

Review

METAL-ORGANIC FRAMEWORKS (MOFs) FOR BONE TREATMENT AND MINERALIZATION

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Abstract

Metal-organic frameworks (MOFs) have emerged as a flexible class of porous materials with tunable physicochemical properties, making them well-suited for biomedical applications, particularly bone regeneration and biomineralization. This review analyzes recent advances in MOF-based methodologies for bone tissue engineering, highlighting various MOFs, particularly biologically-based metal-organic frameworks (BioMOFs) and bioactive MOFs, and their roles in mimicking natural mineralization processes. MOFs can be applied as carriers for biomineralizing multiple biological targets, such as proteins, enzymes, bacterial cells, and viruses, enabling controlled encapsulation, protection, and functional delivery. Considerable focus is placed on the mechanisms by which MOFs promote osteogenesis and angiogenesis, including the pH-responsive or enzyme-activated release of osteoinductive ions such as calcium (Ca^{2+}), magnesium (Mg^{2+}), zinc (Zn^{2+}), and strontium (Sr^{2+}) from frameworks composed of alkaline-earth and transition-metal ions. MOF-based materials can be used to treat various bone disorders, including osteoporosis, osteomyelitis, bone malignancies, and diabetic bone anomalies, through several proposed mechanisms, including drug delivery, immunomodulation, antibacterial effects, and neovascularization promotion. Integrating MOFs with hydrogels, electrospun membranes, and functionalized three-dimensional (3D) scaffolds yields synergistic effects that enhance bone tissue regeneration. Challenges were discussed, including biocompatibility, biodegradability, and ion toxicity. Hopefully, this review provides insights into prospective methodologies for the systematic design of multifunctional MOF platforms for clinical use in orthopedic and regenerative medicine.

Keywords: MOFs, mineralization, bioMOF, bone treatment.

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Introduction

Bone disorders encompass many conditions that affect the skeletal system's integrity, architecture, and function [1,2]. These problems may arise from genetic predispositions, metabolic irregularities, infections, aging, or trauma, frequently resulting in compromised bone formation, excessive bone resorption, or structural degradation [3–5]. Prevalent bone disorders encompass osteoporosis (OP), osteopenia, osteomalacia, Paget's disease, and osteogenesis imperfecta. Osteoporosis is the most common bone condition, defined by reduced bone mineral density and heightened fracture risk, especially in the elderly and postmenopausal women [6]. Osteopenia is a precursor to osteoporosis, characterized by subnormal bone density. Osteomalacia, vitamin D insufficiency, causes bone weakening due to impaired mineralization. Paget's disease of bone entails aberrant bone remodeling, causing enlarged and deformed bones, whereas osteogenesis imperfecta is a genetic illness that impairs collagen (Col) synthesis, resulting in

fragile bones and recurrent fractures [7]. These illnesses undermine skeletal integrity, decreasing mobility and quality of life [8]. With increasing global life expectancy, the incidence of bone-related diseases is rising, underscoring the need for enhanced diagnostic techniques and novel therapeutic approaches, such as biomaterials and targeted drug-delivery systems for bone regeneration and repair [9–12].

Osteoporosis (OP) is a significant global health issue, accounting for more than 50 % of all instances of tissue loss due to disease or injury [9]. If untreated, it can lead to significant deterioration of the musculoskeletal system, significantly decreasing a patient's quality of life [13]. The World Health Organization (WHO) estimates the global prevalence of OP at 19.7 %, whereas osteopenia affects roughly 40.4 % of the population [14,15]. These conditions are more prevalent in low-income countries, with rates of 22.1 %, compared with 14.5 % in industrialized countries. Gender-specific statistics reveal that 10.6 % of males are affected by osteoporosis, while 44.8 % exhibit osteopenia.

The prevalence among women is significant: 24.8 % have osteoporosis, and 39.4 % have bone loss. The prevalence is particularly high among postmenopausal women, with 27.4 % diagnosed with osteoporosis and 42.1 % suffering from osteopenia.

Metal-organic frameworks (MOFs), also referred to as porous coordination polymers (PCPs) or porous coordination networks (PCNs), are a class of hybrid porous materials characterized by their exceptionally high surface areas and tunable pore sizes [16–19]. Owing to these structural features, MOFs have found widespread applications in various fields, including adsorption [20,21], sensing [22,23], self-cleaning textiles [24], and catalysis [25]. MOFs exhibit enzyme-like activity [26], making them particularly attractive for biomedical applications [27]. When integrated with biological molecules, MOFs form metal-biomolecule frameworks (MBioFs) [28]. Various MOF-biological composites have been developed using proteins, viruses, bacteria, and yeast cells [29–32]. One prominent application of these composites is the encapsulation of enzymes within MOFs, which has enabled technologies such as single-enzyme biofuel cells used in self-powered biosensing platforms [33]. MOFs can be biodegradable, enabling safe, biocompatible use in biomedical applications [34–36].

Zeolitic imidazolate frameworks (ZIFs) represent a distinct subclass of MOFs known for their exceptional thermal and chemical stability [37]. Among them, ZIF-8 is one of the most extensively studied. Composed of zinc (Zn) ions and 2-methylimidazole (HmIm) linkers, ZIF-8 exhibits a robust framework structure. This material has been applied in diverse areas, including drug delivery [38], gene delivery [39], hydrogen generation [40], dye-sensitized solar cells [41], carbon dioxide capture [42], and biosensing [43]. Its three-dimensional (3D) structure and pH-responsive degradability make ZIF-8 particularly suitable for biomedical applications, including controlled, on-demand drug release [44]. In addition, ZIF-8-based composite microcarriers have shown potential to support the adhesion and proliferation of human mesenchymal stem cells (hMSCs) [45]. *In vivo* studies have validated the adaptability and efficacy of MOF in facilitating bone regeneration, addressing infections, targeting bone cancers, and mitigating osteoporosis [46].

This review highlighted advances in MOF research and their biomacromolecular composites for therapeutic applications in osteoporosis (Fig. 1). It covered several types of MOFs, including calcium (Ca)-MOF, magnesium (Mg)-MOF, zinc (Zn)-based MOF, zirconium (Zr)-MOF, and their bimetallic MOFs. It outlined the mechanisms of osteoporosis, various synthesis methods for MOFs and MOF-based composites, and ultimately discusses the primary challenges and future directions to enhance the utility of MOFs in osteoporosis treatment. It also addressed the interface between biomolecules and MOF, emphasizing strategies for synthesizing biomolecule-ZIF-8 biocom-

posites and processing them into different forms, such as hydrogels, 3D scaffolds, or injectable inks via electrospinning, 3D printing, and other methods (Fig. 1).

Analysis Publications in MOFs for Biomedical Application

Examining the Scopus database using the query TITLE-ABS-KEY (MOFs AND mineralization OR bone) highlights the growing academic interest in MOFs in bone biology and mineralization (Fig. 2). Since the inaugural publication in 1996, the volume of related articles has been sparse, with only a few studies emerging between 1996 and 2015. The tendency began to change in 2016, marked by a steady increase in annual production. This trend signifies growing interest in the biological applications of MOFs, especially in bone tissue engineering, biomineralization, and osteogenic therapy. The rise in publications over the last four years likely signifies advancements in nanotechnology, biomaterials research, and MOF-based drug delivery systems, making MOFs increasingly relevant in regenerative medicine.

The research is distinguished by its interdisciplinary nature, encompassing contributions from various scientific fields (Fig. 2). The predominant proportion of articles is in Materials Science (17.1 %), followed by Chemistry (15.9 %), Chemical Engineering (14.8 %), and Engineering (13.5 %). These figures significantly focus on the material design, synthesis, and modification of MOFs for biological applications. Moreover, Environmental Science (10.4 %) is notably significant, indicating potential interdisciplinary insights, perhaps in biomimetic or sustainable material innovation. Biomedical fields are prominently represented, with Biochemistry, Genetics, Molecular Biology, and Medicine each accounting for 8.5 % of the total literature. Including Pharmacology and Pharmaceuticals (2.5 %) emphasizes the interest in MOFs for drug transport and therapeutic targeting in bone settings. Disciplines such as Physics, Agricultural Sciences, and Computer Science are present, though to a lesser extent, indicating a varied research foundation (Fig. 2). The Scopus data demonstrate that MOF-related research on mineralization and bone is experiencing tremendous growth and interdisciplinary expansion (Fig. 2). Integrating new material synthesis, biomedical applications, and regenerative potential establishes MOFs as a promising frontier in bone healing, drug delivery, and tissue engineering. This interdisciplinary momentum is expected to continue, with future studies likely to explore clinical applications, biofunctionality, and long-term safety of MOF-based systems in bone-related therapies.

Biomedical Applications of MOFs

Recent progress in MOFs has led to their growing use in bone tissue engineering, owing to their adjustable structures, biocompatibility, and ability to deliver drugs in a controlled manner. Xue *et al.* [47] revealed that MOFs can

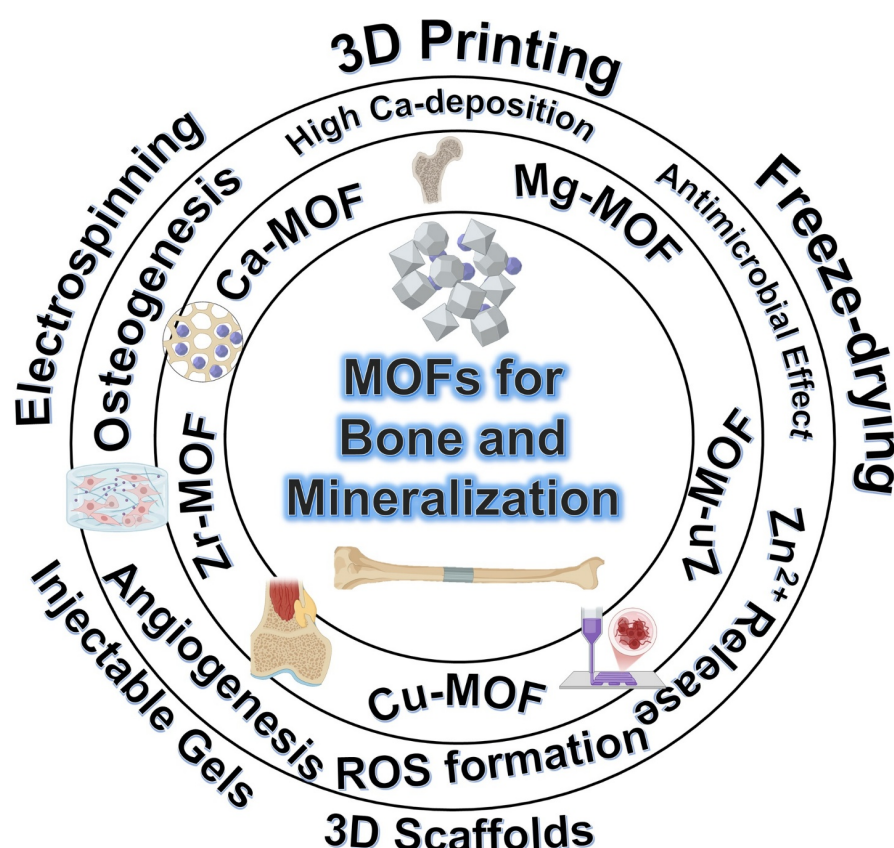


Fig. 1. Overview of MOF-based bone and mineralization applications.

attract bone marrow mesenchymal stem cells (BMSCs) via pH-responsive release of Zn^{2+} , thereby creating a favorable microenvironment for osteoblast development and facilitating bone and vascular regeneration. Toprak *et al.* [48] contained bone morphogenetic protein-6 (BMP-6) within ZIF-8, resulting in a prolonged release profile that markedly improved bone regeneration. Feng *et al.* [49] encapsulated microRNAs in ZIF-8 to enhance their stability, cellular uptake, and endosomal escape, thereby advancing the therapeutic applications of MOFs in osteogenesis and angiogenesis. Li *et al.* [50] encapsulated ZIF-8 with deferoxamine (DFO), demonstrating that the regulated release of DFO and Zn^{2+} markedly enhances angiogenic and osteogenic activity. Kang *et al.* [51] created exosome-functionalized magnesium-organic frameworks that synergistically integrate the osteogenic and anti-inflammatory properties of magnesium ions, gallic acid (GA), and exosomes derived from human adipose stem cells, enhancing scaffold functionality and biocompatibility. MOFs improved the osteogenic microenvironment [52].

Lao *et al.* [53] developed metformin-loaded ZIF-8 nanoparticles (NPs) incorporated into methacrylated gelatin (Gel) hydrogels for diabetic bone regeneration models. The simultaneous release of metformin and Zn^{2+} from this composite interrupted the reactive oxygen species (ROS)-inflammation cycle and facilitated bone repair. Similarly,

Al-Baadani *et al.* [54] integrated alendronate (ALN)-loaded ZIF-8 into electrospun nanofibers, resulting in an innovative composite that promotes bone regeneration and suppresses osteoclast activity, presenting a viable strategy for addressing osteoporotic abnormalities. ZIF-8 nanoparticles are doped with cerium (Ce) ions, loaded with alendronate sodium, and coated with poly(sodium 4-styrenesulfonate) to form Aln/PSS@ZIF-8:Ce for osteoporosis treatment [55]. The nanoparticles can be uniformly distributed and remain stable at pH 7.4, gradually releasing Aln and Ce ions at pH 6.8, thereby potentially offering antioxidative action in oxidative stress microenvironments. The *in vitro* study demonstrates that the nanoparticles can enhance osteogenic differentiation and biomineralization while limiting osteoclast formation and bone resorption via suppressing reactive oxygen species generation, mitogen-activated protein kinase, and nuclear factor κ -B signaling pathways. Following intravenous administration in osteoporotic mice, the Aln/PSS@ZIF-8:Ce nanoparticles, owing to their nanoscale characteristics, decreased bone loss and retard the progression of osteoporosis. Furthermore, the nanoparticles demonstrated excellent cytocompatibility *in vitro* and favorable histocompatibility *in vivo*, exhibiting no adverse reactions. Aln/PSS@ZIF-8:Ce nanoparticles were effective biomaterials for normalizing osteoporotic microenvironments and postponing the pro-

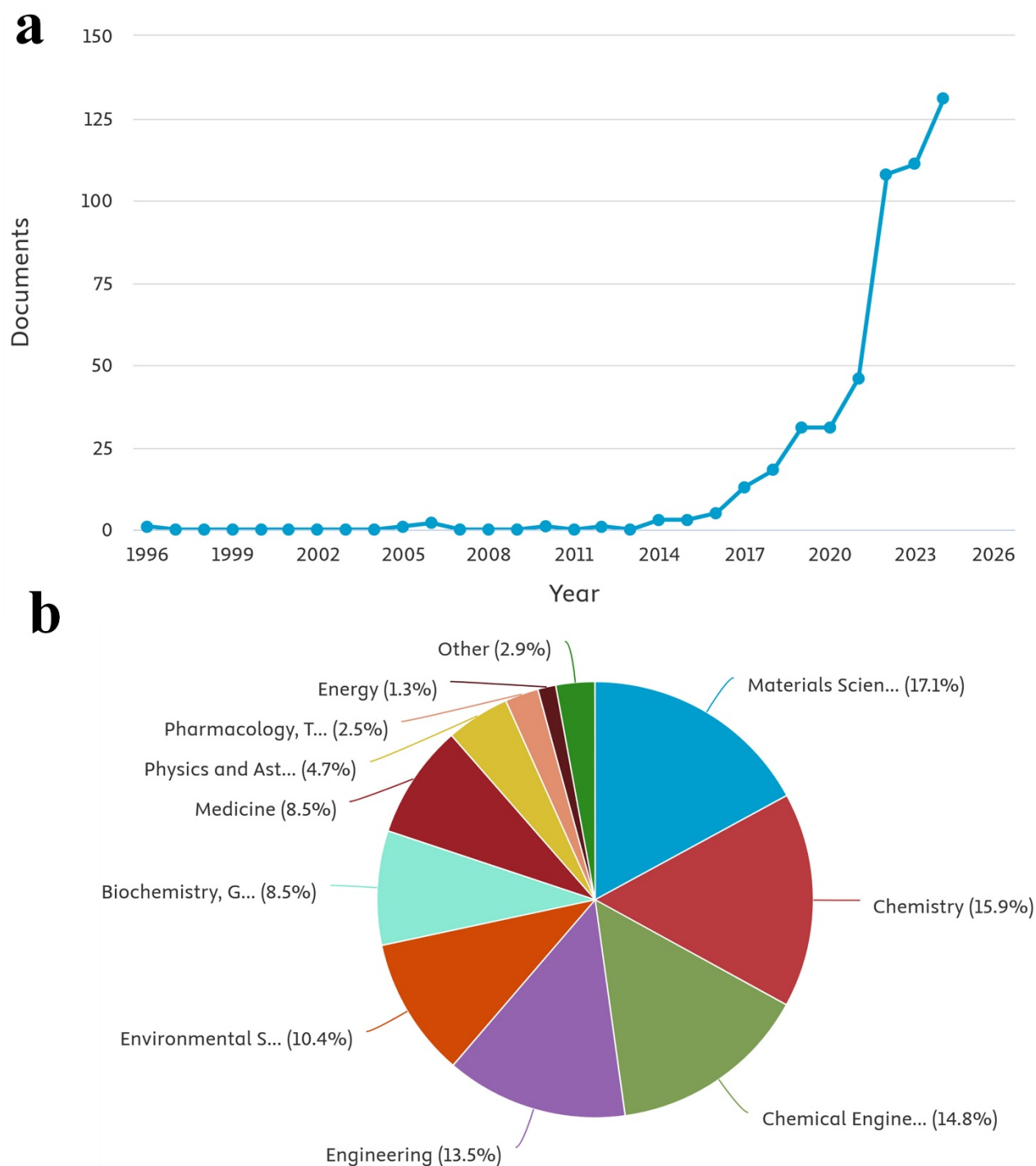


Fig. 2. Scopus analysis. (a) Publications per year. (b) Files for words “MOFs AND mineralization or Bone”. Access July 2025. Query: TITLE-ABS-KEY(MOFs + mineralization or bone); <https://www.scopus.com/pages/home#basic>.

gression of osteoporosis, while also indicating potential applications in other inflammation-related disorders [55].

Numerous studies underscore the synergistic interactions between MOFs and bioactive substances. Xu *et al.* [56] demonstrated that integrating exosomes with MOF-modified scaffolds enables dual release of copper (Cu) ions and exosomes, thereby promoting angiogenesis and osteogenesis. They produced MOF composites by incorporat-

ing dimethyloxallylglycine (DMOG) into materials institute of lavoisier (MIL)-88 and amalgamating it with γ -poly-L-glutamic acid (PLGA), thereby promoting vascularized bone regeneration through the sustained release of DMOG and Fe^{3+} ions [57]. Zheng *et al.* [58] used Mg-MOF scaffolds to modulate macrophage polarization and enhance the bone-healing microenvironment, thereby promoting angiogenesis and osteogenesis. Mg-MOF74 exhibited enhanced

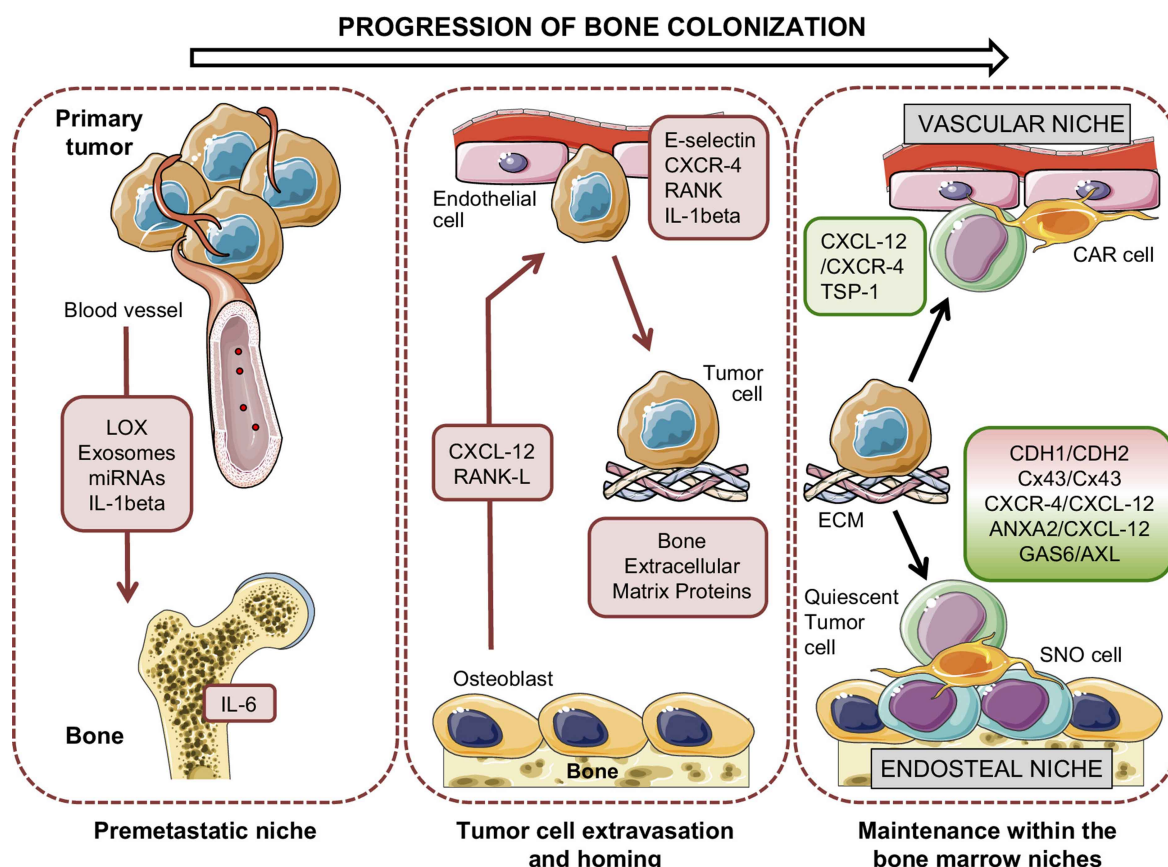


Fig. 3. Schematic representation of the stepwise process of bone colonization by tumor cells. *Physiol Rev.* 2021; 101: 797–855 [90]. Copyright © 2021, The American Physiological Society.

biological interactions and prolonged magnesium release, facilitating bone and blood vessel growth [59]. A multifunctional medication (Ket@Mg-MOF-74) utilizes Mg-MOF-74 to encapsulate ketoprofen (Ket) to comprehensively treat osteoporotic pain, bone loss, and inflammation [60]. Mg-MOF-74 was synthesized, and physicochemical analysis demonstrated its superior physical and chemical stability. Ket@Mg-MOF-74 was synthesized via post-synthetic modification, confirming a high loading capacity for ketoprofen. Experiments on drug and ion release demonstrated that Ket@Mg-MOF-74 exhibited effective regulated release of ketoprofen and magnesium in solution. *In vitro* cell tests showed that the compound medication significantly diminished the expression of pain-related genes associated with cyclooxygenase 2 (COX2), markedly enhanced the expression of osteogenic cytokines, and substantially reduced the secretion of pro-inflammatory substances. Consequently, Ket@Mg-MOF-74 is regarded as a promising analgesic for osteoporotic bone pain, possessing anti-inflammatory properties and the ability to promote bone growth [60].

Reports have also emerged regarding innovative hydrogel-based MOF platforms. Sun *et al.* [61] created a MOF-infused hydrogel for bone healing that simulates hypoxic conditions by cobalt (Co) ion release, pro-

moting vascular and bone tissue development. ZIF-8-modified hydrogel improved bone adhesion, mechanical strength, angiogenesis, and osteogenesis, while providing antibacterial qualities to mitigate postoperative infection risks [62]. pH-responsive MOF hydrogels selectively released biomolecules in acidic conditions, thereby modulating inflammation and facilitating bone regeneration and vascularization [63].

Biologically-Based MOFs (BioMOFs)

Biologically-based MOFs (BioMOFs), or metal-biomolecule frameworks (MBioFs), constitute a subclass of MOFs that incorporate biomolecules such as nucleobases, amino acids, peptides, proteins, cyclodextrins (CDs), and porphyrins into their structures [28,64]. They provide significant biological compatibility and expand their prospective applications in biology, medicine, and materials science [36,65,66]. Nucleobases like adenine exhibit superior solubility and coordination properties compared to guanine, offering significant promise for the development of BioMOFs. BioMOF, such as ZnBDCA, contains zinc and a mixed linker of adenine and benzene-1,3-dicarboxylate, exhibits a DNA-helix-like topology, and demonstrates its capability for biomolecular detection [67]. Amino acid-derived BioMOFs can be constructed through combina-

tions with chemical ligands. $\text{Zn}_4(5\text{-mtz})_6(\text{L-Ala})_2 \cdot 2\text{DMF}$ was synthesized using amino acids such as l-alanine (l-Ala), d-alanine (d-Ala), l-serine (l-Ser), and l-valine (l-Val) in conjunction with the 5-methyltetrazole (5-Hmtz) ligand [68]. Peptides, especially short chains like dipeptides and tripeptides, form diverse and dynamic metal-peptide frameworks (MPF) [69]. Creating protein-based BioMOFs, specifically protein crystalline frameworks (PCFs), is more complex due to proteins' complexity [70]. Porphyrins and metalloporphyrins, particularly TCPP (meso-tetra(4-carboxyphenyl)porphine (H_4TCPP)), OCPP (5,10,15,20-tetrakis(3,5-bis(carboxy)phenyl)porphyrin), and 5,10,15,20-tetrakis(3,5-dicarboxyphenyl)porphine [71], have been shown as linkers for the manufacture of BioMOFs [72]. Cyclodextrin (CD)-based BioMOFs utilize the hydrophobic cavities of cyclic glucose molecules to encapsulate guest molecules [73,74].

A diverse array of BioMOFs has been engineered by integrating biomolecules and auxiliary ligands to fulfill specific applications in drug administration, molecular recognition, catalysis, and chiral separation. For example, other adenine-based BioMOFs, such as ZnBTCA [75,76] and BioMOF-100 [77]. Meanwhile, PCN-530, which utilizes a triazine-based auxiliary ligand, has also been used for molecular recognition [78]. Amino acid-derived BioMOFs such as $\text{Zn}_4(5\text{-mtz})_6(\text{L-Ala})_2 \cdot 2\text{DMF}$ and its variants incorporating d-alanine, l-serine, and l-valine have been synthesized with tetrazolate co-ligands for molecular recognition and enantiomer separation [68]. Furthermore, peptide-based BioMOFs, such as $\text{CuII}(\text{GHG})$ derived from the tripeptide Gly-l-His-Gly, have been employed for chiral drug separation [79]. Protein-integrated BioMOFs, such as Zn-ferritin, using ferritin and benzenedihydroxamic acid derivatives as ligands, function catalytically, particularly in enzymatic processes [80]. Porphyrin-based BioMOFs, such as $[\text{Zn}_{16}(\text{H}_2\text{O})_8(\text{Mn}^{\text{III}}\text{Cl-OCPP})_4]$ and CZJ-6, derived from bis(carboxy)phenyl and dicarboxyphenyl porphyrins, respectively, demonstrate efficacy in olefin epoxidation and biomimetic catalysis [71]. Other BioMOFs, including MOF-1201 and MOF-1203, constructed from l-lactate and acetate, have been utilized in food safety detection [81]. In contrast, PCN-222, derived from zirconium and TCPP (meso-tetra(4-carboxyphenyl)porphyrin), serves as a photocatalyst for water treatment and as an electrochemical sensor [82]. γ -cyclodextrin MOF (γ -CD MOFs) exhibited the distinctive cavity architecture of γ -CD for the enantioselective separation of chiral aromatic alcohols [74]. These examples collectively demonstrate the many structural strategies and extensive functional range of BioMOF.

MOFs for Biomimetic Mineralization

ZIFs, a subclass of MOFs, can be synthesized using various methods tailored to suit different applications and conditions. Traditional solvothermal synthesis has been widely employed for fabricating ZIF-8 crystals [37], but

more recent advances have introduced simpler, more environmentally friendly routes. One-pot synthesis at room temperature in aqueous media has gained popularity, as it eliminates the need for high temperatures, organic solvents, or multistep procedures. This approach is particularly advantageous for encapsulating thermally sensitive biomolecules such as proteins, viruses, and whole bacterial cells.

Several parameters influence the morphology and structural features of the resulting biocomposites, particularly the binding affinity between zinc ions and the biomolecule. For example, the tobacco mosaic virus (TMV), a tubular plant virus of $300 \text{ nm} \times 18 \text{ nm}$ dimensions with a proteinaceous shell, can act as a multivalent scaffold to locally concentrate zinc ions, thereby accelerating mineralization and enabling precise morphology control [83]. DNA, primarily as a cross-linking agent, can further modulate ZIF-8 growth, for example, by enhancing crystal formation on magnetic particles [84]. Peptides and proteins serve as particularly effective biomineralization agents. For instance, γ -poly-L-glutamic acid (PLGA), a peptide-based polymer, has been used to transform conventional 3D microporous ZIF-8 structures into 2D mesoporous spindle-shaped MOFs (2D MSMOFs), facilitating specific structural control and enhancing the activity of encapsulated biomolecules [85]. These biocomposites also protect sensitive proteins, preserving their functionality under denaturing conditions and improving controlled release behavior, which is crucial for drug and gene delivery applications.

Protein-mediated ZIF-8 mineralization has been thoroughly studied to optimize encapsulation efficiency and functionality. Peptides and proteins with negative charges bind effectively to zinc ions, promoting nucleation and crystal formation through electrostatic interactions [86]. Conversely, positively charged peptides (with isoelectric point $\text{pI} > 7.5$) lead to the formation of alternate crystal phases, such as the diamond phase $\text{dia-Zn}(\text{HmIm})_2$ [86]. Studies report encapsulation efficiencies ranging from 75 % to nearly 100 % for proteins like bovine serum albumin (BSA) and insulin [87]. Further, ternary phase diagrams reveal that the synthesis process can yield five distinct ZIF-8-related crystal phases, including new phases such as $\text{ZIF-CO}_3\text{-1}$. Enzyme immobilization within ZIF-8 can follow either de novo synthesis or post-synthetic modification [88]. In de novo methods, enzymes are incorporated during crystal growth, offering superior confinement and protection. However, this can lead to lower encapsulation yields. Conversely, post-synthetic loading involves adsorbing enzymes into pre-formed ZIF-8 pores, which may limit structural integration but can increase loading capacity. The encapsulation approach can significantly affect the enzyme's bioactivity. For example, rapid enzyme-triggered nucleation methods outperformed slower co-precipitation methods, yielding more active biocatalysts [88]. Insulin was

Table 1. Summary of common bone diseases.

Bone disease	Definition	Primary causes	Key characteristics	Ref.
Paget's disease	A chronic bone disorder with abnormal bone remodeling	Genetic factors, viral infections	-Enlarged -Deformed bones -Bone pain -Joint stiffness	[7]
Osteoporosis	A condition characterized by decreased bone density and increased fracture risk	Aging, hormonal changes (e.g., menopause), calcium/vitamin D deficiency	-Fragile bones -High fracture risk	[94]
Osteopenia	A precursor to osteoporosis with lower-than-normal bone density	Same as OP, aging, poor nutrition	-Mild bone loss -Asymptomatic	[95]
Osteomalacia	Softening of bones due to defective bone mineralization	Vitamin D deficiency, phosphate deficiency	-Bone pain -Muscle weakness -High fracture risk	[96]
Osteogenesis imperfecta	A genetic disorder causing brittle bones	Genetic mutation affecting collagen production	-Frequent fractures -Short stature -Bone deformities	[97]
Osteomyelitis	Infection of the bone, often bacterial	Open fractures, surgery, bloodstream infections	-Bone pain -Fever -Inflammation -Pus formation	[98]
Bone tumors	Abnormal growth of bone tissue can be benign or malignant	Genetic mutations, radiation exposure	-Swelling -Localized pain -Pathological fractures	[99]
Rickets	A childhood disease involving bone softening	Severe vitamin D deficiency	-Bone deformities -Delayed growth -Bowed legs in children	[100]
Avascular necrosis	Bone tissue death due to loss of blood supply	Trauma, steroid use, alcohol abuse	-Joint pain -Limited mobility -Eventual bone collapse	[101]

also encapsulated in ZIF-8 particles, offering a promising therapeutic vehicle for diabetes management. At concentrations below 30 $\mu\text{g/mL}$, insulin@ZIF-8 has shown biocompatibility and sustained release profiles [89]. Similarly, six enzymes, e.g., glucose oxidase (GOx), catalase (CAT), horseradish peroxidase (HRP), cytochrome c (Cyt C), alcohol dehydrogenase (ADH), and urate oxidase (UOx), have been encapsulated into ZIF-8. The results showed that rapid nucleation methods preserved bioactivity, whereas slow co-precipitation led to inactive materials [88].

MOFs for Bone Therapy

Bone diseases encompass several conditions that affect bone integrity, architecture, and function (Table 1). Osteoporosis is a prevalent bone disease characterized by re-

duced bone density, increasing the risk of fractures, especially in the spine, hips, and wrists. It primarily arises from age, hormonal changes such as menopause, and calcium or vitamin D deficiencies. Osteopenia is a similar disorder characterized by a moderate decrease in bone mass and often serves as a precursor to osteoporosis. Although usually asymptomatic, it is frequently detected on bone density scans.

Osteomalacia denotes the softness of bones resulting from impaired bone mineralization, typically attributable to deficiencies in vitamin D or phosphate (Table 1). It results in ostealgia, myopathy, and an increased susceptibility to fractures. Paget's disease, another chronic disorder, is characterized by aberrant bone remodeling, leading to larger, deformed bones. This ailment may be associated with ge-

netic predispositions or viral infections and frequently manifests as bone pain and joint rigidity. Osteogenesis imperfecta is an uncommon hereditary condition that impairs collagen synthesis, leading to fragile bones prone to fractures. Patients may further have reduced height, bone abnormalities, and auditory impairment. Osteomyelitis is an infectious bone disease caused mainly by bacteria that enter through open fractures, surgical interventions, or the circulation. It is generally associated with osseous discomfort, pyrexia, inflammation, and, in some cases, purulence.

Bone tumors, whether benign or malignant, originate from atypical proliferation of bone tissue (Fig. 3) [90]. Causes encompass genetic abnormalities and radiation exposure, while symptoms frequently manifest as localized discomfort, edema, or pathological fractures. Rickets in children is characterized by bone weakening and abnormalities, such as bowed legs, primarily due to severe vitamin D deficiency. Avascular necrosis is a disorder characterized by the death of bone tissue resulting from a deficiency in blood flow, which may be caused by trauma, corticosteroid usage, or excessive alcohol intake [90]. This results in arthralgia, diminished mobility, and ultimately skeletal collapse if not addressed.

Orthopedic research is essential for enhancing musculoskeletal health and formulating therapeutic approaches for various bone-related conditions, improving patient quality of life [91]. Nonetheless, there exists an urgent need for creative strategies to tackle intricate clinical issues, including significant bone abnormalities, joint inflammation, bone infections, and harm caused by bone cancers [90]. Traditional materials used in orthopedic procedures often exhibit inherent limitations, including inadequate bioactivity, low mechanical strength, and limited integration with host tissue. These deficiencies have generated heightened interest in developing sophisticated biomaterials to overcome them.

As the population ages, OP is increasingly prevalent, significantly impacting patients' quality of life and their families, making the prevention and treatment of osteoporosis a prominent issue [92,93]. The prevailing conventional approach to treating osteoporosis involves oral anti-osteoporosis medicine, which has limitations, including first-pass metabolism and gastrointestinal side effects. Simultaneously, OP may lead to microbial infections and necessitate promoting angiogenesis for bone repair, among other requirements that are frequently unmet by traditional therapies, with the potential for resistance to oral antibiotics [92,93].

MOFs have advanced bone therapy (Table 2) [46,93, 102]. They have attracted significant interest in OP treatment owing to their distinctive characteristics, including adjustable porosity, large surface area, and the ability to encapsulate and release therapeutic chemicals and bioactive ions. Zn-based MOFs, e.g., ZIF-8, exhibited remarkable biocompatibility and efficacy in bone tissue engineer-

ing [103]. A significant application entails ZIF-8-modified porous titanium (Ti) surfaces that enhance osteogenesis and exhibit antibacterial properties via prolonged zinc ion release [104]. A separate study developed simvastatin-loaded ZIF-8 nanocapsules (about 238 nm in diameter, with an encapsulation efficiency of 87.4 %) for targeted administration to bone tissue, markedly improving drug solubility and bioavailability while promoting bone regeneration [105].

Iron-based MOF, such as MIL-100(Fe), was modified with poly(acrylic acid) (PAA)-grafted MIL-100(Fe) as a carrier for magnesium ions, facilitating sustained Mg^{2+} administration to aid in the repair of osteoporotic bone defects [106]. Magnesium (Mg) ions were encapsulated into the cages of MIL-100(Fe) (i.e., $Mg@MIL-100(Fe)$). The modification of $Mg@MIL-100(Fe)$ with poly(acrylic acid) (PAA) effectively inhibited the leakage of Mg ions, thereby substantially enhancing the Mg loading capacity. The cytotoxicity assessment of the osteoblast-like cell line MG-63 indicated that $Mg@MIL-100(Fe)$ -PAA exhibited biocompatibility and marginally enhanced cell growth. Moreover, the alkaline phosphatase (ALP) assay indicated that $Mg@MIL-100(Fe)$ -PAA might alter the temporal progression of cell differentiation, potentially expediting bone healing. The findings demonstrated the potential of MOFs for bone healing [106].

Alkaline Earth-Based MOFs

Alkaline earth-based MOFs are effective biomaterials for several applications [112–114]. Alkaline earth MOFs, comprising divalent metal ions such as magnesium (Mg^{2+}), calcium (Ca^{2+}), strontium (Sr^{2+}), and barium (Ba^{2+}), have attracted increasing attention for biomedical applications owing to their biocompatibility, tunable porosity, and degradability. In contrast to numerous transition-metal-based MOFs, alkaline-earth MOFs offer reduced toxicity and greater physiological relevance, especially for calcium and magnesium, which are vital components of human biology [113]. These MOFs exhibit significant potential for drug delivery, as their extensive surface area and tunable pore environments facilitate the encapsulation and controlled release of therapeutic compounds, often in response to specific stimuli, such as pH or enzyme activity [115]. For example, Ca-MOFs and Mg-MOFs have been investigated for pH-responsive delivery of chemotherapeutics such as doxorubicin (DOX), facilitating targeted action in tumor microenvironments. Furthermore, Sr-based MOFs have exhibited efficacy in bone regeneration by facilitating osteogenesis and acting as localized drug transporters. In tissue engineering, Ca-MOFs and Sr-MOFs are essential scaffolds or ion-releasing platforms that facilitate bone cell proliferation and mineralization [116]. Alkaline-based MOFs are being investigated for bioimaging applications, in which their structures can integrate fluorescent or contrast agents, and for antimicrobial therapy via the transport

Table 2. MOFs-based materials for bone treatment.

MOFs	Compositions	Synthesis procedure	Conditions	Tests	Cells	Assessment	Ref.
ZIF-8	Zn Hmim Polycaprolactone/ collagen (PCL/Col)	Hydrothermal	37 °C for 6 h	Bone regeneration Osteogenic differentiation Blood vessel formation	L929 fibroblasts	93 % of Zn ²⁺ release at pH 5.5. Cell proliferation of 1.2-fold over that in the Col group	[47]
Ket@Mg-MOF-74	Mg 2,5-dihydroxyterephthalic acid Ketoprofen	Hydrothermal	120 °C for 24h	Mg release Viability Quantitative real-time PCR (qPCR)	MG63 cells		[60]
ZIF-8	Zn Hmim	Hydrothermal	Stirred at RT overnight	Osteogenic activity and antibacterial effect Viability	MG63 human osteosarcoma cell line	Drug loading, 20.95 %	[104]
Mg-loaded MIL-100(Fe) with poly(acrylic acid)	Fe BTC PAA	Solvothermal	30 °C for 5 min 30 s	Mg release MTT ALP assay	Human osteosarcoma cells MG-63	Mg release of 84.7 % and 87.0 % at 96 h and 192 h	[106]
Ca-MOF	Ca Glycyrrhizic acid	Stirring	Stirring till precipitation	Immunofluorescent staining Micro-CT analysis	293T/D cells 293T and HKC-8 cells	EE and LE of hydrocortisone load on GC are 96.7 % and 38.7 % Viability 100 %	[107]
Mg-MOF	Mg Biphenyl-3,4',5- tricarboxylate Denosumab (DSB)	Ultrasonication	20-min ultra- sonication at irradiation power of 450 W	Releasing Mg ions for bone formation MTT assay	MG63 cells	DSB release of 72 %, 8 h	[108]
MgCu-MOF74	Mg Cu Ketoprofen	Solvothermal	125 °C for 24 h	Cell counting kit-8 (CCK-8) assay Alkaline phosphatase (ALP) activity COL secretion	SaOS-2 human osteosarcoma cells	Ketoprofen loading, 18.55 % Viability >90 %	[109]
ZIF-8@RAPA	Zn Hmim RAPA	Hydrothermal	Stirring at room temperature for 5 min, and static standing for 55 min	Macrophage RAW 264.7 and the zebrafish embryo	Macrophage RAW 264.7 and the zebrafish embryo	Drug-loading rate 11.53 % Release of 68.23 % at pH 5.5 RAW264.7 cell survival rate of 95.3 % Zebrafish survival rates, 80 %	[110]
MOF 801/gelatin	ZrCl ₄ Formic acid Fumaric acid	Hydrothermal	120 °C for 24 h	Antioxidant and anti- inflammatory properties, MTT crystal violet assay, alizarin red, and ALP activity assays induce calcium mineralization and alkaline phosphatase enzyme production	Osteoblast-like cells (MG-63)	Zr release, 0.45 mg/L after 24h	[111]

EE, encapsulation efficiency; LE, loading efficiency.

Table 3. Mechanism proposed for bone and mineralization using MOF-based materials.

Mechanism	MOF role/action	Therapeutic effect	Ref.
Angiogenesis	Cu^{2+} , Co^{2+} , Zn^{2+} induce VEGF expression	Enhances vascularized bone regeneration	[56]
Immunomodulation	Macrophage polarization	Reduces inflammation, promotes regeneration	[58]
Antibacterial effects	Metal ion release disrupts bacteria	Prevents infection (e.g., osteomyelitis)	[60]
Drug/gene delivery	Encapsulation & controlled release; pH/ROS/enzyme-triggered systems	Sustained local therapy, targeted delivery	[115]
Osteogenesis	Release of Ca^{2+} , Mg^{2+} , Zn^{2+} , Sr^{2+} , Cu^{2+} ; activation of BMP/Smad, Wnt/ β -catenin, MAPK	Stimulates osteoblast differentiation & bone formation	[118]
Antioxidant activity	Catalase, i.e., ROS breakdown; ROS scavenging	Protects osteoblasts, maintains redox balance	[118]

of antibacterial chemicals or the inherent antimicrobial activity of the metal ions.

Substantial advancements have been achieved in Mg-based MOFs concerning multifunctional systems. For instance, Mg-MOF-7 achieved a drug loading capacity above 20 wt % with ketoprofen, enabling concurrent management of osteoporotic pain and bone regeneration via Mg^{2+} release [60]. Denosumab-loaded magnesium MOF nanocomposites (250 nm) were engineered to address osteoporosis by delivering immunotherapy and facilitating structural restoration, enabled by the synergistic action of denosumab and magnesium ions [108]. An alternative method involved incorporating Mg-MOFs with alendronate into bisphosphonate-functionalized gel scaffolds (200 nm) to facilitate dual release and promote bone repair [117]. Utilized multifunctional magnesium (Mg) and cerium (Ce) ion-based MOFs via a hydrothermal method to fabricate a three-dimensional (3D) bioprinted scaffold, aimed at efficiently scavenging ROS and sustainably releasing Mg^{2+} to enhance skeletal muscle engineering (SME) and repair age-related bone defects [118]. Under oxidative stress, the scaffolds inhibited senescence of loaded BMSCs and facilitated M2 macrophage polarization in RAW 264.7 cells, thereby enhancing BMSC osteogenic development. Furthermore, Mg^{2+} release enhanced aldehyde dehydrogenase 3A1 expression via activation of the nuclear factor E2-related factor 2 (Nrf2) signaling pathway, thereby delaying BMSC senescence. Incorporating the Wnt/ β -catenin agonist SKL2001 into the scaffolds significantly amplified these effects. The composite scaffolds expedited the healing of critical-sized calvarial lesions in an elderly rat model. The efficacy of enhancing the SME to postpone BMSC senescence by multifunctional Mg-Ce-MOF and SKL2001-based 3D-bioprinting scaffolds, thereby offering a viable approach for facilitating the repair of age-related bone defects [118].

Magnesium-based MOF (Mg-MOFs) are significant due to their intrinsic function in bone mineralization [108]. The synergetic effect of Ca-MOF and Mg-MOF (Ca/Mg-MOF) nanoparticles, when integrated into a hydrogel scaffold, can manifest in several formats: sprayable, injectable, and as a coating material for orthopedic implants (Fig. 4a) [119]. Moreover, nanoengineered hydrogels markedly im-

prove osteogenic differentiation and mineral deposition of preosteoblast cells relative to control groups and individual MOFs. The osteogenic property is due to the cumulative release of Ca^{2+} and Mg^{2+} , which reached $62.89\% \pm 3.05$ and $18.60\% \pm 0.65$, respectively, by day 8. Micro-computed tomography and histological examination of a rat model with critical-size bone defects indicate that the bioactive hydrogel markedly enhances new bone growth without administering supplementary pharmacological molecules. These findings highlight the clinical importance of nano-engineered mineral-based hydrogels in facilitating osteogenesis and expediting bone repair [119].

Ca-ALN MOF, a rod-shaped MOF ($100 \times 100 \times 1000$ nm) was infused with alendronate (ALN) and integrated into chitosan/gelatin (CHS/Gel) scaffolds, which shows the capacity to modulate bone formation through the co-delivery of Ca^{2+} and medicinal agents [120]. The scaffold served as a multifunctional dual-delivery system, releasing calcium ions and alendronate to modulate bone growth. Ca-ALN nanoparticle-loaded CHS/Gel scaffolds were effectively produced using a freeze-drying method. The physicochemical characteristics of scaffolds modified by incorporating nanoparticles indicated that nanoparticles led to reduced porosity, less swelling, and a lower degradation rate. The release profile results showed that the NPs-loaded CHS/Gel scaffolds could concurrently release ALN and Ca ions due to NP decomposition. The incorporation of nanoparticles (NPs) into the CHS/Gel scaffold resulted in an increase in alkaline phosphatase (ALP) activity and the amount of deposited calcium, as well as osteogenesis gene markers. The results indicate that the NPs-loaded CHS/Gel scaffold may improve the differentiation of human adipose tissue-derived mesenchymal stem cells, presenting a promising strategy for bone repair. Another system utilizing Ca-glycyrrhizin MOF (Pm-GCH, 110 ± 9 nm in size) with a core-shell morphology was reported (Fig. 4b) [107]. A new nanoparticle drug system (Pm-GCH) featuring a core-shell architecture was developed. MOFs, composed of glycyrrhizic acid (G) and calcium ions (Ca^{2+}) encapsulating hydrocortisone (H), constituted the core of the nanoparticles. The shells comprised platelet membrane vesicles and achieved significant encapsulation (96.7 %) and loading efficiency (38.7 %) for glycyrrhizic acid and

Table 4. Challenges and proposed solution.

Challenge	Reason	Explanation	Possible solutions
Biocompatibility & biosafety	Uncontrolled ion release, immune activation	Toxicity, inflammation, coagulation, and uncertain long-term safety	Optimize ion release kinetics, surface modifications, and conduct long-term <i>in vivo</i> studies
Degradation control	Degrades too quickly or too slowly	Mismatch with the bone healing cycle; poor mineralization consistency	Engineer MOFs with pH-sensitive or enzyme-responsive degradation; design composites with controlled dissolution
Limited osteogenic capacity	Weak stimulation of mineralization; burst ion release	Short-term bioactivity, insufficient sustained osteogenic signaling	Combine MOFs with hydroxyapatite, bioactive glass, or polymers for synergistic mineralization
Manufacturing Issues	Use of toxic solvents, poor reproducibility, and high cost	Solvothermal synthesis is not scalable or safe	Develop green, solvent-free, or aqueous synthesis; standardize scalable production methods
Mechanical limitations	Weak structural strength, rapid loss upon degradation	Inadequate compressive strength for bone; scaffold collapse risk	Reinforce with polymers, collagen, or 3D printing composites; design hybrid MOF@ceramic scaffolds
Regulatory rules	Lack of standards, limited preclinical data	No FDA guidelines; insufficient large-animal or human studies	Establish toxicity standards, perform long-term studies, and foster academic-industry collaboration

hydrocortisone, delivering both anti-inflammatory and anti-osteoporotic benefits via regulated drug release. The natural platelet membrane imparts Pm-GCH with excellent biocompatibility and facilitates immune evasion. Moreover, influenced by inflammatory chemotactic stimuli, platelet membranes facilitate Pm-GCH in the nonspecific localization of renal inflammatory sites. In an acidic inflammatory environment, GCH gradually decomposes, releasing glycyrrhizic acid and hydrocortisone. Glycyrrhizic acid impedes the inactivation of hydrocortisone, concurrently inhibits the activity of phospholipase A2 (PLA2) and the classical activation pathway of complement C2, obstructs the synthesis of inflammatory mediators, exerts an anti-inflammatory effect, and augments the efficacy of hydrocortisone in the management of steroid-resistant nephrotic syndrome (SRNS). Additionally, glycyrrhizic acid mitigates osteoporosis resulting from prolonged glucocorticoid administration. The results suggest that Pm-GCH is a viable therapeutic approach for SRNS [107].

Bimetallic MOFs derived from cerium and strontium (Ce/Sr-MOFs). These metal-organic frameworks (100–200 nm in size) were applied to titanium implants and functionalized with p-xylylenebisphosphonate (PXPB), facilitating the release of therapeutic ions (Ce^{3+} and Sr^{2+}) and pharmaceuticals to enhance osteogenesis via both catalytic and biological mechanisms (Fig. 4c) [121]. An increased level of reactive oxygen species (ROS) in the bone microenvironment is characteristic of osteoporosis, frequently leading to the dysfunction of bone-associated mesenchymal stem cells (MSCs), which induces MSC senescence and significantly diminishes their osteoblastic capacity. This study presents the *in situ* fabrication of a bone microenvironment-responsive biologically-based

metal-organic framework (BioMOF) coating on titanium surfaces by the coordination of p-xylylenebisphosphonate (PXPB) with Ce/Sr ions using a hydrothermal approach. The AHT-Ce/SrMOF implants utilize the attached Ce and Sr ions to exhibit on-demand superoxide dismutase and catalase-like catalytic activities, effectively decomposing reactive oxygen species in mesenchymal stem cells and restoring their mitochondrial functions. *In vitro* studies demonstrated that AHT-Ce/SrMOF implants significantly activated the AMP-activated protein kinase (AMPK) signaling pathway in MSCs and reduced ROS levels. Conversely, MSCs cultured on AHT-Ce/SrMOF implants exhibited markedly elevated expressions of the mitochondrial fission marker (DRP1), mitochondrial fusion markers (MFN2 and OPA1), and mitophagy markers (PINK1 and LC3) compared to the AHT-CeMOF and AHT-SrMOF groups, suggesting that the BioMOF could enhance mitochondrial function in MSCs to counteract senescence. *In vivo* assessments demonstrated that BioMOF-coated titanium implants may restore mesenchymal stem cell function at the implant site and enhance new bone formation, thereby improving osteointegration in osteoporotic rats. This research can improve implant-mediated fracture healing in clinical settings [121]. Likewise, Ca/Sr-based MOFs modified with the same bisphosphonate were engineered to release Ca^{2+} and Sr^{2+} , thereby promoting bone growth and mitigating the degenerative effects of osteoporosis (Fig. 4d) [122]. It can be used to treat bone demineralization, a characteristic of osteoporosis, by delivering several components, including alkaline-earth cations and bisphosphonate compounds, to maintain normal bone density. Multicomponent BioMOFs that simultaneously release many components at a regulated rate present a compelling solu-

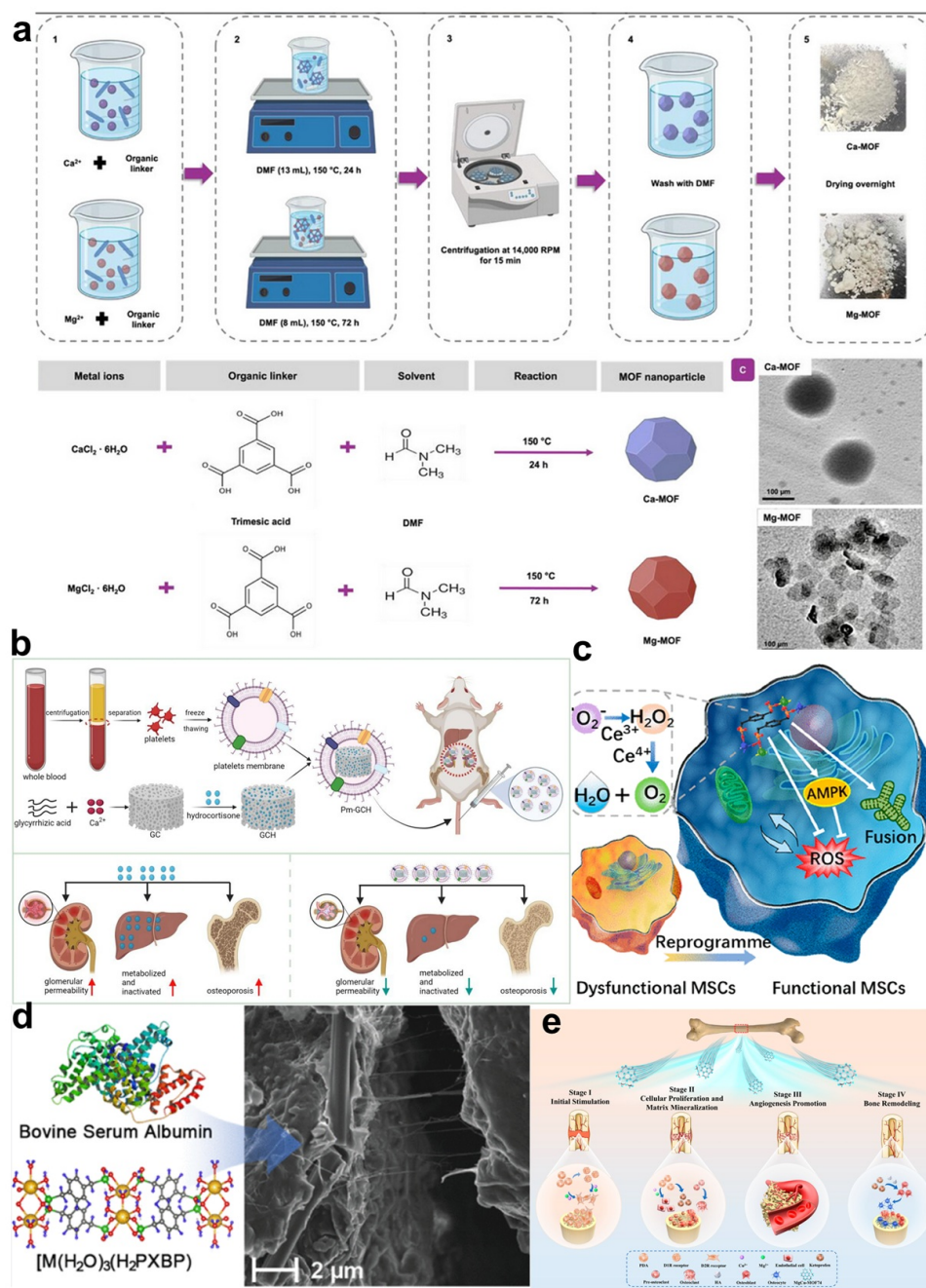


Fig. 4. Alkaline earth-based MOFs for bone treatment. (a) Using a schematic illustration of the synthesis pathway for Ca-MOF and Mg-MOF nanoparticles. Calcium and magnesium ions are combined with organic ligands in a DMF solvent under controlled conditions. The resulting mixtures are subjected to centrifugation and repeated washing to eliminate unreacted precursors and by-products. The final step involves collecting and drying the precipitated MOF nanoparticles for subsequent applications. Proposed reaction mechanism for the formation of MOF nanoparticles, TEM micrographs of the synthesized Ca-MOF and Mg-MOF nanoparticles, figure reprinted from Ref. [119]. (b) Pm-GCH, figure reprinted from Open Access Ref. [107]. This article is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License Copyright © 2021, The Author(s). (c) AHT-Ce/SrMOF. Figure reprinted with permission from [121]. (d) MOF for biomeraziatin, figure reprinted with permission from Ref. [122], Copyright © 2022 American Chemical Society. (e) Ket@MgCu-MOF74/Ti coatings, figure reprinted from Open Access [109] © 2025 by the authors. Licensee MDPI, Basel, Switzerland. This article is an open access article distributed under the terms and conditions of the Creative Commons Attribution (CC BY) license (<https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/>). Copyright © 2019 American Chemical Society.

tion. We present two BioMOFs, consisting of strontium and calcium ions interconnected by p-xylylenebisphosphonate

molecules, which release these three constituents and exhibit no cytotoxicity towards human osteosarcoma cells.

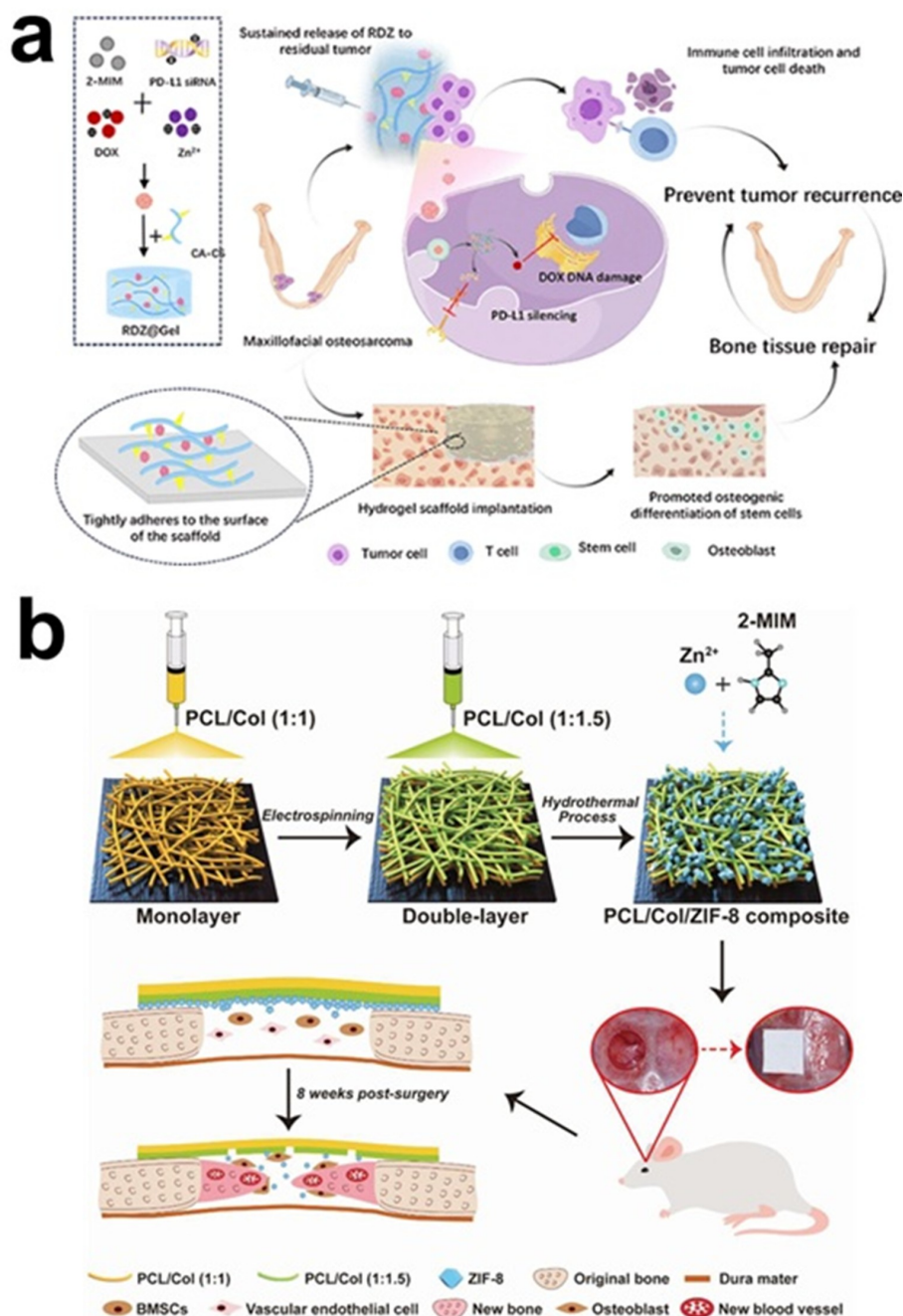


Fig. 5. ZIF8-based materials for bone treatment. (a) Gel, Fig. reprinted with permission from Ref. [129] Copyright © 2025 American Chemical Society. (b) PCL/Col/ZIF-8 composite membrane for guided bone regeneration [47] © 2021 Wiley-VCH GmbH.

Altering the Sr²⁺/Ca²⁺ ratio in these BioMOFs results in a distinctive ion-dissolution rate in simulated bodily fluid; coupled with their protein-adsorption capacity, this characteristic is essential for future advancements in drug-release regulation and mineral-formation enhancement. The one-pot synthesis of these bioMOFs illustrates the efficacy of MOF design methodologies [122].

A bimetallic Mg-Cu-based MOF, exemplified by MgCu-MOF74, was also reported for bone repair [109]. These structures provide significant water stability and facilitate dual ion release (Mg²⁺ and Cu²⁺), with Cu²⁺ aid-

ing antibacterial activity and Mg²⁺ promoting osteogenic responses (Fig. 4e). This property makes them particularly advantageous in scenarios that require concurrent infection control and bone repair [109]. The system develops a titanium-based implant coating that combines drug-controlled release with ionic microenvironment modulation, exhibiting antibacterial and bone-regenerative capabilities. Ketoprofen, a medication with superior analgesic characteristics, was incorporated into MgCu-MOF74 powder, and the Ket@MgCu-MOF74 powder was effectively affixed to the titanium alloy surface by dopamine-mediated

adhesion. The maximum loading capacity of ketoprofen in MgCu-MOF74 is 18.55 %, demonstrating an effective, controlled release profile. The findings indicated that MgCu-MOF74/Ti and Ket@MgCu-MOF74/Ti coatings improved osteogenic efficacy by augmenting alkaline phosphatase activity, collagen production, and extracellular matrix (ECM) mineralization. The release of Mg^{2+} and Cu^{2+} generated an alkaline environment, imparting antibacterial characteristics. In conclusion, the MOF facilitated the regulated release of ketoprofen, while the composite coating can enhance osteogenic differentiation of osteoblasts and bolster the antibacterial properties of titanium alloy implants [109]. Cu-MOF74 without Mg^{2+} demonstrated the most calcium deposition and increased production of bone sialoprotein and osteopontin [123]. The results illustrate the dual functional effectiveness of Cu-MOF-74/PCL/HAp scaffolds in facilitating infection control and bone repair. The adjusted concentrations of Cu-MOF-74 (0.05–0.2 %) efficiently harmonize antibacterial and osteogenic capabilities, offering a potential approach for the healing of bone defects in clinical applications [123].

Alkaline-based MOFs for elements such as Ca^{2+} or Mg^{2+} offered several advantages. Their extensive applicability distinguishes them. They play a crucial role in bone reconstruction and repair, promoting osteogenesis and angiogenesis, exerting antibacterial effects, and exhibiting anti-inflammatory properties. Mg-MOF was made from magnesium chloride and gallic acid and subsequently integrated into gelatin microspheres to form Gel@Mg-MOF composite microspheres [124]. The biocompatibility of the composites was assessed by toxicity and adhesion studies, utilizing gelatin's biocompatibility, controlled release, and biodegradability. Additionally, the osteogenic and angiogenic capabilities of the Gel@Mg-MOF microspheres, as well as their ROS-scavenging ability, were evaluated. The findings indicate that regulated Mg^{2+} release from Gel@Mg-MOF microspheres stimulates osteogenic activity in RBMSCs and improves angiogenic potential in human umbilical vein endothelial cells (HUVECs). The composite microspheres containing gallic acid demonstrated antioxidant effects. The findings indicate that Gel@Mg-MOF microspheres may provide adequate support for repairing bone defects and have potential for clinical application [124].

Zinc-Based MOF

ZIF-8 films, consisting of nanoscale zeolitic imidazolate framework-8 (nanoZIF-8) and microscale (microZIF-8) crystals, were synthesized on porous titanium substrates via hydrothermal and solvothermal techniques, respectively [104]. The cytocompatibility and functioning of nanoZIF-8 and microZIF-8 films on titanium substrates were assessed using several *in vitro* experiments. MG63 human osteosarcoma cells were cultivated on coated surfaces to evaluate cell proliferation via the cell counting kit-8 (CCK-8) as-

say and cell adherence via fluorescent labeling with FITC-phalloidin and DAPI; the cells were thereafter analyzed under a microscope. The osteogenic potential was assessed by quantifying alkaline phosphatase (ALP) activity and osteocalcin (OCN) expression using enzymatic and the enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA) assays, respectively. Furthermore, extracellular matrix mineralization was assessed using alizarin red staining, and quantitative real-time polymerase chain reaction (qRT-PCR) was utilized to examine the expression of critical osteogenic genes, including *ALP*, *Runx2*, *OCN*, and *BMP-2*. The antibacterial efficacy against *Streptococcus mutans* was evaluated using scanning electron microscopy (SEM) to examine bacterial adherence and morphology on surfaces, alongside an agar disk diffusion experiment to measure the inhibitory zones produced by ZIF-8 suspensions. These tests thoroughly assess the biocompatibility, osteogenic activity, and antibacterial effectiveness of MOF-coated titanium products. Biocompatibility evaluations indicated that the nanoZIF-8 coating showed positive interactions with cells, but the microZIF-8 coating negatively affected MG63 osteoblast-like cells.

In comparison to untreated titanium and alkali- and heat-treated titanium surfaces, the nanoZIF-8 coating markedly enhanced ALP activity, facilitated extracellular matrix mineralization, and increased the expression of osteogenic markers, including ALP and *Runx2*, in MG63 cells. The nanoZIF-8 coating suppressed the multiplication of *Streptococcus mutans*. The findings indicate that nanoscale ZIF-8 MOF films possess significant promise as bioactive coatings for bone tissue engineering applications [104].

Moreover, alendronate-encapsulated ZIF-8 nanoparticles (130 ± 30 nm) integrated into electrospun nanofibers exhibited synergistic release of alendronate and Zn^{2+} , thereby enhancing both anti-osteoporotic and osteoinductive effects [54]. Additional advancements encompass the development of magnesium phosphate bone cement augmented with ZIF-8, which improved the cement's mechanical strength and facilitated osteogenesis by ion release [125]. Likewise, 3D-printed scaffolds containing ZIF-8 particles (about 300 nm) facilitated controlled zinc ion release to enhance bone regeneration [126]. A bone-targeted formulation, ZOL-modified ZIF-8 (50 nm), was developed to release drugs, particularly in the acidic microenvironments associated with bone disease, offering opportunities for localized treatment of osteoporosis [127]. Additionally, BioMOF-1, a zinc-based metal-organic framework, was applied to titanium surfaces to produce BioMOF-1@AHT-1 composites (300–500 nm), which exhibited superior thermal stability, improved Zn^{2+} release, and greater biocompatibility for combating bone loss [128].

Doxorubicin (DOX) and programmed death-ligand 1 small interfering RNA (PD-L1 siRNA) were initially encapsulated within ZIF-8 to produce a very stable nanocomplex, RNA-DOX@ZIF-8 (RDZ, Fig. 5a) [129]. A mul-

tifunctional hydrogel (Gel@RDZ) was subsequently synthesized by combining RDZ with catechol-modified chitosan in a uniform manner. Gel@RDZ demonstrates a substantial drug-loading capacity, superior viscoelasticity, and robust scaffold adherence. The Gel@RDZ-coated scaffold group exhibited enhanced bone regeneration efficacy in a rat femoral defect model. In a murine osteosarcoma recurrence model, Gel@RDZ demonstrated optimal immune cell infiltration, significantly reduced tumor recurrence, and greatly enhanced the tumor-killing efficiency of CD8⁺ T cells. Consequently, creating a multifunctional hydrogel system (Gel@RDZ) offers an extensive therapeutic approach for postoperative maxillofacial osteosarcoma [129].

Rapamycin (RAPA) is widely used in biological research and therapeutic settings owing to its potent anticancer, immunosuppressive, and neuroprotective properties. Nonetheless, the direct injection of RAPA may result in considerable adverse effects, such as pronounced immune suppression, increased susceptibility to infections, and the potential for tumorigenesis. To overcome these constraints, ZIF-8 was recognized for its stability and biocompatibility as a drug delivery vehicle [110]. It was infused with rapamycin to create a composite system (ZIF-8@RAPA). The ZIF-8@RAPA particles exhibited a distinct dodecahedral morphology, an average particle size of 82 ± 4.7 nm, and a substantial drug-loading capacity of 11.53 %. *In vitro* drug release tests indicated that RAPA was released in a sustained and regulated way. Structural stability studies in phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) showed that ZIF-8@RAPA remained stable for 6 weeks, followed by slow degradation, leading to the development of microcrystals (dia(Zn)) by the 8th week, likely influenced by phosphate ions in the medium. Biocompatibility evaluations with RAW 264.7 macrophages and zebrafish embryo models demonstrated that the ZIF-8@RAPA system displayed concentration-dependent toxicity, maintaining a favorable safety profile at concentrations below 100 $\mu\text{g/mL}$. The structural evolution and degradation behavior of ZIF-8@RAPA, reinforcing its viability as a secure and efficient drug delivery system for biological applications [110].

An innovative electrospun asymmetric double-layer membrane consisting of polycaprolactone/collagen (PCL/Col) has been enhanced with MOF crystals for bone tissue engineering (Fig. 5b) [47]. The membrane has two separate functional layers: a barrier layer and a layer functionalized with MOF. Optimizing the PCL/Col weight ratio (1:1 and 1:1.5) refined mechanical properties and degradation rates, achieving a balance between structural integrity and bioresorbability. The membrane exhibited a 49.9 % drop in tensile strength under wet conditions and total breakdown within 12 weeks. The incorporation of MOF crystals into the membrane enabled pH-responsive release of Zn^{2+} ions, which are known for their role in promoting osteogenesis and angiogenesis.

In vitro experiments indicated that the barrier layer successfully prevents fibrous tissue invasion, whilst the MOF-containing layer markedly improves osteogenic and angiogenic cellular responses. *In vivo* experiments using a rat calvarial defect model showed that the MOF-modified membrane facilitates bone repair and angiogenesis at 8 weeks post-implantation. Moreover, significant angiogenic activity was observed in a chick chorioallantoic membrane (CAM) model, indicating enhanced efficacy compared with commercial collagen membranes. This multifunctional PCL/Col-MOF composite membrane is a promising approach for directed bone regeneration, providing physical barrier qualities and bioactivity to enhance neovascularization and osteoinduction in bone defect healing [47].

Gao *et al.* [130] demonstrated that nano-ZIF-8 promotes the differentiation of rat BMSCs into osteoblasts by endocytosis-mediated stimulation of the MAPK signaling pathway, thereby validating its dual osteogenic actions *in vitro* and *in vivo*. Zhang *et al.* [131] enclosed DMOG within nano-ZIF-8, resulting in a sustained release that markedly improved osteogenesis and angiogenesis through effective drug delivery. A biomimetic multifunctional scaffold consisting of Zn-modified MOF-818 (Zn-MOF-818) infused with deferoxamine (DFO), gelatin methacryloyl (GelMA) hydrogel, and demineralized bone matrix (DBM) effectively scavenges excess ROS, enhances angiogenesis, and modulates immune responses [132]. Incorporating Zn markedly improves the superoxide dismutase and catalase-like activities of MOF-818, hence augmenting ROS-scavenging efficacy. Zn-MOF-818 interrupts the detrimental intracellular loop of mitochondrial failure and reactive oxygen species accumulation by promoting mitophagy, maintaining mitochondrial function, and upregulating antioxidant genes. Moreover, Zn-MOF-818 promotes macrophage polarization toward the M2 phenotype and mitigates inflammation, thereby establishing a favorable immunological milieu for the osteogenic differentiation of BMSCs. The release of DFO, an activator of the hypoxia-inducible factor 1- α (HIF-1 α) pathway, and Zn^{2+} from Zn-MOF-818, together with the secretion of numerous cytokines from DBM (including bone morphogenetic proteins (BMPs) and vascular endothelial growth factors), promotes angiogenesis and osteogenesis. This scaffold simultaneously addresses many variables, presenting a promising strategy for treating steroid-induced femoral head necrosis (SONFH) [132].

Zirconium-Based MOFs

A zirconium-based metal-organic framework, designated as MOF-801, was synthesized and integrated into a gelatin matrix as an osteoconductive agent to produce a nanocomposite bone scaffold by the freeze-drying process [111]. The biological activity of the fabricated scaffolds was assessed using MTT, alizarin red, crystal violet, and

ALP assays. Incorporating MOF-801 nanoparticles into the scaffolds increased their compressive strength to 15 ± 0.05 MPa. The nanocomposite samples containing MOF-801 nanoparticles exhibited advantageous bioactive properties, as evidenced by their ability to form apatite on their surfaces when immersed in simulated body fluid (SBF). The Zr ion and fumarate release investigations demonstrated sustained release profiles from the gelatin matrix, resulting in antioxidant and anti-inflammatory characteristics. The MTT assay results confirmed the biocompatibility of scaffolds containing up to 5 % w/w MOF-801, whereas the crystal violet assay demonstrated adequate cell confluency and adhesion. Ultimately, alizarin red and ALP activity experiments showed that an increase in MOF-801 may stimulate calcium mineralization and Alkaline Phosphatase enzyme synthesis in MG-63 cells, hence affirming the potential of the produced scaffolds for bone tissue engineering applications [111]. A teriparatide (TRP) formulation suitable for oral delivery, utilizing biocompatible metal-organic framework nanoparticles (MOF-808 NPs) co-loaded with TRP and functionalized with transferrin targeting ligands (M@P@T NPs) [133]. The engineered nanoporous structure and transferrin surface modification effectively safeguard TRP from acidic and enzymatic breakdown under hostile gastrointestinal conditions, while facilitating the regulated release of TRP in the phosphate-rich circulation. By over-expressing transferrin receptors (TfR) on intestinal epithelial cells, the nanosystem promotes receptor-mediated transcellular transport, enabling effective systemic delivery of TRP with enhanced oral bioavailability. Following 1 month of oral administration of low-dose M@P@T to osteoporosis model mice, therapeutic effects akin to those observed with subcutaneous TRP injections were noted, including enhanced bone mineral density, improved trabecular architecture, and a marked reduction in osteoporosis symptoms. The findings indicate that this MOF-based oral TRP approach is promising for enhancing and streamlining osteoporosis treatment [133].

Another Zr-MOF, i.e., UiO-66 nanocrystals, was produced and studied, exhibiting uniform shape and a highly crystalline structure [134]. The nanocrystals were subsequently integrated into an alginate/methyl cellulose (AL/MC) hydrogel at varying concentrations, and printing conditions were tuned based on the nanocrystals' physicochemical attributes. Optimized under particular conditions, AL/MC/UiO-66 was employed as a bioink to 3D bioprint scaffolds incorporating MC3T3-E1 preosteoblasts. Cell viability and osteogenic differentiation properties were evaluated. The findings indicated that AL/MC scaffolds containing 2 % (w/v) UiO-66 nanocrystals greatly enhanced osteogenic differentiation, as evidenced by high ALP activity and increased expression of osteogenic markers (Runx2, COLI, OCN) [134]. The wet-spun chitosan scaffolds, including fosfomycin-loaded UiO-66 nanocrystals (CHI/UiO-66/FOS) exhibited a fibrous mesh struc-

ture with integrated microscale fibers and enhanced mechanical strength [135]. *In vitro* antibacterial investigations showed that CHI/UiO-66/FOS scaffolds had bactericidal efficacy against *Staphylococcus aureus*. Furthermore, the scaffolds demonstrated biocompatibility with MC3T3-E1 pre-osteoblasts, greatly enhancing the expression of osteogenesis-related genes and promoting extracellular matrix mineralization *in vitro*. UiO-66 MOFs exhibit dual functionality, and CHI/UiO-66/FOS scaffolds have considerable potential for further investigation as an alternative strategy for treating infected bone defects, such as osteomyelitis [135]. Composite scaffolds of poly-3-hydroxybutyrate-zein and UiO-66 were produced via electrospinning [136]. The scaffold with 2 wt % UiO-66 demonstrated the most favorable characteristics. Including 2 wt % UiO-66 decreases the fiber diameter and water contact angle by approximately 54 nm and 20° , respectively, while enhancing surface roughness and crystallinity. UiO-66 markedly improved ultimate tensile stress and Young's modulus by almost 90 % and 101 %, respectively. It enhanced the biomineralization of the scaffold and accelerated the breakdown rate. Incorporating UiO-66 significantly enhanced survivability, proliferation, attachment, ALP activity, and ECM mineralization, along with upregulation of *COLI*, *Runx2*, and *OCN* genes in MG-63 cells cultured on the scaffolds. In summary, the integration of UiO-66 not only strengthened the composite scaffold but also promoted osteogenesis, rendering it a favorable choice for bone tissue engineering applications [136].

Advantages of MOFs

MOF-based composites have been synthesized using advanced methodologies such as freeze-drying, 3D printing [133], papermaking, and electrospinning [134,135], enabling the creation of diverse shapes, including aerogels [137], sheets [21], and 3D scaffolds [138]. The diverse structures and functions underscore the remarkable potential of MOFs in both traditional and advanced biomedical applications [139]. A responsive hydrogel system incorporating carboxymethyl chitosan (CMCS), dextran (DEX), 4-formylphenylboronic acid (4-FPBA), and Mg-GA MOFs was reported [140]. The injectable self-healing hydrogel establishes a dual-crosslinked network, integrating the MOF and enabling on-demand release responsive to ROS and pH levels associated with periodontitis. The synergistic effects of the hydrogel containing MOFs enabled several functions, including high antibacterial activity, immunomodulation, and enhanced bone regeneration in periodontitis. The *in vivo* and *in vitro* experiments confirmed the system's effectiveness in suppressing the expression of inflammation-related genes and proteins, thereby promoting periodontal bone regeneration. The hydrogel system using MOFs demonstrated potential as a therapeutic approach for overcoming obstacles in periodontitis-related bone regeneration [140].

3D-printed composite scaffold featuring extensive interconnected porosity and diverse bioactivities through the integration of magnesium-copper dual-MOF (MgCu-MOF74), gallic acid (GA), and polylactic acid (PLA) [141]. MgCu-MOF74 demonstrates antioxidant capabilities, regulated metal ion release, and osteo-angiogenic characteristics. The composite scaffold exhibited superior mechanical properties and degradation characteristics ideal for bone regeneration. The integration of GA and dual-ion synergy facilitated significant multicellular modulation by promoting macrophage polarization, inducing angiogenesis mediated by endothelial cells, stimulating the morphological maturation of Schwann cells, and enhancing the osteogenic differentiation of BMSCs, while substantially improving intercellular crosstalk to optimize the local multidimensional microenvironment. *In vivo* investigations further validated that the scaffold successfully promotes the healing of steroid-associated osteonecrosis (SAON)-related bone deformities by leveraging the synergistic interactions among the immunological, angiogenic, and neurogenic microenvironments. This study presented an approach to addressing refractory SAON-related bone deformities, emphasizing the scaffold's ability to influence multiple cell types and restructure intricate microenvironments [141]. The viability of 3D-printed multi-material structures for intricate tissue engineering applications, while establishing an advanced framework for creating intelligent biomaterials that simultaneously tackle biological regeneration and inflammation management [142].

MOFs possess a high specific surface area, significant porosity, regulated degradation, and diverse composition; they serve not only as carriers for controlled drug release [143]. They fulfill various functions in treating OP and microbial infections by releasing metal ions, offering intrinsic advantages, necessitating prolonged treatment [92]. Incorporating flavonoids into MOFs and injectable hydrogels resulted in a 72% enhancement in new bone production *in vivo* [144]. Although further study is needed to validate long-term therapeutic efficacy, our findings demonstrate the significant potential of flavonoid-functionalized biomaterials for bone regeneration [144]. Iron-based MOF was reported to promote bone regeneration by enhancing osteogenesis and mitigating oxidative stress [145]. *In vitro*, ferric (Fe)-MOF enhanced the expression of osteogenesis-related genes and proteins while facilitating the decomposition of hydrogen peroxide into oxygen and water, thus mitigating ROS accumulation that hinders osteoblast functionality. *In vivo*, Fe-MOF suspensions in rat femoral defects and MOF-loaded hydrogel scaffolds in rabbit cranial defects enhanced bone repair relative to controls. These findings indicate that MOF facilitates bone regeneration by neutralizing ROS and activating the bone morphogenetic protein (BMP) pathway, highlighting its potential as a therapeutic biomaterial for repairing substantial bone defects [145].

MOFs offer multifunctional properties. Magnesium/copper MOF (Mg/Cu-MOF) coatings were synthesized and affixed to pure zinc [146]. The findings demonstrated that the degradation rate and aqueous stability of Mg/Cu-MOF coatings can be modulated by adjusting the Cu^{2+} feeding ratio. As the coating and zinc substrate deteriorated, an alkaline microenvironment was enriched with Zn^{2+} , Mg^{2+} , and Cu^{2+} . The extracts enhanced calcium phosphate deposition, osteoblast development, and endothelial cell vascularization. Of these, Mg/Cu1 had the most superior overall performance. The improved antibacterial efficacy of Mg/Cu1 was evidenced both *in vitro* and *in vivo*, demonstrating much higher bacteriostatic activity against Gram-positive *Staphylococcus aureus* and Gram-negative *Escherichia coli* relative to the bare sample. The bimetallic Mg/Cu-MOF coating effectively integrates multifunctionality into a Zn membrane and provides a viable platform for enhancing bone regeneration, thereby facilitating the application of Zn-based materials as barrier membranes in oral clinical trials [146].

MOFs facilitate bone therapy in various mechanisms (Table 3). They enhanced osteogenesis by releasing osteoinductive ions, e.g., Ca^{2+} , Mg^{2+} , Zn^{2+} , Sr^{2+} , and Cu^{2+} , and by activating essential signaling pathways, while facilitating angiogenesis through pro-vascular ions such as Cu^{2+} and Co^{2+} . They are antioxidants that neutralize ROS, thereby safeguarding osteoblasts from oxidative stress. Their antibacterial properties inhibit infections, while their porous, adjustable architectures enable controlled delivery of drugs, genes, and growth factors, often in response to stimuli such as pH or ROS. Moreover, MOFs regulate immune responses to establish a pro-regenerative milieu. They are used to treat specific bone disorders—such as osteoporosis, osteomyelitis, bone malignancies, and diabetic bone defects—through targeted drug delivery, antibacterial properties, immunomodulation, and the promotion of angiogenesis.

Challenges

MOFs exhibit high performance in biomedical applications. However, critical challenges, such as cytotoxicity, long-term biosafety, and scalability, should be investigated. Some of these challenges are summarized in Table 4 [147]. The toxicity of MOFs can be mitigated through surface modification and the formation of hybrid composites. Notwithstanding their potential, obstacles persist, including achieving sufficient stability under physiological conditions, controlling degradation rates, and conducting comprehensive *in vivo* toxicity evaluations. Future research will likely focus on hybrid, stimuli-responsive MOF systems and on integrating MOFs with biopolymers or hydrogels to improve therapeutic efficacy. Alkaline-earth MOFs constitute a multifaceted and increasingly significant foundation for advancing biological technologies.

MOFs have garnered heightened interest in bone regeneration and mineralization due to their adjustable chemistry, porosity, and capacity to release osteogenic ions [148]. Nonetheless, numerous obstacles persist before its clinical application. Biocompatibility and biosafety are critical issues, as unregulated ion release or interactions with blood proteins may induce inflammation, coagulation, or immunological reactions (Table 4) [149]. The manageability of degradation poses challenges, as MOFs often disintegrate rapidly or slowly, leading to inadequate osteogenic support or prolonged retention as foreign substances. Their osteogenic potential is constrained compared to genuine bone-like materials, as many MOFs cannot sustain prolonged mineralization and merely provide transient ion release. From a manufacturing standpoint, conventional solvothermal synthesis utilizes hazardous solvents such as dimethyl formamide (DMF) and is characterized by inadequate reproducibility and scalability. Mechanically, pure MOFs have insufficient compressive strength and stability for load-bearing bone scaffolds, with their strength suppressed rapidly upon degradation. Additionally, regulatory and translational obstacles remain, characterized by the absence of established safety standards, inadequate long-term animal research, and restricted industrial scalability (Table 4). To address these challenges, research should concentrate on environmentally sustainable and reproducible synthesis techniques, the formulation of composites utilizing polymers or bioactive ceramics to enhance strength and osteogenesis, the execution of extensive biosafety evaluations, and the establishment of regulatory frameworks in conjunction with economically viable production methods.

Conclusions

Metal-organic frameworks represent a rapidly advancing field in the development of bioinspired materials for bone tissue engineering and biomineralization. The structural tunability, elevated surface area, and modular synthesis of MOFs facilitate the integration of bioactive metals (e.g., Mg, Ca, Zn, Sr) with medicinal compounds for regulated release and multifunctional efficacy. This study illustrates how several types of MOFs, such as BioMOFs, bioactive MOFs, and hybrid MOF composites, have been designed to promote the mineralization of proteins, viruses, and microbial cells, thereby providing novel pathways for the development of bone-mimicking microenvironments. The ability of MOFs to influence biological responses, including enhancing osteoblast development, promoting angiogenesis, and treating bone infections, makes them highly beneficial for addressing complex bone problems. Moreover, MOF-based systems hold promise for addressing the limitations of existing therapeutics by enabling responsive drug delivery and immunomodulatory functions. The advancement of therapeutically relevant MOF systems will depend on addressing challenges related to long-term biocompatibility, degradation dynamics, and scalable synthe-

sis. Advancements in surface functionalization, ion doping, and the integration of composites with scaffolds or hydrogels will be crucial for improving therapeutic efficacy and patient safety. Through sustained interdisciplinary collaboration, MOFs are poised to significantly advance bone regeneration, regenerative medicine, and precision orthopedics.

List of Abbreviations

3D, three-dimensional; 4-FPBA, 4-formylphenylboronic acid; ADH, alcohol dehydrogenase; AL/MC, alginate/methyl cellulose; ALN, alendronate; ALP, alkaline phosphatase; BMSCs, bone marrow mesenchymal stem cells; BMP, bone morphogenetic protein; BMP-6, bone morphogenetic protein-6; BioMOFs, biologically-based metal-organic frameworks; PCFs, protein crystalline frameworks; CAM, chick chorioallantoic membrane; CAT, catalase; CD, cyclodextrin; CHS, chitosan; CMCS, carboxymethyl chitosan; COX2, cyclooxygenase 2; Cyt C, cytochrome c; DBM, demineralized bone matrix; DEX, dextran; DFO, deferoxamine; DMOG, dimethylloxalylglycine; DOX, doxorubicin; ELISA, enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay; GA, gallic acid; Gel, gelatin; GelMA, gelatin methacryloyl; GOx, glucose oxidase; hMSCs, human mesenchymal stem cells; HRP, horseradish peroxidase; HUVECs, human umbilical vein endothelial cells; Ket, ketoprofen; MBioFs, metal-biomolecule frameworks; MIL, materials institute of lavoisier; MOFs, metal-organic frameworks; MPF, metal-peptide frameworks; MSMOFs (2D MSMOFs), 2D mesoporous spindle-shaped MOFs; nanoZIF-8, nanoscale zeolitic imidazolate framework-8; OCN, osteocalcin; OCPP, 5,10,15,20-tetrakis(3,5-biscarboxylphenyl)porphyrin; OP, osteoporosis; PAA, poly(acrylic acid); PCNs, porous coordination networks; PCPs, porous coordination polymers; PCL/Col, polycaprolactone/collagen; PBS, phosphate-buffered saline; PLA, polylactic acid; PLGA, γ -poly-L-glutamic acid; qRT-PCR, quantitative real-time polymerase chain reaction; ROS, reactive oxygen species; SAON, steroid-associated osteonecrosis; SBF, simulated body fluid; SEM, scanning electron microscopy; SME, skeletal muscle engineering; SONFH, steroid-induced femoral head necrosis; SRNS, steroid-resistant nephrotic syndrome; TCPP, meso-tetra(4-carboxyphenyl)porphine (H_4 TCPP); TfR, transferrin receptors; TMV, tobacco mosaic virus; TRP, teriparatide; UOx, urate oxidase; WHO, World Health Organization; ZIFs, zeolitic imidazolate frameworks; HmIm, 2-methylimidazole; NPs, nanoparticles; PXBP, p-xylylenebisphosphonate; RAPA, rapamycin; CCK-8, cell counting kit-8; Mg, magnesium; Ca, calcium; Ba, barium; Zn, zinc; Sr, strontium; Zr, zirconium; Ce, cerium; Ala, alanine; Val, valine; Ser, serine; Cu, copper; Ti, titanium; Co, cobalt; Fe, ferric; BTC, benzene-1,3,5-tricarboxylate; AMPK, AMP-activated protein kinase; PD-L1 siRNA,

programmed death-ligand 1 small interfering RNA; DMF, dimethyl formamide; ECM, extracellular matrix.

Artificial Intelligence Declaration

AI tools were used only for language editing tasks, e.g., rephrasing, grammatical correction, and readability enhancement. No artificial intelligence help was employed for data analysis, result interpretation, or scientific content creation. The authors are fully responsible for the integrity and precision of the scientific content provided.

Availability of Data and Materials

All data are presented in the manuscript.

Author Contributions

HNA conducted writing—review & editing, writing—original draft, visualization, validation, supervision, software, resources, project administration, methodology, investigation, funding acquisition, formal analysis, data curation, and conceptualization.

Ethics Approval and Consent to Participate

Not applicable.

Acknowledgments

Not applicable.

Funding

This work was supported and funded by the Dean-ship of Scientific Research at Imam Mohammad Ibn Saud Islamic University (IMSIU) (grant number IMSIU-DDRSP2501).

Conflict of Interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have influenced the work reported in this paper.

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Editor's note: The Scientific Editor responsible for this paper was Yang Liu.

Received: 1st August 2025; **Accepted:** 26th November 2025; **Published:** 31st December 2025