponging miR-214 and miR-1793. Additionally, circRNAs regulate functions in mitochondria. These circ-mtRNAs, such as circRNA 103809, when overexpressed, can impair miR-532-3p function and interfere with the epithelialmesenchymal transition (EMT) pathway.

#### **2.6. Metastasis of exosomal circRNA in TNBC**

Metastasis of exosomal circRNAs in TNBC is a significant concern. Metastasis involves several complex steps ultimately leading to patient mortality. Understanding these mechanisms is crucial for improving therapies and management. Exosomal circRNA expression increases in breast cancer and contributes to miRNA sponging and tumor suppression. Certain circRNAs are associated with increased metastasis and invasion. For instance, circFBXL5 upregulation in breast and lung cancer induces SRSF6 expression through miR-660 sponging [96]. CircANKS1B promotes epithelial-mesenchymal transition (EMT) via the TGF-B1 signaling pathway. CircHMCU impacts EMT and cell cycle phase G1 [97]. Methylation and demethylation control aggressive tumor spreading in cirFECR1 (Table 2). CircBCMB1 has been observed to metastasize to the brain by sponging miR-125a and regulating the protein BRD4, leading to altered MMP9 expression [98].

Conversely, decreased expression of exosomal circRNAs is also observed in breast cancer. Microarrays have shown decreased expression of circNF1C in breast cancer (Figure 4). In some cases, a lower level of circRNA and higher miRNA expression are observed, as seen with circRNA\_000554.

#### **2.7. Exosomal circRNA in apoptosis**

Apoptosis serves as a crucial mechanism in normal cells, preventing uncontrolled proliferation. CircRNAs have been observed to influence the apoptotic process, contributing to the pathogenesis of breast cancer by in**Table 2.** Expression of different exosomal circRNAs in TNBC.



(+) Increased activity, (-) Decreased activity.



teracting with downstream signaling pathways. This interaction often involves the sponging action of miRNAs by circRNAs. For instance, circABCC4, which sponges miR-154-5p [108], enhances apoptosis when downregulated [109]. Conversely, upregulated circRNAs like circRNA\_0001283 induce apoptosis by sponging miR-187. Similarly, overexpression of circRNA\_000911 inhibits tumor growth by sponging miR-449a, despite its initial downregulation in breast cancer cells [110]. Another example is hsa circ 0068033, which sponges miR-659. These circRNA-miRNA interactions also regulate different pathways, such as enhancing Notch1 and NF-κB signaling pathways [111]. The PI3K/AKT signaling pathway, crucial in apoptosis control, is regulated by the circRNA/ PI3K/AKT axis, thereby inhibiting apoptosis.

### **2.7.1. Exo-circRNA and chemotherapeutic resistance**

Exosomal circRNAs and chemotherapeutic resistance present significant challenges in breast cancer treatment [112]. Effective therapy selection is crucial among the various available options. Tamoxifen, commonly used for TNBC patients, was found to have increased sensitivity when combined with circRNA\_0025202, which was downregulated in tamoxifen-resistant cells [113]. Conversely, circUBE2D2 was upregulated in tamoxifen-resistant cells, leading to resistance by sponging miR-200a-3p [114].

In TNBC patients, resistance to paclitaxel poses a major challenge. Upregulated circ-RNF111 in paclitaxel-resistant cells contributes to resistance by upregulating E2F3 through miR-140-5p sponging [115]. Conversely, downregulation of hsa\_circ\_0000199 increases sensitivity to paclitaxel. Similar observations were made with therapies involving gemcitabine, cisplatin, and Adriamycin [116]. Monastrol, another chemotherapeutic agent, suppresses tumors by inhibiting the mitotic kinesin Eg5 required for bipolar spindle formation. CircRNA-MTO1, upregulated in monastrol-resistant cells, can be downregulated in TNBC cells to reverse resistance to monastrol [117].

CircKDM4C, usually downregulated in cells resistant to doxorubicin, can be overexpressed to reverse resistance [92]. Additionally, downregulation of circUBE2D2 reverses resistance to doxorubicin through miR-512-3p downregulation and CDCA3 upregulation (Table 3). Similarly, hsa circ 0092276 overexpression leads to therapy resistance via altered autophagy-related gene 7 through miR-384 sponging [119].

#### **2.8. Challenges and limitations in exosomal circRNAs in research**

Exosomal circular RNAs (exo-circRNAs) detected in triple-negative breast cancer (TNBC) can either act as tumor suppressors or promote tumor proliferation, influencing the effectiveness of chemotherapeutic drugs in TNBC therapy. Sequencing techniques have provided insights into the roles of exo-circRNAs in TNBC. Some assumptions have been made regarding exosomal circRNAs: exosomes protect circRNAs from clearance by transferring genetic information to other cells, while they may also facilitate circRNA clearance through exocytosis from the vesicle. Recently, certain circRNAs have been found to have functional roles in cancer research, making them promising biomarkers or prognostic markers for detecting TNBC in patients.

Despite these advances, further studies and validation are needed. The scarcity of circRNA in exosomes presents challenges in detection. Additionally, due to their circular structure and sequence similarity with linear counterparts, studies may lack precision. The impact of circRNAs on pathophysiological processes is under study. There is unclear research on how circRNAs are ultimately degraded and how they are enriched in exosomes during formation. According to assumptions, circRNAs plentifully found in the cytoplasm are passively incorporated into exosomes. As the current development of exo-circRNA is in its nascent stage, more advanced tools are needed to aid research in this area.

Chemotherapeutic agent	circRNA	<b>Expression</b>	<b>Effect</b>	Ref.
	circ UBE2D2	Upregulation	Resistant	$\lceil$ <sup>114</sup> ]
Tamoxifen	circBMPR2	Downregulation	Resistant	$\lceil 120 \rceil$
	$circRNA$ 0025202	Upregulation	Sensitive	$\lceil$ <sup>113</sup> ]
	circ-RNF111	Upregulation	Resistant	$\lceil$ <sup>115</sup> ]
Paclitaxel	circGFRA1	Upregulation	Resistant	$\lceil$ <sup>121</sup> ]
	$circ-ABCB10$	Upregulation	Resistant	$\lceil$ <sup>122</sup> ]
Monastrol	circRNA-MTO1	Downregulation	Sensitive	$\lceil$ <sup>117</sup> ]
Adriamycin	circ 0085495	Upregulation	Resistant	$\lceil 123 \rceil$
	circ 0006528	Upregulation	Resistant	$\lceil 124 \rceil$
	circ 0001667	Upregulation	Resistant	$\lceil 125 \rceil$
Lapatinib	circ-MMP11	Upregulation	Resistant	$\lceil 126 \rceil$
5-Fluorouracil	circFBXL5	Upregulation	Resistant	<sup>-</sup> 127

**Table 3.** Exo-circRNA and chemotherapeutic resistance.

## **3. Conclusion**

The study highlights the multifaceted roles of exosomal circular RNAs (exo-circRNAs) in triple-negative breast cancer (TNBC) pathogenesis and therapy. These exo-circRNAs can either suppress or promote tumor growth and influence the effectiveness of chemotherapeutic drugs. While sequencing techniques have shed light on their functions, challenges such as detection difficulty and lack of precision in studies persist due to their circular structure and sequence similarities. Despite these obstacles, exo-circRNAs hold promise as biomarkers or prognostic markers for TNBC detection. However, further research and validation are imperative to fully understand their mechanisms of action and potential clinical applications. Additionally, advancements in tools and methodologies are needed to propel research in this nascent field forward.

# **Conflicts of Interest**

The author declares no conflicts of interest.

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