

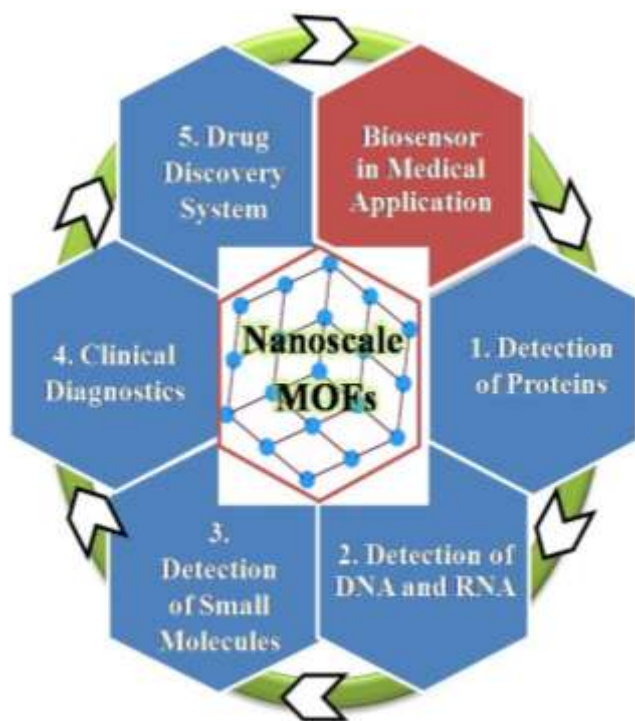
Nanoscale MOFs as Biosensors in Medical Application

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Furthermore, we have described the diverse applications of n-MOF-based biosensors in the detection of various biomolecules, such as proteins, DNA, and small molecules, as well as their potential in clinical diagnostics and drug discovery. We will also address the current challenges and future perspectives in the field of n-MOFs as biosensors.

Keywords— Nanoscale MOFs, Biosensors, Smart Materials, Biomolecules, Medical Application.

I. INTRODUCTION

Nanotechnology has rapidly emerged as a promising field with transformative potential across various scientific disciplines. Among the fascinating applications of nanomaterials, the development of biosensors for medical purposes stands out. Nanoscale Metal-Organic Frameworks (n-MOFs) have gained considerable attention as highly versatile platforms for biosensing in medicine, amidst the wide array of nanomaterials available. MOFs are crystalline materials composed of metal ions or clusters coordinated to organic ligands, resulting in a three-dimensional porous structure. These structures possess exceptional properties, including high surface areas, tunable pore sizes, and remarkable chemical and thermal stability. Consequently, they have found utility in a diverse range of applications such as gas storage, catalysis, drug delivery, and sensing.

The unique characteristics of n-MOFs have unlocked new avenues for their application as biosensors in medical contexts. Biosensors are analytical devices that combine a biological recognition element, such as enzymes, antibodies, or nucleic acids, with a transducer element to detect and quantify specific analytes. n-MOFs offer several advantages over traditional biosensor materials, including heightened sensitivity, selectivity, stability, and biocompatibility.

Abstract— Metal-organic frameworks (MOFs) are a class of porous materials with high surface area, tunable pore sizes, and unique structural properties, which have attracted considerable attention in biosensors. In particular, the nanoscale MOFs (n-MOFs) with their unique physicochemical properties, have shown great potential as sensing platforms for the detection of biomolecules, drugs, and disease-related molecules. We aim to highlight the recent developments in the design, synthesis, and application of n-MOFs for biomedical sensing. This review provides an overview of the synthesis and functionalization strategies used to tailor the properties of n-MOFs for specific biomedical applications. The review also discusses the different detection mechanisms employed by n-MOF-based biosensors, including fluorescence, electrochemical, and surface-enhanced Raman spectroscopy (SERS).

In the field of medicine, the ability to swiftly and accurately detect and monitor biomarkers, pathogens, and various disease-related analytes holds paramount importance. n-MOFs can be functionalized with specific ligands or biomolecules to create highly sensitive and specific biosensors for medical diagnostics. The substantial surface area of MOFs facilitates efficient immobilization of biomolecules, enabling interactions with target analytes and enhancing sensor performance. Furthermore, the porous nature of MOFs can be tailored to accommodate various guest molecules, enabling controlled release of drugs or therapeutic agents at precise sites within the body. This attribute not only renders n-MOFs valuable for biosensing, but also for targeted drug delivery, imaging, and therapy, thereby providing a multifunctional platform for medical applications. Moreover, n-MOFs can be integrated with different transduction methods, such as optical, electrochemical, and piezoelectric techniques, to convert molecular recognition events into measurable signals. This integration allows for real-time and label-free detection of target analytes, enhancing the speed and accuracy of medical diagnostics.

In this context, the aim of this review is to explore the potential of n-MOFs as biosensors in medical applications. The review will delve into the synthesis methods, functionalization strategies, and sensing mechanisms employed in MOF-based biosensors. Additionally, it will highlight their applications in disease diagnosis, monitoring therapeutic interventions, and shed light on emerging trends in this rapidly evolving field. n-MOFs have emerged as promising biosensing platforms for medical applications, offering unique properties that have the potential to revolutionize disease diagnostics, personalized medicine, and targeted therapies. The development and integration of n-MOF-based biosensors hold tremendous promise for improving patient care, facilitating early detection, and advancing the understanding of complex biological processes.

II. SYNTHESIS AND FUNCTIONALIZATION OF NANOSCALE MOFs

The synthesis and functionalization of n-MOFs are essential steps in customizing their properties for specific applications, particularly in the field of biosensing within medical contexts. This section provides an overview of the synthesis methods and functionalization strategies employed in the fabrication of n-MOFs for biosensing purposes.

2.1 Synthesis Methods

Various techniques have been developed to synthesize n-MOFs with precise control over their size, morphology, and composition. Some commonly used synthesis methods include:

1. Solvothermal or Hydrothermal Synthesis:

This method involves the reaction of metal ions or clusters with organic ligands in a solvent under high temperature and pressure conditions. The choice of solvent and reaction parameters influences the formation of n-MOFs with desired characteristics.

2. Microwave-Assisted Synthesis:

By utilizing microwave irradiation, the synthesis of n-MOFs can be accelerated through rapid and uniform heating. This technique offers advantages such as reduced reaction times and improved control over particle size and morphology.

3. Ultrasound-Assisted Synthesis:

Ultrasonic waves can facilitate the nucleation and growth of MOF crystals by inducing cavitation and microstreaming effects. Ultrasound-assisted synthesis enables the production of n-MOFs with enhanced crystallinity and a narrower size distribution.

4. Spray Drying:

This technique involves atomizing a solution containing metal ions and ligands into a hot air stream, leading to the rapid formation of n-MOF particles. Spray drying offers a continuous and scalable synthesis method for generating n-MOFs.

2.2 Functionalization Strategies

The functionalization of n-MOFs involves the introduction of specific ligands or biomolecules onto the MOF surface to enhance their sensing capabilities or enable targeted applications. Several functionalization strategies have been employed, including:

1. Post-Synthesis Modification

This approach involves modifying pre-synthesized MOFs with functional groups or biomolecules. Surface modification techniques, such as covalent bonding, coordination chemistry, or electrostatic interactions, are utilized to attach ligands or biomolecules onto the MOF surface, imparting specific functionalities.

2. Co-Crystallization

In this strategy, functional ligands or biomolecules are co-crystallized with the MOF during the synthesis process. The presence of these additives within the MOF structure can alter the pore properties or provide recognition sites for target analytes, thereby enhancing the sensing capabilities of the nanoscale MOFs.

3. Encapsulation

Nanoscale MOFs can encapsulate guest molecules, including enzymes, antibodies, or DNA strands, within their porous structure. This encapsulation protects the guest molecules from degradation, preserves their activity, and allows for controlled release in response to specific stimuli.

4. Surface Modification

The surface of n-MOFs can be modified with functional groups or biomolecules to enhance their biocompatibility, stability, or affinity towards target analytes. Surface modifications can be achieved through direct covalent or non-covalent interactions with ligands or biomolecules.

The choice of functionalization strategy depends on the desired application and the specific requirements of the biosensing system. By carefully selecting appropriate synthesis methods and functionalization strategies, n-MOFs can be tailored to exhibit enhanced sensing capabilities, improved stability, and compatibility with biological systems. This makes them highly suitable for biosensing applications in medicine.

III. DETECTION MECHANISMS OF NANOSCALE MOF-BASED BIOSENSORS

n-MOFs based biosensors employ diverse detection mechanisms to achieve high sensitivity and selectivity in sensing and analyzing target analytes. In this section, we will explore several detection mechanisms utilized by n-MOF-based biosensors.

3.1 Fluorescence-Based Biosensors

Fluorescence-based detection stands as one of the most prevalent mechanisms employed in n-MOF-based biosensors. MOFs can be engineered to incorporate fluorescent molecules within their structure or as guest molecules. The interaction between the target analyte and the MOF induces a change in the fluorescence emission properties. This alteration can be measured and quantified to facilitate the detection and quantification of the analyte.

3.2 Electrochemical-Based Biosensors

Electrochemical detection involves measuring electrical signals generated during the interaction between the target analyte and the MOF-based biosensor. MOFs can act as excellent conductive materials or host electroactive species within their structures. The binding of the analyte to the MOF leads to changes in electrical conductivity or electrochemical properties, which can be detected using various electrochemical techniques such as amperometry, voltammetry, or impedance spectroscopy. Electrochemical detection offers high sensitivity, affordability, and compatibility with portable devices.

3.3 Surface-Enhanced Raman Spectroscopy (SERS)-Based Biosensors

Surface-enhanced Raman scattering (SERS) is a powerful spectroscopic technique that amplifies Raman signals of molecules adsorbed on metal surfaces. MOFs can serve as efficient substrates for SERS due to their high surface area and ability to incorporate metal nanoparticles. Interaction between the target analyte and the MOF surface significantly enhances the Raman signals, enabling highly sensitive detection and identification of the analyte molecules.

3.4 Other Detection Mechanisms

Colorimetric detection relies on visually observing a color change in the presence of the target analyte. MOFs can be designed to undergo structural transformations or exhibit specific chemical reactions in response to the analyte, resulting in a distinct color change. This change can be easily observed with the naked eye or measured using simple optical techniques. Colorimetric detection is simple, cost-effective, and suitable for point-of-care applications.

Quartz crystal microbalance (QCM) is a sensitive mass measurement technique based on the principle of the quartz crystal resonator. MOFs can be immobilized onto the surface of the quartz crystal. When the analyte binds to the MOF, it causes a change in the resonance frequency of the crystal. This change can be measured and correlated to the mass of the analyte, enabling label-free and real-time detection of the target analyte.

These represent only a few examples of the detection mechanisms employed by n-MOF-based biosensors. Each mechanism offers unique advantages in terms of sensitivity, selectivity, simplicity, and compatibility with various applications.

Researchers continue to harness the remarkable properties of MOFs to develop innovative detection strategies, thereby enhancing performance and broadening the applications of these biosensors in numerous fields of science and technology.

IV. APPLICATIONS OF NANOSCALE MOF-BASED BIOSENSORS

4.1 Introduction

n-MOFs possess distinct characteristics that set them apart from other inorganic nanomaterials. These unique properties make them highly suitable for various biosensing applications. MOFs demonstrate remarkable attributes such as exceptional porosity, structural flexibility, precise synthesis control, adjustable pore size and wall modifications, as well as relatively low toxicity. One of the key advantages of utilizing MOFs as biosensors is their inherent biodegradability, which makes them environmentally friendly and compatible with biological systems. Additionally, they offer the ability to be employed as bio-compatible building blocks, further enhancing their potential for use in biosensing applications. In this review we discuss about the some important application of MOFs as biosensor in different fields. Table 1 highlights the major documented work on various applications of nanoscale MOF-based biosensors. Herein, we will be covering the following important field of application-

- i. Detection of Protein
- ii. Detection of DNA and RNA
- iii. Detection of Small Molecules
- iv. Application on Clinical Diagnostics
- v. Application in Drug Delivery System.

Table 1
Major highlights documented on various applications of nanoscale MOF-based biosensors

S. No.	Documented Work	Highlight of Work
For Detection of Protein		
1	Osman et al. (2019), Vikrant et al. (2019)	MOFs as biosensors for nucleic acid and protein detection.
2	Wang et al. (2018)	Electrochemical biosensor using Cu-MOF with Au NPs for miRNA detection.
3	Huang et al. (2018)	Zr-MOF-based fluorescence biosensor for p53 gene and PSA detection with MOF@AuNP@GO nanohybrid.
4	Liu et al. (2017)	Zr-MOF biosensors with tunable pores; low detection limit for lysozyme (3.6 pg mL^{-1}).
5	Chandrasekhar et al. (2016)	Zn-PLA MOF for amino acid detection, with fluorescence quenching specific to

		histidine.
For Detection of DNA and RNA		
1	Bauer et al. (2017)	Traditional DNA detection through hybridization of single-stranded DNA.
2	Chen et al. (2016)	Dysprosium-based MOF for detecting Ebolavirus RNA sequences with a detection limit of 160 pM.
3	Qin et al. (2016), Zhao et al. (2016), Yang et al. (2015)	Various MOFs synthesized for virus DNA/RNA detection (e.g., Ebola, HIV, Zika)
4	Wu et al. (2015)	n-MOFs with peptide nucleic acid probes for real-time miRNA detection in living cancer cells.
5	Ye et al. (2014)	Novel MOF biosensor with hairpin-structured oligonucleotides for DNA sequence-specific detection.
6	Zhang et al. (2014)	UiO-66-NH ₂ MOF for fluorescent DNA sensing with high selectivity and sensitivity.
7	Zhu et al. (2013)	2D n-MOFs used to detect HIV-1 DNA sequences with high selectivity and sensitivity.
8	Cui et al. (2012)	UiO-66-NH ₂ MOF with high chemical and thermal stability for advanced biosensing applications.
For Detection of Small Molecules		
1	Marieeswaran & Panneerselvam (2020)	Mn-MOF biosensors for selective Hg ²⁺ detection.
2	Jia et al. (2020)	MOF/aptamer biosensor for aflatoxin B1 detection.
3	Zhang et al. (2020)	ZnO-MOFs for formaldehyde sensing.
4	Ji et al. (2019)	Anion-channel MOFs for heavy metal ion sensing.
5	Zhang et al. (2018)	MOFs with fluorescence quenching for Fe ³⁺ detection.
6	Gu et al. (2018); Li et al. (2017)	Functionalized MOFs (-NH ₂ , -OH) for Hg ²⁺ , Ba ²⁺ , and Cd ²⁺ detection.
7	Yan et al. (2017)	Cd-MOFs for nitrobenzene and Fe ³⁺ detection.
8	Chen et al. (2017)	Cu-MOFs for aniline detection with high selectivity.
9	Su et al. (2017)	Zirconium MOFs with Au nanoclusters for cocaine detection.
10	Wang et al. (2017)	Eu-based MOFs for selective Fe ³⁺ , PO ₄ ³⁻ , and F ⁻ detection.
11	Liu et al. (2017)	Lanthanide-MOFs for highly sensitive Fe ³⁺ detection.
12	Wu et al. (2017); Gu et al. (2017)	Zn- and Cd-MOFs for Mn ²⁺ and Cr ₂ O ₇ ²⁻ detection.
13	Lustig et al. (2017); Wen et al. (2016); Zhang et al. (2016)	MOFs enhance or quench luminescence for sensitive detection.

14	Hu et al. (2016); Cui et al. (2012a, 2014b)	Luminescent MOFs for detecting small molecules and ions.
15	Rudd et al. (2016); Chen et al. (2016)	Zn-MOFs as biosensors for Hg ²⁺ and Pb ²⁺ ions.
16	Shi et al. (2016)	Lanthanide MOFs for benzaldehyde sensing.
17	Xu et al. (2016)	n-MOFs for oxygen sensing in live cells using dual-emissive probes.
18	Hao et al. (2015)	MIL-121 MOFs for detecting hippuric acid in urine.
19	Zhu et al. (2015)	HKUST-1-based biosensor for dopamine detection.
20	Wang et al. (2015)	Carbon-functionalized MOFs for ultrasensitive dopamine sensing.
21	Zhao et al. (2015)	Tb-based MOFs for sensing metal cations and small molecules.
22	Zhou et al. (2014)	Eu ³⁺ -incorporated MOFs for selective Fe ³⁺ sensing.
23	Lu et al. (2014)	n-MOF-253s for sensitive Fe ²⁺ detection in cells and solutions.
24	Yue et al. (2014)	MOFs for selective pyridine detection.
25	Lin et al. (2013)	Fe ₃ O ₄ @MOF for organic pollutant degradation.
26	Zheng et al. (2011); Cai et al. (2011)	Tb-MOFs for detecting HSO ₄ ⁻ , F ⁻ , and Fe ³⁺ ions.
For Application on Clinical Diagnostics		
1	Kong et al. (2020)	Zr(IV)-MOF for detecting MUC-1 and miRNA-21 in breast cancer cells.
2	Chang et al. (2020)	ZnO@MoS ₂ for rapid acetone detection for diabetes diagnosis.
3	Wang et al. (2020)	NiCo-MOF for glucose measurement via nickel/cobalt alloy nanoparticles.
4	Afzalnia & Mirzaee (2020)	La(III)-MOF with Ag NPs for detecting miRNA-155 cancer biomarker.
5	Sheta et al. (2019)	Cu-MOFNPs for early liver cancer diagnosis via AFP quantification.
6	Wang et al. (2019)	MOFs as signal amplifiers for detecting breast cancer cells.
7	Chang et al. (2019)	MOF biosensor for simultaneous tumor biomarker detection
8	Xu et al. (2019)	Fe-MOF-GOx biosensor for ultrasensitive glucose detection.
9	Hu et al. (2017)	GOx/LOx-loaded MOFs for glucose and lactic acid monitoring.
10	Gao et al. (2017)	Fe-MIL-53 for fluorescence imaging of FA-positive cancer cells.

11	Bian et al. (2015)	Fe ₃ O ₄ -based theranostic platform for cancer diagnosis and treatment.
12	Wang et al. (2014)	Cu ₃ (BTC) ₂ -MOF for DNA base pair detection via π - π stacking.
13	Chen et al. (2014)	MOFs for acetone detection in diabetes diagnosis.
14	Wei et al. (2013)	Co-MOF/CC/Paper hybrid glucose sensor.
For Application in Drug Delivery System		
1	Su et al. (2022); Zhuang et al. (2014)	pH-sensitive MOFs for controlled drug release and photothermal therapy.
2	Yao et al. (2021); Wu et al. (2020); Orellana-Tavra et al. (2015)	MOFs as versatile drug delivery systems for various therapeutic agents.
3	Jarai et al. (2020); Rojas et al. (2016); Nazari et al. (2016); Vasconcelos et al. (2012)	MOFs with π -stacking interactions for drug loading.
4	Hidalgo et al. (2020); Chen et al. (2017); Wang (2017)	One-pot synthesis for uniform drug distribution in MOFs.
5	Márquez et al. (2016)	Caffeine-loaded MOFs for cosmetic applications.
6	Liedana et al. (2012); Gaudin et al. (2012)	Encapsulation of caffeine in MOFs with controlled release.

4.2. Detection of Protein

Biomacromolecules encompassing proteins and nucleic acids, hold vital significance in biological processes, and their precise detection poses a formidable challenge for disease diagnosis. In response to this challenge, numerous MOFs as biosensors have been developed to detect nucleic acids and proteins effectively (Osman *et al.* 2019, Vikrant *et al.* 2019). In 2018, Wang *et al.* introduced a remarkable origami electrochemical biosensor by modifying Cu-MOF with Au NPs. This biosensor enabled ultrasensitive detection of micro-RNA (miRNA) through a strand displacement reaction. Liu *et al.* (2017) devised three distinct electrochemical biosensors based on Zr-MOF, each featuring tunable pore sizes for detecting proteins. Among the range of biosensors available, one standout is the optimized Zr-MOF-BA, which is composed of Zr⁴⁺ and 4,4',4''-s-triazine-2,4,6-triyltribenzoic acid ligands. This particular biosensor demonstrates exceptional qualities, including high selectivity, a broad detection range with low detection limit of 3.6 pg mL⁻¹ for lysozyme. Furthermore, in 2018, Huang *et al.* introduced an innovative "three in-one" fluorescence biosensor utilizing a Zr-MOF. This biosensor enabled ratiometric detection of both the p53 gene and prostate-specific antigen.

The Zr-MOF acted as a template for the in-situ growth of Au NPs through reduction by NaBH_4 . Subsequently, an ultrathin graphene oxide layer was applied to the outermost surface through π - π interactions and hydrogen bonds, thus forming the MOF@AuNP@GO nanohybrid structure. Chandrasekhar *et al.* (2016) successfully synthesized Zn-PLA, a homochiral MOF, for the specific detection of amino acids—the fundamental building blocks of proteins. Notably, Zn-PLA displayed unique fluorescence quenching capabilities, particularly when exposed to histidine, among all the other amino acids. The fluorescence quenching phenomenon was observed for both D-(+)- and L-(-) histidine when interacting with Zn-PLA.

4.3. Detection of DNA and RNA

DNA and RNA take part an important role in physiological regulation. Therefore, the level of nucleic acid can give the information about the diseases and can help to diagnose diseases and monitoring biological process. The field of biosensors has been drawn attention to accurate and rapid diagnosis of viral diseases. Viruses pose a severe threat to human life and health, making the detection of viruses essential for preventing and treating associated diseases. The other infectious viral diseases, such as Coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2) and Monkeypox virus (MPXV) has been particularly alarming since the beginning of 2020, leading to the loss of thousands of lives worldwide. As a result, timely and accurate virus detection has become a crucial aspect to combat the outbreaks (Isidro *et al.* 2022, Pastula *et al.* 2022, V'kovski *et al.* 2021). n-MOF based biosensors are extensively developed for detection of DNA and RNA for rapid diagnosis of viral diseases due to its unique properties of possessing high surface area, adjustable pore size and ease in modification.

Research on MOFs for DNA or biomolecule detection remains quite limited. Typically, organic linkers utilized in MOFs possess a conjugated π -electron system, which provides potential sites for forming hydrogen bonds. These interactions enable suitable binding between MOFs and single-stranded DNA (ssDNA). Consequently, MOFs hold promise as candidates for recognizing DNA molecules through fluorescence changes. Traditional DNA detection methods rely on the hybridization of complementary single-strand DNA with each other (Bauer *et al.*, 2017). However, this approach necessitates the prior generation of single-stranded DNA before analysis (Smith *et al.*, 1984). Recent years, triplex DNA technology has attracted considerable attention.

Zhu *et al.* (2013) first developed the two dimensional (2D) n-MOFs for the detection of HIV-1 DNA sequences with high selectivity and sensitivity by incorporation of triplex-forming oligonucleotide with $[\text{Cu}(\text{H}_2\text{dtoa})]_n$. In this particular investigation, researchers employed MOFs as the sensing platform to detect double-stranded DNA (ds-DNA) in vitro, specifically targeting HIV 16-bp oligopyrimidine-oligopurine proviral DNA. For this purpose, they selected N, N'-Bis(2-hydroxyethyl) dithiooxamida to copper(II) (H_2dtoaCu) as an exemplary MOF due to its two-dimensional sheet structure. The H_2dtoaCu units were linked in parallel through intermolecular hydrogen bonds, forming a structure wherein a Cu^{2+} ion was surrounded by two S, two N, and one Cu atom. Following this study, the researchers continued their exploration by fabricating various MOFs for detecting virus DNA or RNA. For instance, they utilized the ligands $\text{H}_3\text{CmdcpBr}$, $\text{H}_3\text{CbdcpBr}$, and H_2dcbbBr to create a series of water-stable MOFs such as $[\text{Cu}_3(\text{Cmdcp})_2(\text{dps})_4(\text{H}_2\text{O})_4(\text{SO}_4)]_n$, $\{[\text{Dy}(\text{Cmdcp})(\text{H}_2\text{O})_3] \cdot (\text{NO}_3)_2 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}\}_n$, $\{[\text{Zn}(\text{HCbdcp})_2] \cdot \text{H}_2\text{O}\}_n$ and $[\text{Cu}(\text{dcbb})_2]_n$ (Qin *et al.*, 2016; Yang *et al.*, 2015; Zhao *et al.*, 2016a, Zhao *et al.*, 2016b).

In 2014, Ye *et al.* introduced a novel biosensor that combines a two-dimensional MOF called N,N-bis(2-hydroxyethyl)dithiooxamidato copper(II) (H_2dtoaCu) with hairpin-structured oligonucleotides showcasing its potential for detecting multiple sequence-specific DNA targets. The main element of this biosensor, referred to as MOF-MBs, is the hairpin-structured fluorescent oligonucleotide. This unique design allows the MOFs to serve as both a nanoscaffold for the oligonucleotide and a nanoquencher of the fluorophore, enabling effective and sensitive detection of specific DNA sequences. Model systems included a reverse-transcription RNA oligonucleotide sequence of HIV (T2) and a wild-type HBV (T1) oligonucleotide sequence. Dye fluorescence was recovered by forming a double-strand structure while the targets were present. Synchronous scanning fluorescence spectrometry is capable of performing multiplex DNA detection showing no cross-reaction between the two probes. Recent years, MOF based technology has been widely exploited as a sensing platform for effective detection of various viruses involving HIV ss-DNA (Pan *et al.* 2018), HIV ds-DNA (Chen *et al.* 2013), H5N1 virus (Wei *et al.* 2013), Sudan virus (Yang *et al.* 2015), Respiratory syncytial virus (Guo *et al.* 2015), Ebola virus (Qin *et al.* 2016), Dengue virus (Xie *et al.* 2018), Zika virus (Xie *et al.* 2018) and Hepatitis A virus (HAV) (Luo *et al.* 2020) etc.

In 2014, Zhang *et al.* developed an amine-functionalized MOF known as UiO-66-NH₂ (UiO-University of Oslo). This MOF served as a highly effective fluorescent sensing platform for DNA detection. The biosensor demonstrated exceptional capabilities in distinguishing between complementary and mismatched target sequences, exhibiting both high selectivity and sensitivity. The free single-stranded DNA (ssDNA) labeled with a fluorophore at its 5' end emitted strong fluorescence at 518 nm ($\lambda_{\text{max}} = 480$ nm). However, when brought into proximity with UiO-66-NH₂, the aromatic nucleotide bases in the ssDNA and the MOF exhibited a noteworthy fluorescence quenching effect (off-state). This quenching was attributed to several factors, including electrostatic attractions, hydrogen bond interactions, and possibly photoinduced electron transfer. In a related work by Cui *et al.* in 2012, they constructed UiO-66-NH₂ using Zr(IV) and 2-amino-1,4-benzenedicarboxylic acid (NH₂-BDC), which resulted in a MOF with high chemical and thermal stability. The framework was composed of Zr₆O₄(OH)₄ oxoclusters interconnected by 12 NH₂-BDC ligands, forming a 3D network structure with tetrahedral and octahedral cages measuring 6 and 11 Å, respectively. These cages were accessible through microporous windows measuring 4–6 Å.

MOF-based technology has found applications in detecting microRNAs (miRNAs), which are emerging biomarkers used for diagnostics and prognostics. miRNAs are small, endogenous, non-protein-coding RNAs, typically comprising around 18 to 25 nucleotides, and are present in the genomes of plants, animals, and certain virus species (Cullen 2006, Landgraf *et al.* 2007, Mallory and Vaucheret 2006).

In 2015, Wu *et al.* introduced a novel sensing strategy utilizing n-MOFs conjugated with peptide nucleic acid (PNA) probes labeled with fluorophores, enabling the multiplexed detection of miRNAs in living cancer cells. The n-MOF acted as a fluorescence quencher for the labeled PNA, forming a strong binding with the metal. Upon the presence of target miRNA, the PNA was hybridized and released from n-MOF, leading to the restoration of fluorescence. This miRNA sensor facilitated quantitative and highly specific detection of multiple miRNAs in living cancer cells. Meanwhile, it allowed precise and real-time monitoring of changes in miRNA expression over space and time.

In 2016, Chen *et al.* developed a distinctive water-stable 3D dysprosium-based MOF using a zwitterionic carboxylate ligand called N-carboxymethyl-(3,5-dicarboxyl) pyridinium bromide (H3CmcpBr).

This MOF demonstrated the ability to interact non-covalently with probe single-stranded DNA (ss-DNA), serving as an efficient fluorescent sensing platform for detecting complementary Ebolavirus RNA sequences. Remarkably, the detection limit achieved by this MOF-based sensor was an impressive 160 pM.

4.4. Detection of Small Molecules

The detection and sensing of small molecules are crucial tasks in environmental science, medicinal science, life sciences, and the nuclear industry (Chan *et al.*, 2012; Changela *et al.*, 2003; Kong *et al.*, 2000; Waldron *et al.*, 2009). Over the years, numerous methods have been developed for this purpose. Among these methods, n-MOF approach has garnered attention due to its rapid and accurate detection of trace amounts of impurities. Particularly, Luminescent MOFs have been extensively studied for its highly sensitive response to small organic molecules, metal ions and anionic ions (Cui *et al.*, 2012a, 2014b; Hu *et al.*, 2016).

The interactions between these n-MOFs and guest molecules or ions are strongly influenced by factors such as chemical composition, pore size and surface environment of n-MOFs. These unique properties render n-MOFs highly suitable for selective uptake, recognition, and detection of specific molecules or ions. Remarkably, the presence of guest components within MOFs can either enhance or reduce the luminescent emission of the framework as observed in studies by Lustig *et al.* (2017), Wen *et al.* (2016), and Zhang *et al.* (2016). This characteristic provides several advantages, including improved sensitivity, selectivity, response time, and excellent anti-interference performance. Additionally, n-MOFs exhibit remarkable recyclability and operability comparable to traditional methods, as demonstrated by Liu *et al.* (2015) and Lustig *et al.* (2017). Certain n-MOFs exhibit strong luminescent signals with visible emission colors, making them highly promising candidates for chemical sensors.

Among the various n-MOFs, lanthanide-based MOFs (Ln-MOFs) show particular promise for such applications. These Ln-MOFs offer unique optical properties including excellent color purity, visible color detectable with the naked eye, a large Stokes shift value and relatively long luminescence lifetimes attributed to f-f transitions facilitated by an "antenna effect" (Hu *et al.*, 2014; Li *et al.*, 2014; Zhao *et al.*, 2015). For instance, Wang *et al.* (2017) developed a luminescent Eu(III)-based metal-organic framework using 5-(2-carboxy-phenoxy)-1,3-benzenedicarboxylic acid and 1,10-phenanthroline as an efficient fluorescent sensor for detecting metal ions.

This sensor exhibited high selectivity for detecting Fe^{3+} , PO_4^{3-} , and F^- in an aqueous medium, with a long excitation wavelength of 348 nm.

Similarly, Zhao *et al.* (2015) designed a luminescent porous Terbium(III)-metal-organic framework $[\text{Tb}_3(\text{L})_2(\text{HCOO})(\text{H}_2\text{O})_5]\cdot\text{DMF}\cdot 4\text{H}_2\text{O}$ [H_4L = 4,4'-(pyridine-3,5-diyl)diisophthalic acid] for sensing metal cations and small molecules. In this n-MOF model, the unsaturated pyridyl group acts as an excellent functional site for responding to metal cations and small Lewis acidic molecules. The rigid ligand, H_4L , enables the formation of robust porous frameworks. Furthermore, the pure and sharp green emission from Tb^{3+} cations, arising from characteristic 4f electronic transitions, serves as a sensitive optical signal in this system.

All organisms require iron species because they function as cofactors in key cellular functions such as respiration, DNA synthesis and repair, ribosome biogenesis, and metabolism. But as fluorescence imaging technology develops, it becomes more difficult to probe iron ions properly (Fleming 2009; Takahashi-Makise *et al.* 2009; Que *et al.* 2008).

By inserting Eu^{3+} cations into the pores of MIL-53-COOH (Al) nanocrystals, Zhou *et al.* (2014) demonstrated how to fabricate a luminous lanthanide-functionalized MOF. The parent framework's sensitization and protection allowed these Eu^{3+} -incorporated n-MOFs to demonstrate exceptional luminescence and fluorescence stability in water. It was the first time that Fe^{3+} was detected using a lanthanide-functionalized n-MOF, and the resulting Eu^{3+} coupled nanocrystals shown to be a highly sensitive and selective probe for detecting Fe^{3+} in aqueous solutions.

In a related investigation, Lu *et al.* (2014) created the effective n-MOF-253s n-MOF for detecting Fe^{2+} . According to their findings, these n-MOF-253s exhibited extremely sensitive and focused sensing capacities for Fe^{2+} in aqueous conditions. They created three types of n-MOF-253s with varying particle sizes (range from 300 to 50 nm) by altering the amount of base and acid in the reaction system. In HeLa cells, the 50 nm n-MOF-253 was successfully used for intracellular Fe^{2+} detection. The MOF-253 structure consists of an infinite one-dimensional chain of bpydc (bpydc = 2,20-bipyridine-5,50-dicarboxylic acid) linkers that connect corner-sharing AlO_6 octahedra to form rhombic-shaped pores.

In an inorganic host (tetraethoxysilane), Zheng *et al.* (2011) proposed a novel terbium 2-(3-pyridyl) imidazole-4,5-dicarboxylic acid complex for sensing HSO_4^- and F^- anions. Similarly, Cai *et al.* (2011) designed a terbium(III) coordination polymer $\{\text{Tb}_3(\mu_3\text{-HPyIDC})_4(\text{H}_2\text{O})_8\}\cdot\text{NO}_3\cdot 4\text{H}_2\text{O}\}_n$ (H_3PyIDC = 2-(4-pyridyl)-1H-imidazole-4,5-dicarboxylic acid) which exhibited selective identification for Fe^{3+} ions.

In order to detect $\text{Fe}(\text{III})$, Liu *et al.* (2017) developed an effective luminous sensing method based on a lanthanide-MOF based on 4,5-imidazole dicarboxylate. Additionally, Yue *et al.* (2014) created 3D-MOF, $\{[\text{Cd}_2(\text{p-ClPhHIDC})_2(4,4'\text{-bipy})]\cdot\text{H}_2\text{O}\}_n$ (4,4'-bipy = 4,4'-bipyridine), including the selective ligand 2-(4-chlorophenyl)-1H-imidazole-4,5-dicarboxylic acid (p-ClPh H_3IDC), which displayed specific recognition properties for pyridine.

In order to create highly sensitive and precise iron(III) sensors, Zhang *et al.* (2018) created two luminous transition-MOF: $[\text{Cd}(\text{p-CNPhHIDC})(4,4'\text{-bipy})0.5]\}_n$ (1) and $[\text{Zn}(\text{p-CNPhHIDC})(4,4'\text{-bipy})]\}_n$ (2) (4,4'-bipy = 4,4'-bipyridine). These n-MOFs demonstrated remarkable fluorescence quenching-based selective sensing for Fe^{3+} ions as well as resistance to interference from other metals and quick reaction times.

While luminescent porous MOFs functionalized with -COOH groups, responsive to metal ions such as Hg^{2+} , Ba^{2+} , Cu^{2+} , Cd^{2+} , and others, remain relatively limited in development (Gu *et al.* 2018, Li *et al.* 2017, Tseng *et al.* 2012), functionalized MOFs (-NH₂, -OH, -CHO, and -N₃) have been widely used in various metal ion detection systems. Ji *et al.* (2019) developed two distinctive anion channel-type n-MOFs with the molecular formula $\{[\text{Et}_2\text{NH}_2][\text{M}1.5(\text{Ina})(\text{HIna})(\mu_2\text{-OH})(\text{TPTC})0.5]\}_n$ (M = Co-SXNU-J1, Ni-SXNU-J2, SXNU = Shanxi Normal University) under solvothermal conditions employing $\text{M}(\text{Ac})_2\cdot 4\text{H}_2\text{O}$ and mixed ligands of H_4TPTC (p-terphenyl-3,3',5,5'-tetracarboxylic acid) and (HIna) isonicotinic acid. The blue luminescence of these MOFs revealed promising luminescence sensor properties for the targeted and accurate detection of Fe^{3+} .

Among various pollutants documented in the literature, organic solvents, organochlorine pesticides, and heavy metal ions are significant contributors to environmental pollution. Toxic heavy metals are continuously released into the environment due to agricultural and development and expansion of chemical industries.

The source intake of contaminants with toxic metals leads to various health issues including DNA damage and overall damage to the central nervous system (Liu *et al.* 2020, Ma *et al.* 2020). Additionally, chemicals like acetylacetone (Hacac) and nitrobenzene (NB) are extremely toxic and acutely carcinogenic, posing environmental risks and human health hazards (Esrafil *et al.* 2021, Kang *et al.* 2019, Liu *et al.* 2020, Yang *et al.* 2020). Overuse of organochlorine pesticides (OCPs) during plantation due to high demand for cereal and vegetable production also contributes to environmental concerns. To ensure environmental safety, rapid and selective detection of trace amounts of these harmful pollutants is crucial. The unique properties of MOF nanostructures make them highly sensitive in MOF-based sensors, as they facilitate the adsorption of a large number of target analytes, thereby providing enhanced detection capabilities.

Rudd *et al.* (2016) and Chen *et al.* (2016) presented an isorecticular series of Zn-based Luminescent MOFs that acted as sensitive and selective biosensors for detecting heavy metal ions (Hg^{2+} and Pb^{2+}) in water at very low concentrations. Wu *et al.* (2017) and Gu *et al.* (2017) developed Zn- and Cd-based Luminescent MOFs to create luminescent sensors for sensing Mn^{2+} and $\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_7^{2-}$ ions, respectively. Marieeswaran and Panneerselvam (2020) designed a novel fluorescent biosensor, comprising a magnetic nanoscale metal-organic framework (Mn-MOF) functionalized with fluorescein amidite (FAM)-labeled ssDNA, which exhibited excellent sensitivity and selectivity for Hg(II) cations over other co-existing metal ions. Lin *et al.* (2013) successfully developed Fe_3O_4 @MOF (MIL-53(Fe)) for degrading organic pollutants.

Shi *et al.* (2016) demonstrated two dimethylphenyl imidazole dicarboxylate-based lanthanide MOFs for luminescence sensing of benzaldehyde. Yue *et al.* (2014) synthesized a new 3D MOF, $\{[\text{Cd}_2(\text{p-ClPhHIDC})_2(4,4'\text{-bipy})]\cdot\text{H}_2\text{O}\}_n$ (4,4'-bipy = 4,4'-bipyridine), using a newly designed ligand, 2-(4-chlorophenyl)-1H-imidazole-4,5-dicarboxylic acid (p-ClPhH₃IDC), for selective pyridine detection in samples.

Yan *et al.* (2017) designed highly selective luminescent metal MOFs for the detection of nitrobenzene and Fe^{+3} ions. They prepared the MOFs using V-shaped rigid multicarboxylate 2,4-di(3',5'-dicarboxylphenyl)benzoic acid (H5L) and Cd(II) salts in various solvent systems, resulting in the formation of three different coordination fashions and a diversity of targeted MOFs.

Chen *et al.* (2017) fabricated Copper(II) based metal MOFs (CP-MOFs) for detecting aniline. CP-MOF [$\text{Cu}_4(\text{tdhb})$] (BUT-155) displayed great porosity, high hydrolytic stability, and high performance for selectively adsorbing soft base type aniline over water or phenol, with a detectable color change for the MOF.

Xu *et al.* (2016) developed novel n-MOFs for sensing ratiometric oxygen in live cells, using a phosphorescence/fluorescence dual-emissive n-MOF, R-UiO, containing a Pt(II)-porphyrin ligand as an O_2 -sensitive probe and a Rhodamine-B isothiocyanate (RITC) ligand as an O_2 -insensitive reference probe.

Su *et al.* (2017) designed 2D zirconium-based MOF nanosheets embedded with Au nanoclusters (2D AuNCs@521-MOF) for detecting cocaine employing the bio-affinity of nanosheets toward biomolecule-bearing phosphate groups to immobilize a large amount of cocaine aptamer strands forming a biosensitive platform for cocaine detection.

Jia *et al.* (2020) developed a MOF/aptamer system as a fluorescent biosensor for detecting aflatoxin B1 in food samples. The fluorescent aptasensor utilized metal-organic frameworks (UiO-66- NH_2) and TAMRA-labeled aptamer as a sensing platform for AFB1 detection, based on changes in fluorescence signal upon aptamer binding to AFB1. Zhang *et al.* (2020) derived a novel MOF-hierarchical ZnO structures as efficient sensing materials for detecting formaldehyde.

Hao *et al.* (2015) used MIL-121 to develop a fluorescent probe for detecting hippuric acid (HA) in urine, employing Eu ions introduced into the MIL-121 channels to create fluorescent Eu^{3+} @MIL-121, suitable for analyzing HA in human urine.

Zhu *et al.* (2015) developed a sensitive biosensor for dopamine (DA) based on the catalytic chemiluminescence of HKUST-1, observing that HKUST-1 enhanced the chemiluminescence intensity of the luminol- H_2O_2 system, which was inhibited by DA. Wang *et al.* (2015) utilized carbon-functionalized Al-MIL-53-(OH)₂ for ultrasensitive determination of DA, creating a Nafion/C/Al-MIL-53-(OH)₂ modified electrode as an electrocatalyst for DA oxidation.

4.5. Application on Clinical Diagnostics

The definite amounts of physiological species are playing a significant role to cellular functions and normal physiological activities.

The detection of physiological biomarkers is crucial for identifying metabolic disorders or pathological disturbances. Timely and precise diagnosis through qualitative or quantitative methods is essential for effective treatment and preventing severe conditions (Xu *et al.*, 2022). Recently, n-MOF biosensors have gained attention for their unique properties, especially in fluorescence-based detection, which offers high sensitivity, selectivity, and real-time response (Zhang *et al.*, 2020; Wang *et al.*, 2018; Li *et al.*, 2019). Many n-MOF-based fluorescent nanoprobe have been developed as biosensors, capable of recognizing and transducing signals from guest species (Wu *et al.*, 2020; Wang *et al.*, 2019).

Cancer poses a significant threat to health worldwide causing millions of deaths annually (Ding *et al.*, 2020). Early cancer diagnosis is crucial for improving treatment outcomes and saving lives (Abánades Lázaro *et al.*, 2019). n-MOFs have been extensively synthesized and studied for cancer detection. For instance, Kong *et al.* (2020) developed a green-emission Zr(IV)-MOF (BUT-88) nanoprobe (drDNA-BUT-88) that could precisely detect dual tumor biomarkers (MUC-1 and miRNA-21) in breast cancer cells (MCF-7 cells) with high sensitivity. Sheta *et al.* (2019) used a magnetic n-MOF-based platform (Cu-MOFNPs) for early diagnosis of liver cancer through quantification of alpha-fetoprotein (AFP) in serum samples from healthy and hepatitis patients. Bian and his coworkers (2015) created a novel theranostic platform for cancer diagnosis and treatment, combining Fe₃O₄@polyacrylic acid/Au nanoclusters/zeolitic imidazolate framework-8 nanoparticles (Fe₃O₄@PAA/AuNCs/ZIF-8 NPs). Additionally, Gao *et al.* (2017) employed Fe-MIL-53-NH₂-FA-5-FAM/5-FU DDS as a theranostic platform for detecting cancer cells using fluorescence imaging of FA-positive cancer cells (MGC-803 cells).

Afzalnia and Mirzaee (2020) designed a novel La(III)-MOF combined with silver nanoparticles (Ag NPs) as a fluorescence resonance energy transfer (FRET) strategy for detecting MicroRNA-155 (miRNA-155) expression levels as a cancer biomarker. Wang *et al.* (2014) studied the electro-chemical behavior of adenine and guanine using Cu₃(BTC)2-MOF, which interacted with DNA base pairs through π - π stacking which enable the distinction of different base pairs. Moreover, MOFs have been reported as excellent signal amplifiers in MOFTA sensors for detection of breast cancer cells (Wang *et al.*, 2019; Luan *et al.*, 2018; Chen *et al.*, 2017).

To achieve early and accurate cancer diagnosis, simultaneous detection of multiple tumor biomarkers is essential (Munawar *et al.*, 2023, Guo *et al.* 2020, Wang *et al.* 2021, Zhou *et al.* 2022, Hu *et al.* 2021, Li *et al.* 2021, Biswas *et al.* 2021, Zhang *et al.* 2019, Bhardwaj *et al.* 2017, Ehzari *et al.* 2020, Tang *et al.* 2022, Yola *et al.* 2021, Sheta *et al.* 2019). Chang *et al.* (2019) developed a novel MOFs-based homogeneous electrochemical biosensor for simultaneous detection of multiple tumor biomarkers. The functionalized MOFs used porous UIO-66-NH₂ as nanocontainers to load electroactive dyes with dsDNA acting as a receptionist to cap the MOFs.

A serious hazard to human health is diabetes, a chronic disease that affects people all over the world. Type I (T1DM) and type II (T2DM) diabetes are two types that are distinguished by insulin insufficiency. Diabetes is often discovered by checking the body's levels of exhaled acetone or blood glucose. Due to their distinctive characteristics, MOFs have attracted interest for acetone detection (Chen *et al.*, 2014).

Chang and his colleagues (2020) created a new MOF for acetone detection called ZnO@MoS₂ nanosheets core/shell heterojunctions. Due to the quick gas diffusion rates in the porous MoS₂ nanosheets, the n-MOF system responded to acetone with response times of 9 s/17 s at 500 ppb and 60 s/40 s at 5 ppb. The MOF makes an effective sensor for diabetes diagnosis since the green emission is quenched in the presence of acetone.

To measure blood glucose, Wang *et al.* (2020) created a nanohybrid MOF based on nickel and cobalt. The nickel/cobalt (NiCo) alloy nanoparticles were created by pyrolyzing a bimetallic (Ni and Co) framework (NiCo-MOF) at 800°C in a nitrogen environment. In the meantime, Wei *et al.* (2013) created a hybrid non-enzyme sensor for glucose detection called the Co-MOF/CC/Paper.

By in situ growing AuNPs inside MIL-101, Hu *et al.* (2017) created two GOx/ lactate oxidase (LOx)-loaded MOF-based biosensors with good selectivity and sensitivity for monitoring glucose and lactic acid in living tissues. Fe-MIL-88B-NH₂ (Fe-MOF) biosensor for ultrasensitive glucose detection in human serum was created by Zhu and colleagues (Xu *et al.* 2019). Fe-MOF-GOx was created by immobilizing GOx on Fe-MIL88B-NH₂ by covalent binding caused by EDC/NHS.

4.6. Application in Drug Delivery System

MOFs have garnered significant interest as primary drug delivery carriers due to their exceptional drug loading capacity. The physical properties of MOFs, such as void volume, surface area, pore size, and structural dynamics, play a crucial role in efficiently loading drugs into the material (Horcajada *et al.*, 2006). The release of drug molecules from MOFs involves a reaction-diffusion mechanism rather than a pure diffusion approach (Han *et al.*, 2012). Fick's first and second laws of diffusion, commonly used for quantitatively describing diffusional mass transfer, are also applicable to nanoporous materials like MOFs (Titze *et al.*, 2015). The interaction of guest molecules with MOFs is of significant importance in the reaction-diffusion process. MOFs can have either rigid or flexible pores, depending on the alignment of guest-host interactions and the MOF structure (Horcajada *et al.*, 2010). Some drug molecules, such as Ibuprofen and others can induce changes in the unit cell structures of MOFs when loaded, resulting in "swelling" behavior (McKinlay *et al.*, 2013; Pham *et al.*, 2020).

Chemical stability is crucial in drug delivery systems over time. Various parameters, including pH value, buffer composition, nanoparticle size, and surface adaptation, play a critical role in controlling MOF stability. Chemical stability in MOFs refers to their ability to maintain long-range ordered structures in specific environments. Two main ways of measuring material degradation are decomposition to the original building blocks and amorphization. The stability of MOFs depends on factors like pH, time, and temperature, and the optimal stability is influenced by the intended application and drug administration route.

MOFs with ligands containing aromatic structures exhibit favorable π -stacking interactions, enabling the loading of molecules like rhodamine, mitoxantrone, doxorubicin, and 5-fluorouracil (Jarai *et al.*, 2020; Rojas *et al.*, 2016; Vasconcelos *et al.*, 2012; Nazari *et al.*, 2016). Small drug molecules and nucleic acids interact with the surface of MOFs, typically co-precipitating during one-pot synthesis methods, leading to even distribution throughout the mesopores of MOFs (Chen *et al.*, 2017; Hidalgo *et al.*, 2020; Wang, 2017).

Caffeine, a liporeductor and amphiphilic drug, has been combined with MOFs to create cosmetic-containing composites and MOF-based patches for cosmetic applications (Márquez *et al.*, 2016).

Studies have investigated the encapsulation of caffeine drugs in MOFs like ZIF-8 and MIL-88B_2OH, showing differences in delivery rates based on MOF interactions (Liedana *et al.*, 2012; Gaudin *et al.*, 2012). pH-sensitive MOFs have been developed for drug delivery, demonstrating controlled drug release and photothermal efficiency (Su *et al.*, 2022; Zhuang *et al.*, 2014).

In various studies, MOFs like UiO-66, MIL-88, and ZIF-8 have been utilized as drug delivery systems for a range of therapeutic agents, including photosensitizers, chemotherapy drugs, and hydrophilic fluorescent molecules (Wu *et al.*, 2020; Yao *et al.*, 2021; Orellana-Tavra *et al.*, 2015). These studies highlight the potential of MOFs as versatile drug delivery carriers with tunable properties for various biomedical applications.

In summary, the utilization of MOFs as biosensors in the medical domain shows tremendous potential in transforming disease diagnosis, monitoring, and treatment. Ongoing research and development efforts are poised to propel the integration of MOF-based biosensors into mainstream clinical applications, leading to substantial progress in personalized healthcare solutions.

V. CHALLENGES AND FUTURE PROSPECTS OF NANOSCALE MOFs AS BIOSENSORS

n-MOFs have emerged as promising materials for biosensing applications due to their unique properties. However, several challenges need to be addressed to fully exploit the potential of n-MOFs as biosensors. Additionally, there are exciting future prospects for further enhancing their performance and expanding their applications. Let's discuss both the challenges and future prospects in detail:

5.1 Challenges of Nanoscale MOFs as Biosensors:

1. **Selectivity and Specificity:** Biosensors based on n-MOFs should exhibit high selectivity and specificity towards target analytes. Achieving selective molecular recognition within the porous structure of MOFs can be challenging, particularly in the presence of complex biological samples. Functionalization of MOFs with appropriate recognition elements, such as aptamers or antibodies, can enhance selectivity and specificity but requires careful design and optimization.
2. **Stability and Degradation:** One of the key challenges is the stability of n-MOFs in complex biological environments.

MOFs are typically synthesized under controlled conditions, but they can be prone to degradation or structural collapse when exposed to various physiological conditions, such as changes in pH, temperature, or the presence of enzymes. Stability enhancement strategies, including surface modifications and encapsulation techniques, need to be developed to ensure the long-term stability of MOFs in biosensing applications.

3. *Biocompatibility and Cytotoxicity:* Before MOFs can be widely used in biological systems, it is essential to evaluate their biocompatibility and potential cytotoxic effects. Some MOFs may release metal ions or organic linkers, which can be toxic to cells. Comprehensive biocompatibility studies are required to assess the safety of n-MOFs and minimize any adverse effects on living organisms.

4. *Signal Transduction and Detection Limits:* Efficient signal transduction and detection methods are crucial for biosensing applications. Incorporating suitable transduction elements, such as fluorescence, electrochemistry, or SERS is necessary for converting the molecular recognition event into a measurable signal. Additionally, improving the sensitivity and detection limits of MOF-based biosensors is important for the accurate detection of analytes, especially in low-concentration samples.

5.2 Future Prospects of Nanoscale MOFs as Biosensors

1. *Multifunctional MOFs:* Researchers are actively exploring the integration of different functionalities into MOFs to expand their biosensing capabilities. This includes incorporating catalytic sites for simultaneous sensing and catalysis, introducing luminescent or plasmonic properties for enhanced signal transduction, or integrating nanomaterials for synergistic effects. Multifunctional MOFs can enable more versatile and efficient biosensing platforms.

2. *Stimuli-Responsive MOFs:* Stimuli-responsive MOFs can undergo structural changes in response to external stimuli, such as temperature, pH, or the presence of specific molecules. These dynamic properties can be harnessed to develop smart biosensors with on-demand control and improved sensitivity. Stimuli-responsive MOFs offer the potential for real-time monitoring and selective release of analytes, leading to enhanced biosensing performance.

3. *In vivo Applications:* The development of n-MOFs as biosensors for in vivo applications holds significant promise. By combining the unique properties of MOFs with the ability to target specific tissues or cells, MOFs can be used for real-time monitoring of biological processes, disease diagnosis, and drug delivery. In vivo biosensing with MOFs can provide valuable insights into complex biological systems and enable personalized medicine approaches.

4. *Integration with Nanotechnology:* n-MOFs can be integrated with other nanomaterials and nanotechnologies to create hybrid biosensing platforms with enhanced performance. For example, coupling MOFs with nanoparticles or nanowires can improve signal amplification, sensitivity, and multiplexing capabilities. Integration with microfluidics, nanoelectronics, or wearable devices can lead to portable, point-of-care biosensing systems with high precision and convenience.

In summary, while nanoscale MOFs show great potential as biosensors, addressing the challenges related to stability, biocompatibility, selectivity, and signal transduction is essential for their successful implementation. However, with ongoing research and technological advancements, the future prospects of n-MOFs as biosensors look promising, offering exciting opportunities for advanced sensing capabilities in various fields, including healthcare, environmental monitoring, and food safety.

VI. CONCLUSION

In conclusion, nanoscale MOFs exhibit tremendous promise as biosensors in medical applications. Their exceptional characteristics, including high surface area, adjustable porosity, and versatile functionality, position them as compelling candidates for various sensing and diagnostic purposes in healthcare. By effectively addressing challenges related to stability, biocompatibility, selectivity, and signal transduction, n-MOFs can be harnessed to great effect in medical settings. The future outlook for n-MOFs as biosensors in medical applications is highly promising. Advancements in the development of multifunctional MOFs, which integrate catalytic, luminescent, or plasmonic properties, can unlock enhanced sensing capabilities. Stimuli-responsive MOFs offer the potential for precise and controlled diagnostics through real-time monitoring and selective analyte release.

Furthermore, by integrating MOFs with nanotechnology, such as nanoparticles or wearable devices, portable and point-of-care biosensing systems can be created, enabling rapid and accurate medical diagnostics. In medical applications, n-MOFs can find application in in vivo monitoring, disease diagnosis, and targeted drug delivery. Their ability to target specific tissues or cells, coupled with their high sensitivity, allows for real-time monitoring of biological processes and early detection of diseases. Additionally, the integration of MOFs with other nanomaterials and nanotechnologies has the potential to enhance their performance, enabling advanced sensing capabilities and personalized medicine approaches. Thus, n-MOFs as biosensors possess the potential to bring about revolutionary advancements in medical diagnostics and monitoring.

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Declaration Of Competing Interest

We, the authors of the publication titled "Nanoscale MOFs as Biosensors in Medical Application" thus declare that the work featured in the above review paper is original. Furthermore, we affirm that the work provided has not previously been published or is currently being considered for publication in any other journals.

Credit Author Statement

Ankita Saini and Monalisa Bourah: Conceptualization, Data curation, Visualization, Investigation, Writing-Original draft preparation, Writing- Reviewing and Editing. Sunil Kumar Saini: Visualization, Investigation, Supervision, Validation.

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