

Invited Review

Medically translatable quantum dots for biosensing and imaging

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ABSTRACT

Photoluminescent quantum dots (QDs) promise many biomedical applications as a new class of optical probes showing unique optical properties such as high brightness, stability, and multiplexing ability. In this review, we focus on recent research interest of medically-translatable QDs for in vitro biomedical sensing and in vivo imaging. QD-based biomedical sensing shows higher selectivity and sensitivity over conventional methods for immunohistochemistry, immunoassay, and enzymatic assays. In addition, QD-based biosensors afford simple detections of multiple biomarkers. QD probes in the second near-infrared region ($1000 \leq \lambda \leq 1700$ nm) show the great potential for in vivo fluorescence imaging because of the suppressed light scattering and the capability for deep tissue penetration. The second near-infrared emitting QDs covered in this review include Ag₂S, Ag₂Se, Ag₂Te, PbS, PbSe, InAs, Cd₃P₂, Cd₆P₇, and Cd₃As₂ QDs. In vivo imaging properties of these QDs are highlighted with special reference to vasculature imaging and tumor localization.

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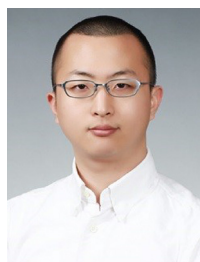
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1. Introduction

Quantum dots (QDs) are photoluminescent semiconductor nanocrystals that are composed of a few hundred to a few thousand atoms [1,2]. The nanometer size of QDs is small enough to introduce quantum confinement, so they have novel optical and electronic properties that cannot be observed in the bulk semiconductor. The optical properties of QDs can be controlled by adjusting their material composition, size, shape, and surface chemistry. QDs have high quantum yield (QY), photo-stability, broad absorption with large one-photon and two-photon absorption cross-sections, narrow and symmetric photoluminescence from UV to near-infrared (NIR) range, and large effective Stokes shift, which make them excellent fluorescent probes in biomedical applications [3–5]. QDs have a broad absorption spectrum and narrow emission profile that allow simultaneous excitation of multiple fluorescence colors and effective spectral deconvolution of individual photoluminescence signals, and are therefore suitable for multiplexing; simultaneous detection of multiple signals. These advantages of QDs suggest applications of QD-based biosensors for disease diagnosis which are expected to improve the sensitivity and accuracy [6–8]. QDs can be also used as fluorescent probes for in vivo molecular imaging in the second near-infrared (NIR-II; wavelength $1000 \leq \lambda \leq 1700$ nm) region which is a useful range in biomedical applications for disease diagnosis [9,10]. Fluorescence molecular imaging can provide real-time visualization, multiplexing ability, high sensitivity, and noninvasive diagnostic method. Compared to other spectral ranges, NIR-II light is less scattered and absorbed by

biomolecules, and therefore penetrates more deeply into tissues, provides improved spatial resolution, and lowers autofluorescence [11,12]. Advancement of NIR-II-fluorescence imaging technology requires development of NIR-II-fluorophores with high quantum yield. QDs are the leading candidate for NIR-II in vivo imaging for biomedical applications. Herein, we showcase recent studies regarding (1) in vitro biomedical applications of QDs for sensing and (2) NIR-II-emitting QDs for in vivo medical imaging through deep tissues. For QD probes to be translated to clinical use, they must have minimal toxicity. Toxicity is less concerned when QD probes are used in vitro application because QD probes used for excised tissues or corrected blood sample from the patient, so this is likely to be one of the most widely-applied clinical applications in the near future. QDs for NIR-II-fluorescent probes are expected to be used for in vivo molecular imaging at the preclinical level and clinical level in the future.

1.1. Synthesis of QDs

Medical applications require brightly-emitting QDs of uniform size and high crystallinity with fewer defects. Semiconductor QDs have been prepared by various methods such as molecular beam epitaxy, solvothermal synthesis in organic solvent with high boiling point, sol-gel processing, and microwave irradiation [13,14]. In the colloidal synthesis of QDs, high reaction temperature has been usually preferred to afford facile rearrangement and annealing of atoms in a QD, which results in bright QDs with suppressed crystal defects. Solvothermal syntheses of colloidal QDs in high boiling point organic solvents such as octadecene and trioctylphosphine have yielded high-quality QDs (Fig. 1) [15,16]. In common solvothermal methods, activated organometallic precursors (e.g., cadmium oleate) in hot solvent are rapidly mixed with chalcogen precursors (e.g., trioctylphosphine selenide), then nucleation and growth proceed to produce QDs. The size and band-gap of QDs can be easily controlled by adjusting the reaction time, temperature, precursor concentration, and amount of surfactant. Various kinds of semiconductor QDs can be produced by choosing appropriate organometallic and anion precursors: examples include CdSe (II–IV group), InP (III–V group), Ag₂Se (I–VI), and CuInS₂ (I–III–VI group).

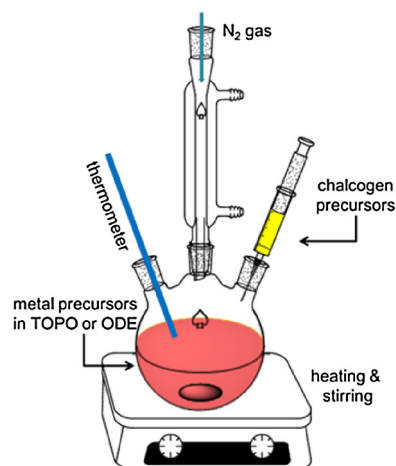


Fig. 1. Schematic illustration of the solvothermal synthesis of colloidal QDs.

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