

## REVIEW

# Metal-organic Frameworks for Electrochemical and Electrochemiluminescent Immunoassay

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## Abstract

Development of ultrasensitive, highly accurate and selective immunosensors is significant for the early diagnosis, screening, and monitoring of diseases. Electrochemical and electrochemiluminescent (ECL) immunoassays have both attracted great attention and become a current research hotspot due to their advantages such as good stability, high sensitivity and selectivity, wide linear range, and good controllability. Metal-organic frameworks (MOFs), as a new class of porous crystalline materials, have been widely applied in electrochemical and ECL immunosensors owing to their large specific surface area, good chemical stability, as well as adjustable pore size and nanoscale framework structures. Various MOF nanomaterials with different properties for the development of high-performance electrochemical and ECL immunosensors can be achieved, because they can be applied as sensitive platforms for immobilizing biological recognition molecules, enriching the trace analytes and signal molecules, amplifying the signal and enhancing the sensitivity of the electrochemical or ECL immunoassays. This review summarizes various types of MOFs-based immunosensors and their assays application, in which MOFs act as electrode matrices, signal probes (either as electroactive labels or as emitter labels), carriers or catalytic labels for sensitive electrochemical and ECL detections. Moreover, challenges and future opportunities for the development of the functionalized MOFs are discussed to provide a guidance on the design and fabrication of high-performance MOFs-based immunosensors in the future.

**Keywords:** Metal organic frameworks; Electrochemical immunosensors; Electrochemiluminescent immunosensors; Immunoassays

## 1. Introduction

Every year, tens of millions deaths occur due to various diseases, such as cancer [1,2], cardiovascular dysfunction (CVD) and chronic respiratory disease (CRD) [3,4]. Early diagnosis has revealed to be an effective route to prevent diseases and enhance survival rates [5,6]. Since clinical studies have proven that biomarker levels correlate well with the severity of the diseases, the sensitive determination of biomarkers is necessary for early diagnosis. Immunosensors, as an important sub-branch of biosensors, employ antibody as a recognition

element, which can meet the requirements of specificity and rapidity [7,8]. Conventional immunoassays based on enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA) [9,10], chemiluminescence [11,12], fluorescence [13,14], electrochemiluminescence (ECL) [15,16] and electrochemistry [17] have been successfully developed. Among these methods, electrochemical immunoassays have attracted much attention due to their advantages of simple and miniaturized instrumentation, rapid and sensitive detections, and low-costs [18,19]. Furthermore, ECL is also a powerful tool for immunoassay by integrating electrochemical, photoelectrochemical and

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spectroscopic techniques, which involves the electron-transfer reactions of electro-generated species to form excited states that emit light [16]. To improve performances and increase functions of immunosensors, many studies have mainly focused on signal amplification and noise reduction because of the weak electrochemical activities of antigen and antibody [20]. To date, various materials have been introduced to amplify the electrochemical signals and obtain the high sensitivity, such as enzyme [9], nanomaterials [21], highly branched polymers [22] and traditional redox compounds [18]. Nanomaterials have been proven to be outstanding because of their small size effects, and unique optical, electrical, magnetic, mechanical and catalytic properties. As “the most promising materials” of the 21st century, nanomaterials not only can be used as the signal amplification labels on electrochemical immunosensors, but also as a modifier of electrodes to create nanostructure surfaces with fast electron transfer and low background current.

To effectively amplify sensitivity, all kinds of nanomaterials have been applied in electrochemical immunoassays, including carbon nanomaterials [23], semiconductor quantum dots [24], noble metal nanoparticles [25,26] and porous materials [27]. In particular, metal-organic frameworks (MOFs) [28], as a new class of crystalline porous materials, possess advantages over other nanomaterials including their good biocompatibility, excellent catalytic activity and tunable structure, composition and pore size, which show fascinating physical/chemical properties and widespread applications [29], especially in electrochemical immunosensing [17]. For example, the merits of good biocompatibility and large surface area of MOFs make them easy to conjugate or load multifarious biomolecules (i.e., antigen, antibody or enzyme), nanoparticles and electroactive tags [30]. Moreover, some conductive MOFs or MOF composites can promote electron transfer between biological elements and electrode surfaces [31]. Most importantly, MOFs with tunable structure, high porosity, and controllable hydrophilic and hydrophobic pore nature exhibit highly efficient catalysis under mild conditions, which offer a new window for electrochemical immunoassays [32]. Indeed, MOFs have been widely used in immunoassay and made unbelievable progress in the past decade, promoting the development of immunoassays.

Until now, numerous excellent reviews that focus on the synthesis methods and functional applications of MOFs, such as catalysis, energy, gas storage and separation, electron and optoelectronic devices, drug/cargo delivery and cancer therapy, have been published [33]. In recent years, the rise

in the popularity of MOFs-based composites has led to numerous papers utilizing the MOFs-based materials for electrochemical applications [34,35]. Thus, this review will highlight the development of electrochemical immunoassays based on MOFs over the past few years, including individual and multifunctional immunosensing platforms. In addition, research in the fields of ECL immunoassays with MOFs is also summarized. Finally, this review provides an outlook for the development of electrochemical and ECL immunosensing MOF platforms, and their potential clinical applications.

## 2. MOFs for electrochemical immunoassay

### 2.1. MOFs as matrices for label-free electrochemical sensing

Electrode materials are vital for fabricating electrochemical immunosensors, because they are not only responsible for improving the electronic transmission rate to enhance the electrochemical signal, but also for increasing specific electrode surface area to immobilize more antibodies or electroactive molecules [20]. MOFs-based compounds have been proven as promising electrode materials for anchoring various biomolecules or probes [36]. For example, on the base of  $\text{SiO}_2@\text{UiO}-66$  nanocomposite, Mehmandoust's group [37] developed a label-free electrochemical immunoassay for rapid and selective detection of SARS-CoV-2 spike protein (SARS-CoV-2 S-protein) by electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) (Fig. 1), which showed a range of  $100.0 \text{ fg} \cdot \text{mL}^{-1}$  to  $10.0 \text{ ng} \cdot \text{mL}^{-1}$  with a detection limit (LOD) of  $100.0 \text{ fg} \cdot \text{mL}^{-1}$ . This as-prepared sensor can directly analyze the electrochemical interactions between the viral protein and electrode-electrolyte interface of the sensor. Li et al. [38] utilized  $\text{ZrOCl}_2$  as a metal precursor and 5,10,15,20-tetra(4-aminophenyl) porphyrin as an organic ligand to prepare a Zr-TAPP MOF nanocarrier for label-free impedimetric immunoassay of neuron-specific enolase (NSE). The Zr-TAPP MOFs presented strong affinity to the NSE antibody due to the amino groups, Zr(III) coordination centers and  $\pi$ - $\pi^*$  bonds, resulting in a wide linear range of  $10.0 \text{ fg} \cdot \text{mL}^{-1}$  to  $2.0 \text{ ng} \cdot \text{mL}^{-1}$  and a low LOD of  $7.1 \text{ fg} \cdot \text{mL}^{-1}$  for sensitive NSE determination.

As proven in previous reports, the isostructural bimetallic MOFs exhibited good stability and excellent biocompatibility for various biosensors [39]. For example, Song et al. [40] reported an impedimetric immunosensor based on a bimetallic CoNi-MOFs for sensitive detections of deoxynivalenol (DON) and salbutamol (SAL), measuring

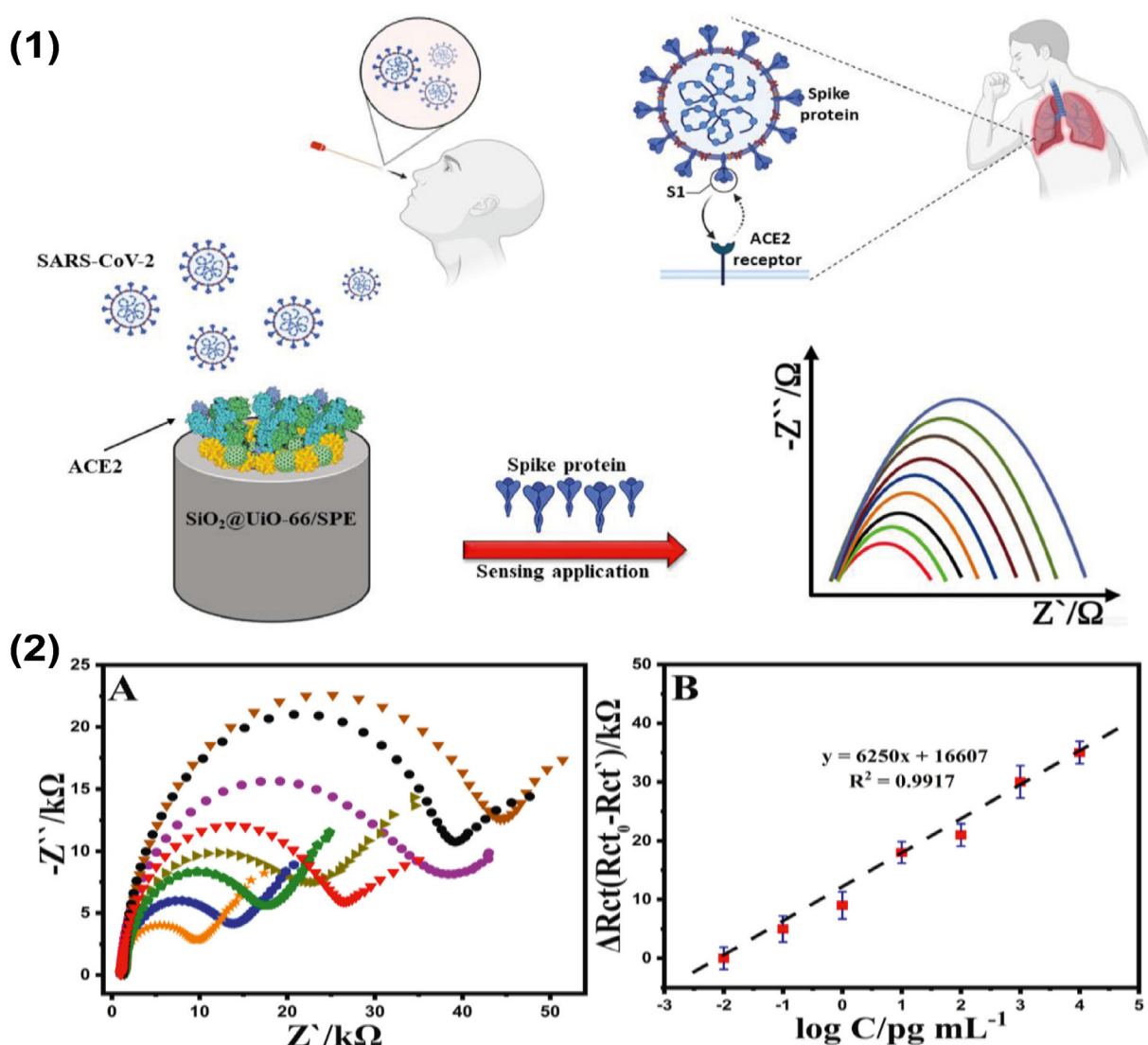


Fig. 1. (1) Schematic of the preparation and act mechanism of immunosensor. (2) Nyquist plots obtained with  $\text{SiO}_2@\text{UiO-66}/\text{SPCE}$  at various concentrations of SARS-CoV-2 protein S-protein (A) and the plot of logarithm concentrations against  $\Delta R_{ct}$  (B). Reproduced with permission of Ref. [37], copyright 2022 Elsevier B.V.

by EIS in  $[\text{Fe}(\text{CN})_6]^{3-/4-}$  solution to evaluate the performance of immunosensor. The values of charge transfer resistance ( $R_{ct}$ ) obtained from the Nyquist plots of immunosensor gradually increase along with increasing the DON/SAL concentrations, which is a consequence of the efficient immune recognition of DON/SAL by immunosensor, via the increased formation of  $\text{Ab}_{\text{DON}}\text{-DON}/\text{Ab}_{\text{SAL}}\text{-SAL}$  complex at the modified electrode surface. Thus, the variation of  $R_{ct}$  values ( $\Delta R_{ct}$ ) for the developed immunosensor before and after DON/SAL detections is proportional to the logarithm value of the DON/SAL concentration. The CoNi-MOFs with a small particle size and a good electrochemical activity were synthesized by using the mixed organic linkers of 4-(1H-tetrazol-5-yl) benzoic acid ( $\text{H}_2\text{TZB}$ ) and 2,4,6-tri(4-pyridyl)-1,3,5-

triazine (TPT), presenting an excellent bioaffinity toward analytes due to the  $\pi\text{-}\pi^*$  stacking, and the electrostatic interaction between the carboxyl groups of CoNi-MOF and the amino groups of antibodies. Thus, this electrochemical immunosensor realized the high immobilization amounts of antibodies and high sensitivity with low detection limits of 0.05 and 0.30  $\text{pg}\cdot\text{mL}^{-1}$  toward, respectively, DON and SAL in the concentration range of 0.001–0.5  $\text{ng}\cdot\text{mL}^{-1}$ .

Metal nanoparticles with excellent catalytic property and unique structure, can be combined with MOFs as a good electrode substance for the enhancement of electrochemical signals and the immobilization of biomolecules [41]. For example, Tang and co-workers [17] used the platinum nanoparticles (PtNPs) and 2D Zn-Hemin MOF

composites to conduct a label-free electrochemical immunosensing platform for sensitive detections of pig immunoglobulin G (IgG) and surface-protective antigen (Spa) protein of *Erysipelothrix rhusiopathiae*. The PtNPs/Hemin-MOFs modified on the electrode surface not only served as the peroxidase mimics to catalyze the  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  due to the existence of iron active sites in hemin and PtNPs, but also acted as an anchor to capture the antibody. The electrochemical signal from the immunoelectrode gradually weakened with increasing the concentration of antigen, because more specific binding sites of antigen decreased in the specific recognition progress. Thus, the as-prepared electrochemical immunosensor for IgG and Spa detections is in wide ranges with low LODs. Cao's group [42] reported an electrochemical immunosensor based on AuNPs@ZIF-8 and multiwalled carbon nanotubes (MWCNTs) nanocomposites as support for detecting the alpha fetoprotein (AFP) in serum. The AuNPs@ZIF-8@MWCNTs with excellent electrical conductivity acted as an ideal nanocarrier to increase target molecular loading due to their large surface area and abundant binding sites, which can enhance electrochemical signals for sensitive AFP detection in the range of  $0.1 \text{ pg} \cdot \text{mL}^{-1}$  to  $100 \text{ ng} \cdot \text{mL}^{-1}$  with a low LOD of  $0.033 \text{ pg} \cdot \text{mL}^{-1}$ .

## 2.2. MOFs as labels for sandwich-type electrochemical sensing

### 2.2.1. MOFs used as electroactive labels

MOFs can be directly used as electroactive labels to amplify the electrochemical signal in a sandwich-type immunosensor. MOFs can be specifically coupled to the surface of modified electrode after immunoreaction. Generally, to monitor the target concentrations, some acidic solutions are utilized to dissolve the MOFs to metallic ions (e.g.,  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$  and  $\text{Ag}^+$ ), and then these dissolved ions are sensitively detected by the anodic stripping voltammetry (ASV). As shown in Fig. 2, Xie's group [43] employed the carboxyl groups of HKUST-1 to immobilize the secondary antibody of NT-proBNP for biolabeling, and the  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$  in the HKUST-1 biolabel was detected by linear sweep ASV (LSASV) in  $0.1 \text{ mol} \cdot \text{L}^{-1} \text{ HNO}_3 + 1 \text{ mol} \cdot \text{L}^{-1} \text{ NaCl}$  directly on the immunoelectrode. Then, the oxidation peak current of Cu increased gradually with the increase of NT-proBNP protein concentration from  $0.5 \text{ fg} \cdot \text{mL}^{-1}$  to  $500 \text{ ng} \cdot \text{mL}^{-1}$ , and the LOD was  $0.33 \text{ fg} \cdot \text{mL}^{-1}$  ( $S/N = 3$ ). Some other examples are listed in Table 1.

### 2.2.2. MOFs used as electrocatalytic labels

Recently, various MOFs have been employed as efficient electrocatalytic labels in electrochemical immunoassays for enhancing the detection of

biomolecules, which are more convenient and lower cost than that of the enzyme-involving amplified assay strategies.

A series of MOFs, such as based on iron and copper, can effectively trigger the reaction rate of Fenton-like reaction [18]. For example, Liu et al. [47] fabricated an electrochemical immunosensor using  $\text{Cu}_3(\text{BTC})_2$  (BTC = benzene-1,3,5-tricarboxylic acid) MOF as nonenzymatic label conjugated secondary antibody for sensitive detection of prostate specific antigen (PSA). The highly electrocatalytic activity of the  $\text{Cu}_3(\text{BTC})_2$  MOF toward  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  provides amplified sensitivity of immunosensor, achieving a wide linear range from  $0.1$  to  $10 \text{ ng} \cdot \text{mL}^{-1}$  with LOD of  $0.025 \text{ ng} \cdot \text{mL}^{-1}$  for the detection of PSA, which is attributed to its catalytic and coordination sites on the Cu(II) centers. Due to the existence of copper active sites, the Cu-MOFs conjugated with glucose oxidase (GOx) and antibody were used to develop a cascade catalysis-initiated radical polymerization with impedimetric immunosensor for detection of carbohydrate antigen 15-3 (CA15-3) (Fig. 3) [48]. When GOx catalyzed the oxidation of glucose to generate  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$ , Cu-MOFs subsequently catalyzed the  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  to react with acetylacetone (ACAC) and yielded ACAC radicals for the in-situ formation of poly(N-isopropylacrylamide) (PNIPAM) with poor conductivity on the substrate, which can hinder the charge transfer of  $[\text{Fe}(\text{CN})_6]^{3-/4-}$  and elevate the resistance difference. This designed immunosensor for CA15-3 displayed wide detection ranges of  $10 \text{ } \mu\text{U} \cdot \text{mL}^{-1} - 10 \text{ mU} \cdot \text{mL}^{-1}$  and  $10 \text{ mU} \cdot \text{mL}^{-1} - 100 \text{ U} \cdot \text{mL}^{-1}$  with low LOD of  $5.06 \text{ } \mu\text{U} \cdot \text{mL}^{-1}$ .

In order to improve the catalysis of  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$ , some multifunctional Fe-MOFs immunoprobes were fabricated with metal nanocomposites, such as AuNPs [49],  $\text{MoS}_2$  [50], which holds great promise for sensitive signal amplification in electrochemical immunoassays. Besides these, Zhang et al. [51] developed an electrochemical immunosensor for microcystin-LR detection by AuNPs@MIL-101 (Cr(III)-MOFs) immunoprobes, which owns strong catalytic properties to the oxidation of ascorbic acid (AA). This competitive microcystin-LR immunosensor showed a linear range of  $0.05 \text{ ng} \cdot \text{mL}^{-1} - 75 \text{ } \mu\text{g} \cdot \text{mL}^{-1}$  with LOD of  $0.02 \text{ ng} \cdot \text{mL}^{-1}$ .

### 2.2.3. MOFs used as carriers

With the high porosity, good stability, large specific area and surface easy functionalization, MOFs have become ideal carriers to load various biomolecules, multipurpose nanocomposites, and multiple of electroactive labels for enhancing the signal response of the electrochemical immunosensors [52]. These biomolecules and nanocomposites not only can be modified in the cavity



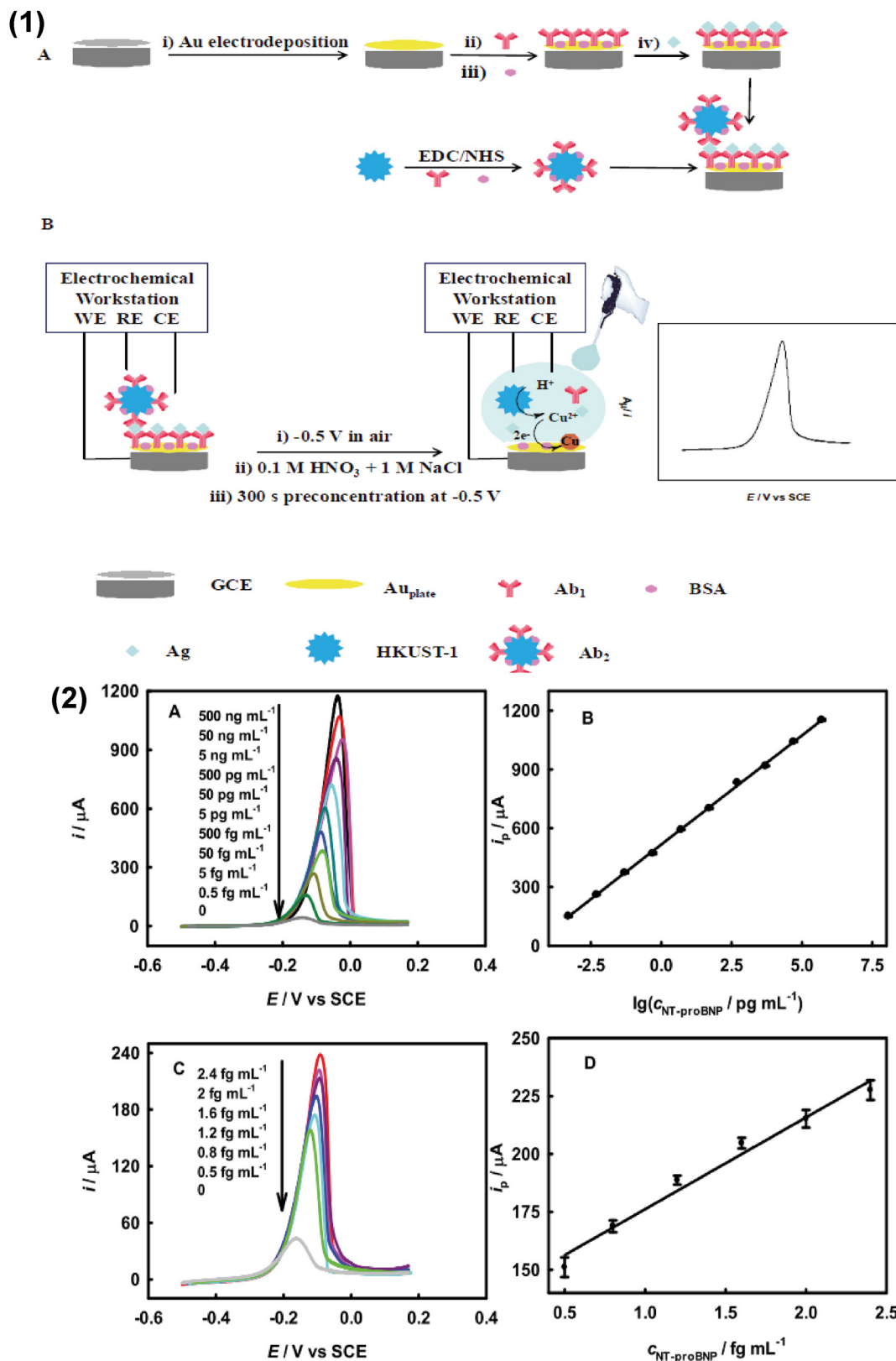


Table 1. MOFs as electroactive labels for electrochemical immunoassays.

Sensor material	Target	Linear range (ng·mL <sup>-1</sup> )	LOD (ng·mL <sup>-1</sup> )	Ref.
HKUST-1 Cu-MOFs	NT-proBNP	$0.5 \times 10^{-6}$ –500	$0.33 \times 10^{-6}$	[43]
Ag-MOFs	CEA	0.05–120	$8 \times 10^{-6}$	[44]
AuNPs/Cu-MOFs	C-reactive protein	1–400	0.2	[45]
AuNPs/Cu-MOFs	CEA	0.1–80	0.03	[46]

NT-proBNP: amino-terminal pro-B-type natriuretic peptide; CEA: carcinoembryonic antigen.

of MOF, but also can be connected on the surface of MOF. Besides that, the electroactive molecules, such as organic carboxylates and multi-nitrogen compounds, also can act as the organic linkers in MOFs by oxygen- or nitrogen-coordination.

Frequently, these immobilized biomolecules are the antibody and enzyme molecules [53]. For example, Ma's group [54] employed ZIF-8 as a carrier to absorb thionine and bovine serum albumin (BSA), which acted as an anchor to attach the labeling secondary antibody (Ab<sub>2</sub>) and alkaline phosphatase (ALP) to improve the detection performance of the electrochemical immunosensor for carbohydrate antigen 72-4 (CA 72-4) (Fig. 4). Because, in the presence of CA72-4 on a sandwich immunosensor, a cascade reaction chain was introduced to deposit silver nanoparticles (AgNPs) under the catalysis, improving the conductivity of electrode interface. Thus, this immunosensor presented good performance with a linear range from

1.00  $\mu\text{U} \cdot \text{mL}^{-1}$  to 10.0  $\text{U} \cdot \text{mL}^{-1}$  and a LOD of 0.438  $\mu\text{U} \cdot \text{mL}^{-1}$  ( $S/N = 3$ ). On the base of i-motif DNA structure modified UiO-66-NH<sub>2</sub>, Feng et al. [55] designed an electrochemical immunosensor of squamous cell carcinoma antigen (SCCA) through a proton-activated annunciator for responsive release of methylene blue (MB). A ZIF-8 immunoprobe contained GOx was used to catalyze the glucose and then produced the protons, which acted as the key to unlock the i-motif functionalized UiO-66-NH<sub>2</sub> and released the loaded MB electroactive molecules, improving the electrochemical response. Under the optimal conditions, this immunosensor displayed good performance with a linear range from 1  $\mu\text{g} \cdot \text{mL}^{-1}$  to 1  $\text{pg} \cdot \text{mL}^{-1}$  and a LOD of 1.504  $\text{fg} \cdot \text{mL}^{-1}$  ( $S/N = 3$ ). As mentioned above, MOFs can be modified with biomolecules to prepare labels and construct electrochemical immunosensors. Nevertheless, the signal amplification ability is limited.

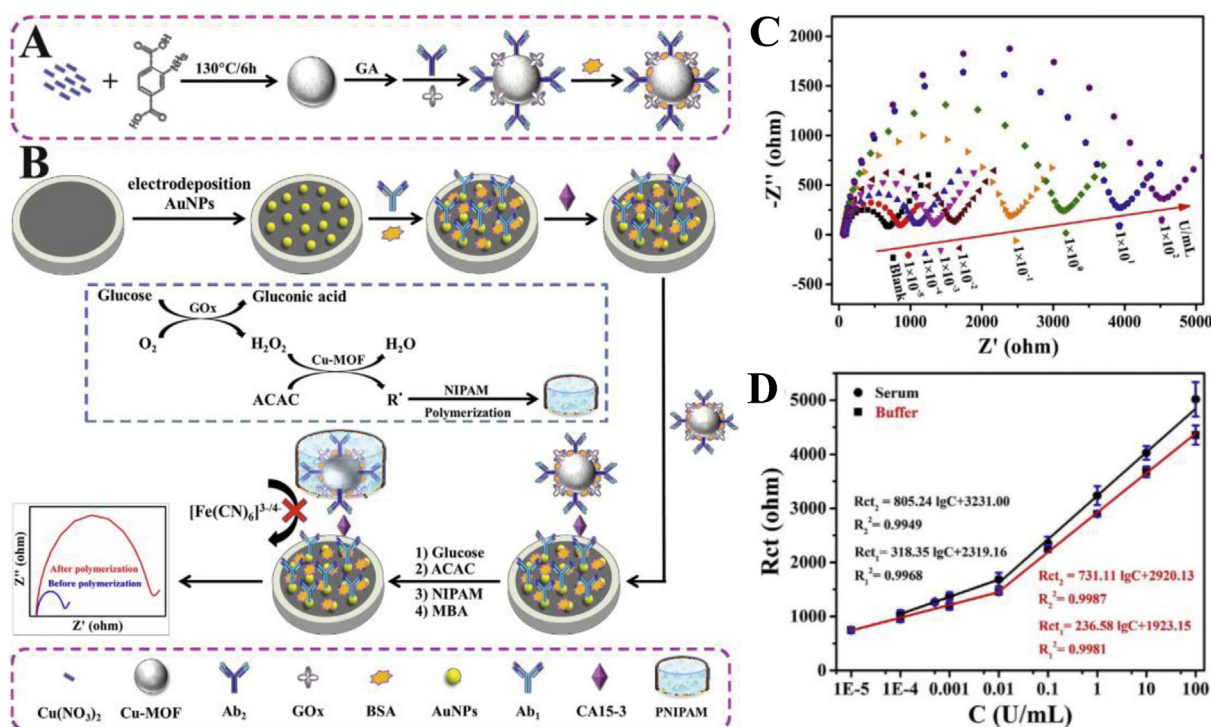


Fig. 3. Schematic illustrations of preparation process of immunoprobes (A) and cascade catalysis-initiated radical polymerization triggered signal amplification for electrochemical detection of CA15-3 (B). (C) EIS responses of electrochemical biosensor for target CA15-3 from blank to 100  $\text{U} \cdot \text{mL}^{-1}$  in buffer solution. (D) The calibration curves of resistance values vs. the concentrations of CA15-3 in buffer solution (■) and human serum (●). Reproduced with permission of Ref. [48], copyright 2019 Elsevier B.V.

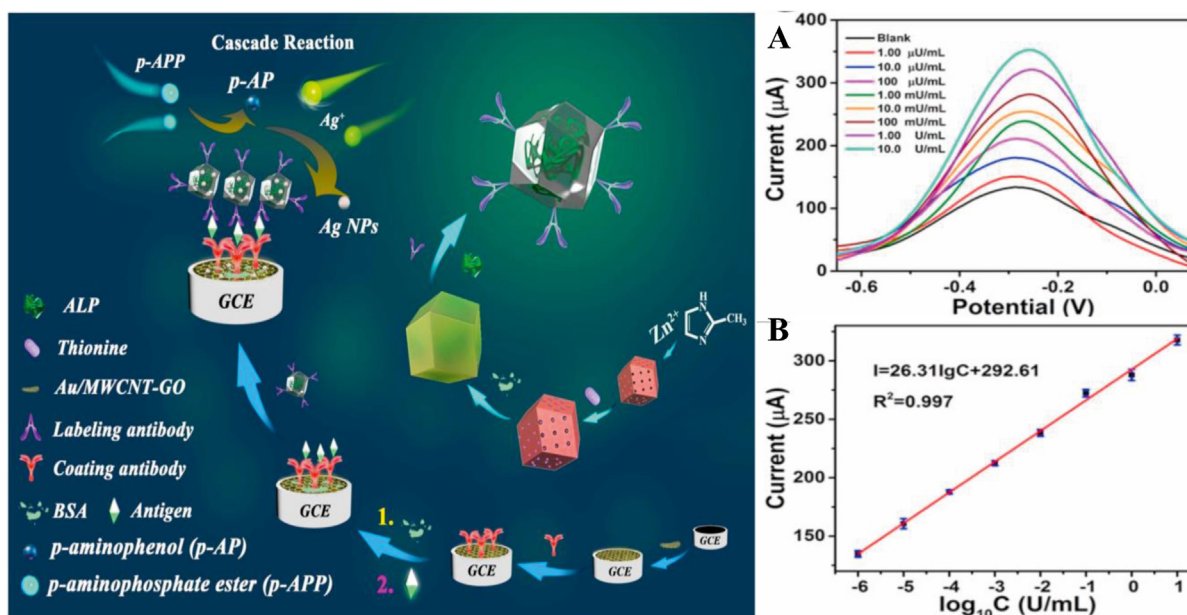


Fig. 4. Construction steps and mechanism of immunosensor (left). (right) SWV responses of immunoassay for CA 72-4 in 1 mmol·L<sup>-1</sup> PBS (pH 7.5) at concentrations from 1.00  $\mu\text{U}\cdot\text{mL}^{-1}$  to 10.0  $\text{U}\cdot\text{mL}^{-1}$  (A); Calibration plot (B) between SWV peak current (0.18 V vs. Ag/AgCl) and logarithm values of CA 72-4 concentrations (the error bars are standard deviations for  $n = 3$ ). Reproduced with permission of Ref. [54], copyright 2021 Elsevier B.V.

The rapidly emerging research field of metal nanocomposites provides great possibilities to advance development of signal amplification strategies for sensitive electrochemical detection [21]. Generally, MOFs are combined with metal nanocomposites to improve the biocompatibility, catalytic ability and electrical conductivity. Li and co-workers [56] used hyaluronic acid (HA) modified Ce-MOFs as the skeleton precursor, loading with AgNPs and horseradish peroxidase (HRP) to catalyze  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$ , which can double amplify the electrochemical signal (Fig. 5 (left)). This immunosensor for CEA detection displayed a broad linear response range between 1  $\text{pg}\cdot\text{mL}^{-1}$  and 80  $\text{ng}\cdot\text{mL}^{-1}$ , and the LOD was at 0.2  $\text{pg}\cdot\text{mL}^{-1}$ . Qin's group [32] reported a sensitive electrochemical immunosensor for foot-and-mouth disease virus (FMDV) based on a simple strategy of in-situ selective growth CdS nanocrystalline on Zn-MOFs (Fig. 5 (right)). With increasing the target concentration, more Zn-MOFs- $\text{Ab}_2$  was fixed on the surface of immunosensor and then more CdS was deposited catalytically on the Zn-MOFs surface, which can increase the current intensity. Therefore, the immunoassay of FMDV showed a good linear response range from 0.5  $\text{fg}\cdot\text{mL}^{-1}$  to 5  $\text{ng}\cdot\text{mL}^{-1}$  with a LOD of 0.05  $\text{fg}\cdot\text{mL}^{-1}$  (see Fig. 6).

The electroactive molecules, such as ferrocene (Fc) and toluidine blue (TB), are the most commonly used electroactive labels, which usually combine with

MOFs through electrostatic interaction and covalent linkage, directly producing electrochemical signals. Han et al. [57] employed Fc confined in Zn-MOF (Fc-Zn-MOF) as an electrochemical signal tag to fabricate an immunosensor for sensitive amyloid- $\beta$  ( $\text{A}\beta$ ) detection, with a linear ranging from 0.1  $\text{pg}\cdot\text{mL}^{-1}$  to 100  $\text{ng}\cdot\text{mL}^{-1}$  and a detection limit of 0.03  $\text{pg}\cdot\text{mL}^{-1}$ . Liu and co-workers [58] fabricated a sandwich immunosensor for sensitive detection of CEA by using TB loaded Cu-MOFs with polydopamine (PDA) coating (Cu-MOFs-TB/PDA) as a signal probe, and chitosan and MWCNTs on the glassy carbon electrode (GCE) to immobilize antibody. HCl was used to destroy the immune complex and probe, resulting in the increased response current because of the closer distance between TB and the electrode. Thus, CEA was detected with a linear range from 20  $\text{fg}\cdot\text{mL}^{-1}$  to 200  $\text{ng}\cdot\text{mL}^{-1}$  and a LOD of 3  $\text{fg}\cdot\text{mL}^{-1}$  ( $S/N = 3$ ). Lu's group [59] employed Nile Blue, as a kind of redox-active species, decorated ZnNi-MOF (NB@ZnNi-MOF) spheres immobilized with human chorionic gonadotropin (HCG)  $\text{Ab}_2$  for signal amplification, consequently fabricated a three-dimensional CoNi-MOF nanosheet array-based immunosensor for sensitive monitoring of HCG with core-shell NB@ZnNi-MOF nanotags. This HCG immunosensor displayed a wide linear range from 0.005  $\text{mIU}\cdot\text{mL}^{-1}$  to 250  $\text{mIU}\cdot\text{mL}^{-1}$  and a low LOD ( $1.85 \times 10^{-3}$   $\text{mIU}\cdot\text{mL}^{-1}$ ) detection.



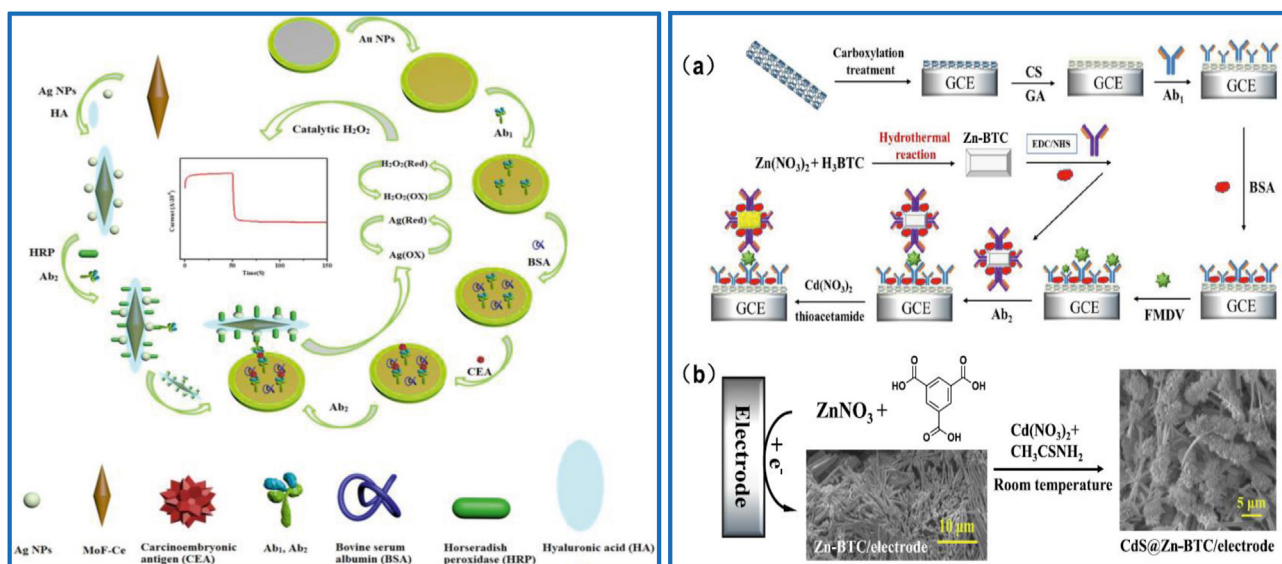


Fig. 5. (left) A schematic of sensitive detection of CEA by a sandwich-type electrochemical immunosensor using MOF-Ce@HA/Ag-HRP-Ab<sub>2</sub> as a nanoprobe. Reproduced with permission of Ref. [56], copyright 2020 IOP Publishing. (right) A schematic diagram of immunosensor construction (a) and preparation of CdS@Zn-BTC modified electrode (b). Reproduced with permission of Ref. [32], copyright 2021 Elsevier B.V.

### 2.3. MOFs as labels for simultaneous electrochemical immunoassays of multiple biomarkers

The simultaneous determination of multiple biomarkers plays an important role in early diagnosis and screening of disease. Zhang et al. [60] designed a strategy for the simultaneous determination of CEA and AFP by using two aminated MOFs prepared from Pb(II) or Cd(II) and 2-aminoterephthalic acid to label the Ab<sub>2</sub> for signal amplification. In a sandwich immunoassay, these two MOFs labels were dissolved by acid (HNO<sub>3</sub>) and then the contents of Pb<sup>2+</sup> and Cd<sup>2+</sup> were determined simultaneously to qualify CEA and AFP, respectively, in an ASV method. This assay has a linear range from 0.3 pg·mL<sup>-1</sup> to 3 ng·mL<sup>-1</sup> of both CEA and AFP, and the LODs are 0.03 pg·mL<sup>-1</sup> and 0.1 pg·mL<sup>-1</sup>, respectively, which may be widely applied to the simultaneous detection of multiple biomarkers in the future.

### 3. MOFs for ECL immunoassays

Although the high performance and the related analytical method of electrochemical immunosensors are expected to find wide applications in the detection of various biomarkers in complex biological samples, the sensitivity is not as good as an ECL immunosensor. ECL immunosensing platform has attracted much attention in analytical methods because of its low background signal, ease of operation, high sensitivity and fast response. In particular, MOFs coupled with ECL measurement have been focused on the various analyte detections.

#### 3.1. MOFs as an emitter for ECL immunoassay

The successful use of ECL immunoassay in clinical diagnosis requires development of novel ECL signal probes. Thus, some MOFs as ECL signal emitters in the ECL immunoassay have been reported [61]. For example, Wang et al. [62] prepared self-luminescent lanthanide (Ln)-MOFs (LMOFs) from precursors containing Eu(III) ions and 5-boronisophthalic acid (5-bop) to adjust optical properties and investigate the ECL emission mechanisms. Combined with the NiFe composites as a carrier, this LMOF as a signal probe exhibited excellent performance characteristics in an ECL immunoassay of Cytokeratins21-1 (cyfra21-1) with a LOD of 0.126 pg·mL<sup>-1</sup> (Fig. 7), which has great significance in the diagnoses of lung cancer, breast cancer and lung or esophageal squamous cell carcinoma. Ju's group [63] reported a signal amplification strategy for ECL immunoassay by employing Cu-doped terbium luminescent MOFs (Cu:Tb-MOFs) as an emitter and a coreaction promoter. On the base of the low electron transfer resistance of Cu:Tb-MOFs, a label-free ECL pro-gastrin-releasing peptide (ProGRP, a biomarker of small-cell lung cancer) immunosensor displayed good performance with a detection range between 1.0 pg·mL<sup>-1</sup> and 50 ng·mL<sup>-1</sup> with a LOD down to 0.68 pg·mL<sup>-1</sup> (3σ). Besides, Song et al. [64] employed 3,4,9,10-perylene-tetracarboxylic (PTC) as ligands to develop a Zn-PTC MOF as an effective ECL probe for trace detection of trenbolone (TBE). This Zn-PTC with the metal-to-ligand charge-transfer (MLCT) effect could



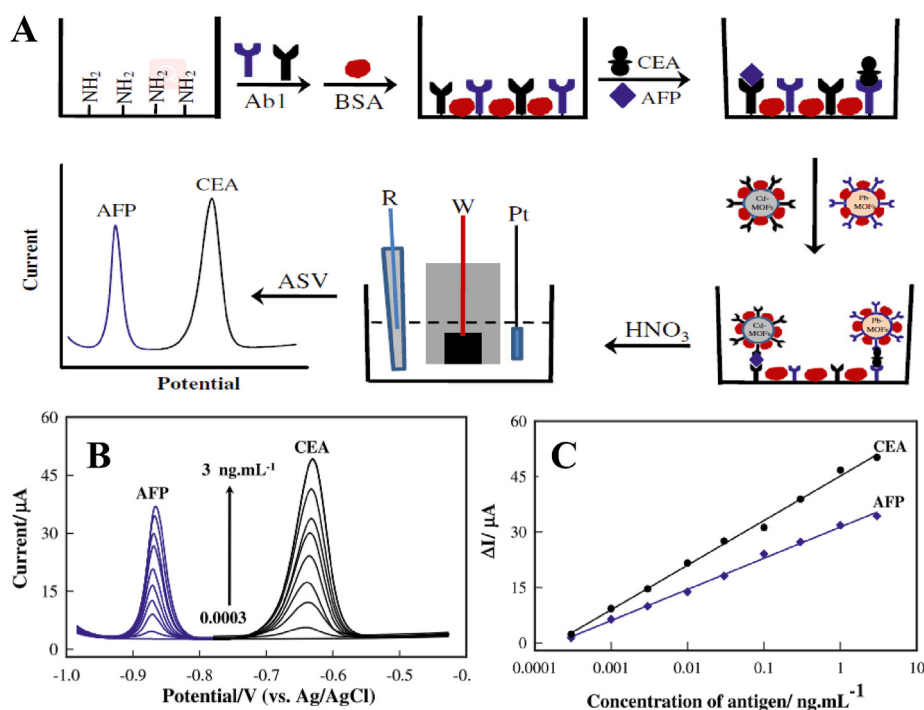


Fig. 6. (A) Schematic illustration of the stepwise immunoanalysis process. (B) Typical DPASV curves of the immunosensors for different AFP and CEA concentrations. (C) The resulting calibration curves of antigens plotted on a semilog scale. Reproduced with permission of Ref. [60], copyright 2017 Springer-Verlag GmbH Austria.

achieve the energy transfer from  $\text{Zn}^{2+}$  to the ligand for strong luminescence. Therefore, the constructed competitive immunosensor realized trace detection of TBE with a detection range from  $10 \text{ fg} \cdot \text{mL}^{-1}$  to  $100 \text{ ng} \cdot \text{mL}^{-1}$  and a low LOD of  $3.28 \text{ fg} \cdot \text{mL}^{-1}$ .

The embedding of *in situ* coreactant into ECL protocol can obviously enhance the ECL signal, and improve the detection sensitivity. Wei's group [65] constructed a dumbbell plate-shaped Zr-TCBPE MOF as ECL tags with high luminous efficiency by combining the 1,1,2,2-tetra(4-carboxylbiphenyl)ethylene ( $\text{H}_4\text{TCBPE}$ ) with Zr(IV) cations. Then, the uniquely self-enhanced ECL complex of Zr-TCBPE-PEI was formed by covalently connecting polyethyleneimine (PEI) as the coreactant with MOF, which presented the robust ECL signal thanks to the intramolecular-like coreaction acceleration. A sandwich-type ECL immunosensor was constructed for sensitive detection of neuron-specific enolase (NSE) with a LOD down to  $52 \text{ fg} \cdot \text{mL}^{-1}$ .

### 3.2. MOFs as a carrier for ECL immunoassay

At present, most of the reported methods have used MOFs as carriers to immobilize the typical ECL emitters or coreactants due to their ultrahigh surface area, high poriness and easy functionalization. For

example, Yang et al. [66] constructed a sensitive immunosensor by using an isorecticular MOF (IRMOF-3) accelerator enriched a large amount of CdTe QDs ( $\text{CdTe@IRMOF-3@CdTe}$ ) as a signal probe for the detection of trace cardiac troponin-I antigen (cTnI) (Fig. 8). This coreactant accelerates for promoting the conversion of coreactant  $\text{S}_2\text{O}_8^{2-}$  into the sulfate radical anion ( $\text{SO}_4^{\bullet-}$ ), which can boost the ECL emission of CdTe. Thus, the immunosensor using  $\text{CdTe@IRMOF-3@CdTe}$  labeled antibody as the signal probe displayed good performance for cTnI with a wide linear range from  $1.1 \text{ fg} \cdot \text{mL}^{-1}$  to  $11 \text{ ng} \cdot \text{mL}^{-1}$  and a low LOD of  $0.46 \text{ fg} \cdot \text{mL}^{-1}$ .

Among numerous illuminants,  $\text{Ru}(\text{bpy})_3^{2+}$  is a prevalent luminophore, which can be intergrated into the pores of the MOF structure and strongly absorbed on the surface of nanoparticles. Zhao et al. [79] fabricated a sensitive sandwich-type immunosensor for insulin detection, on the base of the resonance energy transfer (RET) between  $\text{UiO-67/Ru}(\text{bpy})_3^{2+}$  (ECL donor) and  $\text{Au@SiO}_2$  nanoparticles (ECL acceptor), resulting in a decreased ECL response. The ECL decrease efficiency was related to the concentration of insulin antigen in the range from  $0.0025$  to  $50 \text{ ng} \cdot \text{mL}^{-1}$  with a LOD of  $0.001 \text{ ng} \cdot \text{mL}^{-1}$ .

Coreactants for ECL system are also the key in the coreactant-involved approach. Thus, Shao's group [80] developed a strategy for *in situ* growth

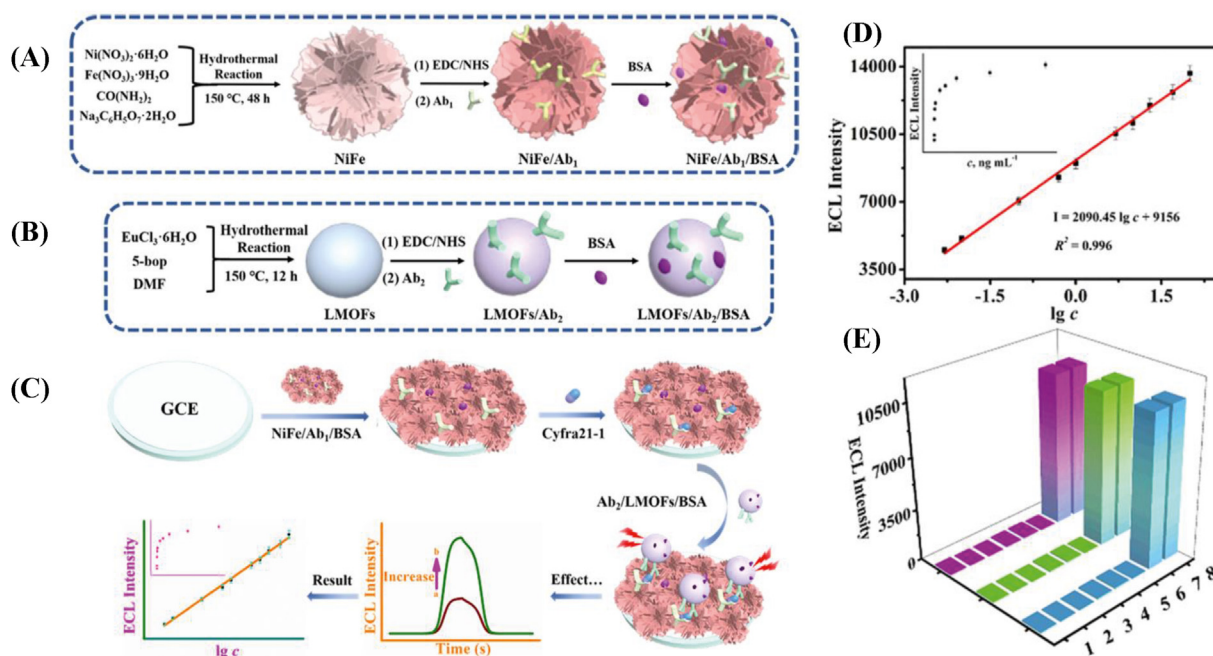


Fig. 7. Preparation of NiFe complex/Ab<sub>1</sub>/BSA bioconjugate (A), Ab<sub>2</sub>/LMOFs/BSA bioconjugate (B), and formation route of the suggested signal-enhanced ECL model (C). Working curve (D) of the signal-enhanced ECL detection model for different concentrations of cyfra21-1 (0.00500, 0.0100, 0.100, 0.500, 1.00, 5.00, 10.0, 20.0, 50.0, and 100 ng·mL<sup>-1</sup>). Selectivity (contents of cyfra21-1 and other interferences were 10.0 and 100 ng·mL<sup>-1</sup>, respectively). Error bars = SD (n = 3). (E) Plots of the ECL detection model. Reproduced with permission of Ref. [62], copyright 2021 American Chemical Society.

of the triethanolamine (TEOA)-functionalized MOFs (TEOA@MOFs) on the GO nanosheets, in which both TEOA and GO can act as the coreactant for Ru(bpy)<sub>3</sub><sup>2+</sup> ECL system. Then, a label-free ECL immunosensor based on the GO-TEOA@MOFs nanocomposites modified electrode was conducted for sensitive determination of human copeptin, and the linear range was from 5 pg·mL<sup>-1</sup> to 500 ng·mL<sup>-1</sup> with a LOD of 360 fg·mL<sup>-1</sup>. The research on this protocol is not as intense as that on electrochemical methods. However, ECL immunoassays generally exhibit higher detection sensitivity than electrochemical ones. As shown in Table 2, these representative examples proved that femtogram ultrasensitive detection of low-level analytes were achieved by MOFs-based ECL immunoassays.

#### 4. Conclusions and future prospects

MOFs, an attractive class of crystalline porous materials, have enriched the diversity of designing electrochemical and ECL immunosensors, which are of great importance to immunoassays and have attracted much attention from the academic communities. Various works above, prove the broadness of bio-functionalized MOF nanocomposites for the amplification of the electrochemical and ECL signals of immune recognition events, which can remarkably change the electrochemical or ECL

signal related to the content of biomarkers. To date, different designs and fabrication strategies for the development of MOF-based electrochemical and ECL immunosensors are described as the following. As an emitter or electroactive labels connected with antibody to obtain electrochemical or ECL signal.

1) As carriers for the biomolecules (e.g., antibody and enzyme), nanoparticles (e.g., AuNPs and AgNPs), and electroactive/ECL probes and signal molecules (e.g., metal ions, luminescent and electroactive molecules). As indicators to induce the deposition of CdS nanolabels.

2) As efficient catalytic labels for catalytic events, such as the catalytic reductions of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, oxygen and AA.

Nevertheless, there are still some challenges in order to obtain more highly effective MOF-based immunosensors. Firstly, the poor conductivity of these MOFs is always a limitation to restrict the electron transfer when they are modified on the surface of electrodes, resulting in the decreasing of electrochemical or ECL signals. To obtain a great sensitive and accurate immunosensor, conductive MOFs can be applied to promote the mass/electron transport efficiency. Secondly, the applications of MOFs in sensing, therapeutic or imaging are greatly hindered due to the lack of water-stable MOFs with sufficient catalytic activity. To achieve high performance in these applications, exploring

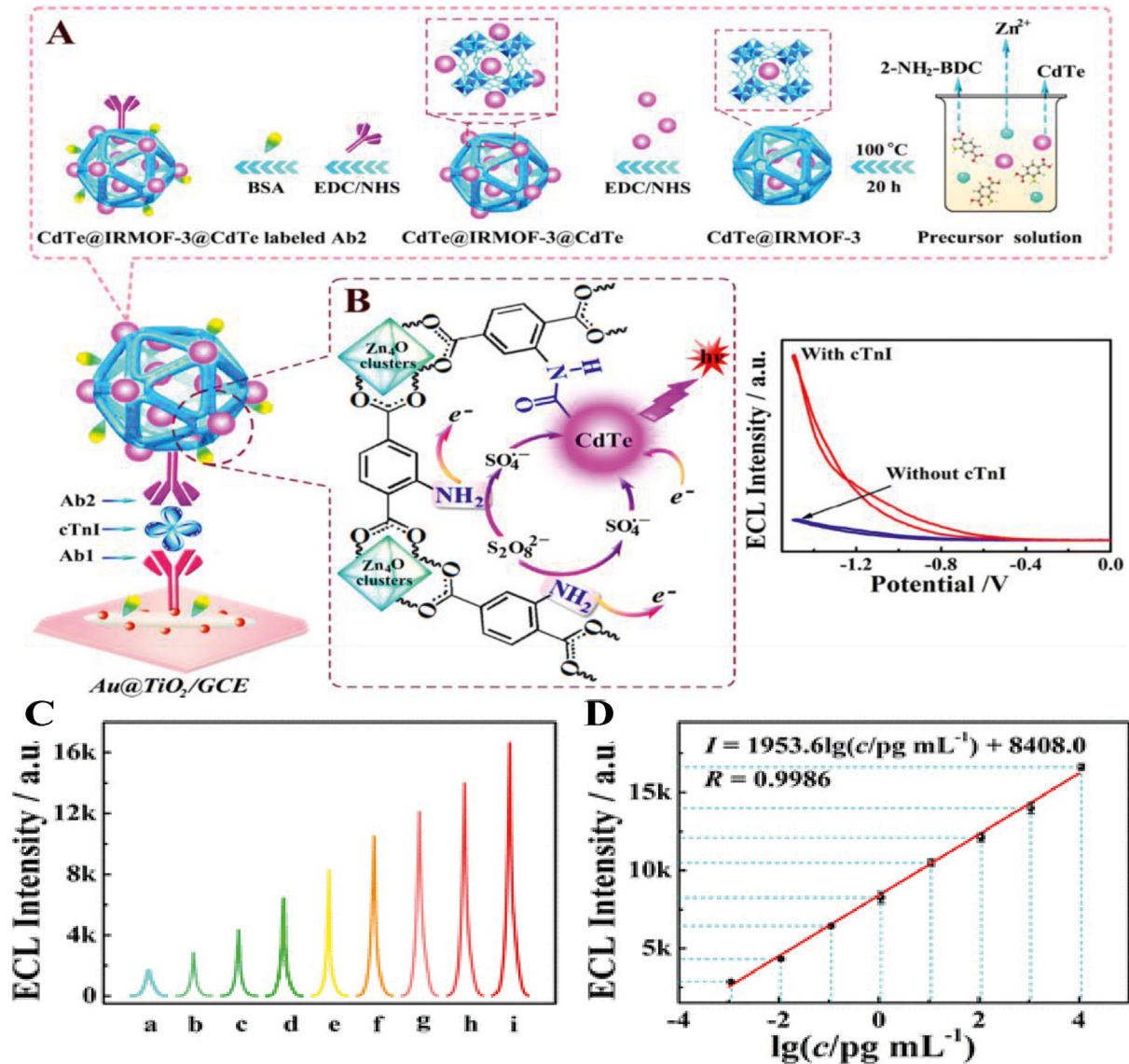


Fig. 8. (A) Preparation of the CdTe@IRMOF-3@CdTe labeled signal probe. (B) Possible mechanism of IRMOF-3 accelerator-mediated enhancement of cTnI detection in the CdTe/S<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub><sup>2-</sup> system. (C) ECL intensity-time plots of the proposed immunosensor incubated with cTnI at different concentrations: (a) 0, (b) 1.1 fg·mL<sup>-1</sup>, (c) 11 fg·mL<sup>-1</sup>, (d) 0.11 pg·mL<sup>-1</sup>, (e) 1.1 pg·mL<sup>-1</sup>, (f) 11 pg·mL<sup>-1</sup>, (g) 0.11 ng·mL<sup>-1</sup>, (h) 1.1 ng·mL<sup>-1</sup>, and (i) 11 ng·mL<sup>-1</sup>. (D) Calibration plot of the ECL intensity vs. the logarithm of cTnI concentration. Reproduced with permission of Ref. [66], copyright 2018 American Chemical Society.

Table 2. MOFs as carriers for ECL immunoassays.

Labeled composition	Surface	Target	Linear range	LOD	Ref.
Fe(III)-MIL-88 B-NH <sub>2</sub> @ZnSeQDs	electropolymerized dopamine MIP	SCCA	$0.1 \times 10^{-3} - 100 \text{ ng} \cdot \text{mL}^{-1}$	$31 \text{ fg} \cdot \text{mL}^{-1}$	[67]
SnS <sub>2</sub> QDs@MIL-101(Cr)	CuS/2D high porous carbon	Carbohydrate antigen 24-2	$0.1 \times 10^{-3} - 100 \text{ U} \cdot \text{mL}^{-1}$	$15 \text{ } \mu\text{U} \cdot \text{mL}^{-1}$	[68]
Ag <sup>+</sup> @UiO-66-NH <sub>2</sub> @CdWS	Au/rGO	PSA	$0.1 \times 10^{-3} - 10 \text{ ng} \cdot \text{mL}^{-1}$	$38 \text{ fg} \cdot \text{mL}^{-1}$	[69]
Ti(IV)-MIL-125	AgNCs-Sem@AuNPs	NT-proBNP	$2.5 \times 10^{-4} - 100 \text{ ng} \cdot \text{mL}^{-1}$	$0.11 \text{ pg} \cdot \text{mL}^{-1}$	[70]
Fe <sub>3</sub> O <sub>4</sub> @PDA-Cu <sub>x</sub> O	MIL-101(AI):Ru-PEI-Au	Procalcitonin	$5 \times 10^{-4} - 100 \text{ ng} \cdot \text{mL}^{-1}$	$0.18 \text{ pg} \cdot \text{mL}^{-1}$	[71]
Ru-MOFs	Pd@Au-L-Cys	Apo-A1	$1 \times 10^{-6} - 1.00 \text{ ng} \cdot \text{mL}^{-1}$	$1 \text{ fg} \cdot \text{mL}^{-1}$	[72]
MMOF@CdSnS	Ag@rGO	AFP	$1 \times 10^{-6} - 100 \text{ ng} \cdot \text{mL}^{-1}$	$0.2 \text{ fg} \cdot \text{mL}^{-1}$	[73]
Co-MOFs/ABEI	Fe <sub>3</sub> O <sub>4</sub> @PPy-Au	Aβ42	$1 \times 10^{-5} - 100 \text{ ng} \cdot \text{mL}^{-1}$	$3 \text{ fg} \cdot \text{mL}^{-1}$	[74]
/	Ce-MOF@g-C <sub>3</sub> N <sub>4</sub> /Au	NT-proBNP	$5 \times 10^{-3} - 20 \text{ ng} \cdot \text{mL}^{-1}$	$3.59 \text{ pg} \cdot \text{mL}^{-1}$	[75]
/	MOF-545-Zn@MoS <sub>2</sub> QDs	CEA	$0.18 - 1000 \text{ ng} \cdot \text{mL}^{-1}$	$0.45 \text{ pg} \cdot \text{mL}^{-1}$	[76]
/	Ru(bpy) <sub>3</sub> <sup>2+</sup> @UiO-66-NH <sub>2</sub>	CA15-3	$5 \times 10^{-4} - 500 \text{ U} \cdot \text{mL}^{-1}$	$0.17705 \text{ } \mu\text{U} \cdot \text{mL}^{-1}$	[77]
/	Ru-MOFs	FABP	$1.5 \times 10^{-4} - 150 \text{ ng} \cdot \text{mL}^{-1}$	$2.6 \text{ fg} \cdot \text{mL}^{-1}$	[78]

MIP: molecularly imprinted polymer; rGO: reduced graphene oxide; Apo-A1: Apolipoprotein-A1; ABEI: N-(aminobutyl)-N-(ethyl-isoluminol); Aβ42: Amyloid-β protein; FABP: human heart-type fatty-acid-binding protein.

novel strategy for the construction of water-stable MOFs has become a critical direction in the MOF research field. Thirdly, the effective and precise immobilization of antibody or enzyme molecules on specific sites of MOFs remains a challenge. Therefore, developing the methods to control their decorated groups as well as the shape and size may need to be systematically studied to improve the active areas, the functionalization efficiency and accuracy. Finally, MOFs-based electrochemical and ECL immunosensors are usually not inconvenient and suitable for in situ and practical applications, such as rapid on-site disease screening and POC diagnostic. The development of portable devices provides an opportunity to MOFs-based immunosensor for wide applications. We believe that with the development of science and technology, a variety of new MOF nanomaterials with high performance will be synthesized, which will eventually facilitate their industrial implementation, including global health in developing nations, environmental surveillance, and food safety inspection.

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## 金属有机框架材料在电化学/电化学发光免疫分析中的应用

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### 摘要

设计和研制具有超灵敏、高精度、选择性好的免疫传感器对于疾病的早期诊断和筛查以及疾病治疗过程的监测具有十分重要的意义。其中, 电化学免疫分析法和电化学发光 (ECL) 免疫分析法, 由于具有稳定性好、灵敏度高、线性范围宽、可控性好等优点而备受关注, 已成为当前的研究热点之一。金属有机框架 (MOFs) 作为一类新型的多孔晶体材料, 由于其具有比表面积大、化学稳定性好、孔径和纳米级骨架结构可调节等优点, 在电化学和 ECL 免疫传感器的制备中得到了广泛的应用。MOFs 不仅可以作为固定生物识别分子的敏感平台, 还可以用于富集痕量分析物和信号分子来放大分析信号, 提高电化学或 ECL 免疫分析的灵敏度。目前, 科研人员已合成各种各样具有不同性能和形貌的 MOFs 纳米材料, 并用于开发高性能的电化学免疫传感器和 ECL 免疫传感器。本文综述了不同类型的基于 MOFs 纳米材料的电化学/ECL 免疫传感器的制备及其在免疫分析中的检测应用。研究表明, MOFs 不仅可以作为电极表面修饰的基底、信号探针 (包括电活性标记分子和电化学发光标记探针)、催化活性标记物, 还可以作为负载各种生物分子、纳米材料的载体, 最终可用于灵敏的电化学和 ECL 检测。此外, 本综述还讨论了未来发展功能化 MOFs 纳米材料的挑战和机遇, 并为未来设计和制造基于 MOFs 的高性能免疫传感器提出了一些指导性意见。

**关键词:** 金属有机框架; 电化学免疫传感器; 电化学发光法免疫传感器; 免疫分析