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Review

# Rare Earth Ion-Doped Vanadate Materials: A Comprehensive Review of Synthesis Strategies, Luminescent Properties, and Sensing Applications

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## Abstract

In recent years, rare earth (RE) ion-doped vanadate materials have garnered significant attention due to their promising applications in everyday technologies. Vanadate-based compounds, typically containing  $V^{5+}$  ions within oxide structures, form  $VO_4$  tetrahedra that enable broad ultraviolet absorption and wide-range visible light emission. These materials serve as versatile hosts for RE ions, namely, the 15 lanthanides (lanthanum (La) to lutetium (Lu)) plus scandium (Sc), and yttrium (Y), which act as luminescent centers when incorporated into the matrix. The unique electronic configuration of RE ions, particularly their unpaired 4f electrons, makes them ideal for diverse applications in luminescence, magnetism, electronic and magnetic relaxation, and catalysis. While RE ions exhibit sharp and intense emission peaks in the visible and near-infrared regions, vanadate hosts contribute broad-band spectra through charge transfer transitions within the  $VO_4$  units. These complementary luminescent properties are critical for the advancement of optoelectronic devices. To enhance performance and broaden the applicability of RE-doped vanadate materials, ongoing research focuses on developing innovative synthesis techniques and structural designs. This paper presents a comprehensive review of recent progress in synthesis strategies, luminescent behavior, and sensing applications of RE ion-doped vanadate materials.

**Keywords:** rare earth; vanadate; synthesis; luminescence; downconversion; upconversion; sensing applications

## 1. Introduction

Vanadates represent a family of inorganic compounds containing vanadium ion in its highest oxidation state (+5). The most basic member of this group is the tetrahedral orthovanadate ion,  $VO_4^{3-}$ , commonly encountered in sodium orthovanadate or in alkaline solutions of  $V_2O_5$  at pH values above 13 [1]. There are various group of vanadate-based materials: orthovanadates ( $M_3VO_4$ ), pyrovanadate ( $M_4V_2O_7$ ) and metavanadates ( $MVO_3$ ), often involving metals  $M = Na, K, Ca,$  or  $Bi$  or rare earth (RE) elements. Among them, RE ( $Eu^{3+}, Sm^{3+}, Dy^{3+}, Ho^{3+}, Nd^{3+}, Er^{3+}, Yb^{3+},$  etc.) doped orthovanadate such as yttrium orthovanadate ( $YVO_4$ ), gadolinium orthovanadate ( $GdVO_4$ ) and lutetium orthovanadate ( $LuVO_4$ ), have attracted considerable attention due to their strong luminescence, long fluorescence lifetime, low threshold, large emission cross section and high absorption coefficient [2,3].

Rare-earth orthovanadates, expressed by the formula  $REVO_4$  (where RE represents La–Lu, Y, or Sc), serve as versatile hosts for incorporating optically active trivalent ions. Because these dopant ions share the same +3 oxidation state and exhibit close similarities in ionic size, electronegativity, and electronic configuration with the rare-earth cations of the lattice, they can be introduced across a

broad concentration range. This substitution occurs without causing significant distortions or alterations in the crystal structure [4].

In addition, incorporation of multiple optically active dopants into orthovanadate matrix is essential for enhancing both the performance and versatility of the matrix. By incorporating various co-dopants, researchers are exploring their potential as sensitizers and their ability to expand the functional properties of the medium. These investigations aim to achieve advanced effects such as self-Q-switching, self-mode-locking, self-frequency-doubling, and self-Raman conversion, thereby broadening the operational capabilities of the system [5]. REVO<sub>4</sub> doped with optically active trivalent ions is known for its strong luminescent behavior, which arises from efficient energy transfer processes between the vanadate groups and the dopant ions. By carefully choosing the type and concentration of these dopants, a broad spectrum of emission colors can be achieved. Both undoped and doped REVO<sub>4</sub> systems have been widely investigated as multifunctional materials. Their versatility makes them highly appealing for diverse applications, including use in phosphors, specialty glasses, optical polarizers, and optoelectronic devices. They also play important roles in telecommunications, scintillation detectors, and photocatalysis. Furthermore, REVO<sub>4</sub> compounds show promise as advanced sensing nanoprobles, offering dual functionality for optical bioimaging and magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) [6,7].

The YVO<sub>4</sub> material stands out among orthovanadates as one of the most extensively studied laser materials over the past few decades. Its unique physical characteristics makes it highly valuable in diverse applications, ranging from polarizers and gas sensors to phosphors and advanced laser systems, particularly when doped with trivalent rare-earth ions [8]. Also, YVO<sub>4</sub> exhibits remarkable chemical stability along with a broad optical transparency range from 400 to 5000 nm. Owing to these properties, it has found extensive use in optical communication systems and is a key material in the development of light isolators and circulators [9]. Rare-earth-doped LuVO<sub>4</sub> materials demonstrate exceptional laser performance, attributed to their stronger absorption at pump wavelengths and enhanced emission cross-sections compared to other orthovanadates. In particular, neodymium-doped LuVO<sub>4</sub> (Nd:LuVO<sub>4</sub>), which crystallizes in the zircon structure, offers a significantly larger emission cross-section than Nd:YVO<sub>4</sub> and Nd:GdVO<sub>4</sub>, while also maintaining a high threshold for optical damage [10].

On another side, GdVO<sub>4</sub>, with its exceptionally high melting point at ~ 1800 °C, offers several advantages over YVO<sub>4</sub>. It delivers greater brightness, responds efficiently to ultraviolet excitation, and facilitates effective charge-transfer processes. In addition, GdVO<sub>4</sub> exhibits lower phonon energy, reduced sensitivity to moisture, and can serve in multiple applications either in its undoped form or when doped with optically active trivalent lanthanide ions [11,12].

Materials based on Gd<sup>3+</sup> (4f<sup>7</sup>) ions serve as excellent lattice hosts for developing up-conversion systems, largely because their lowest excited states lie at relatively high energies. The luminescent behavior of GdVO<sub>4</sub> strongly depends on the rare-earth ions incorporated into its lattice. Doping with Eu<sup>3+</sup>, Dy<sup>3+</sup>, or Sm<sup>3+</sup> enables the material to act as an efficient down-converter. In contrast, introducing ions such as Er<sup>3+</sup>/Yb<sup>3+</sup>, Ho<sup>3+</sup>/Yb<sup>3+</sup>, Tm<sup>3+</sup>/Yb<sup>3+</sup> or complex mixtures like Er<sup>3+</sup>/Tm<sup>3+</sup>/Ho<sup>3+</sup>/Yb<sup>3+</sup> generates a broad range of up-conversion emission colours [13]. Furthermore, Nd<sup>3+</sup> doping expands its luminescent potential, adding another dimension to its versatility. Neodymium-doped REVO<sub>4</sub> compounds combine strong mechanical stability with excellent optical performance, particularly through their pronounced absorption at 808 nm. This wavelength is highly relevant for biomedical technologies, making such materials especially attractive in that field. In addition, nanoscale phosphors derived from GdVO<sub>4</sub> and co-doped with rare-earth ions such as Nd<sup>3+</sup> and Yb<sup>3+</sup> can act as colloidal donor-acceptor systems. These nanophosphors provide a useful platform for investigating interparticle energy transfer phenomena in aqueous nanofluids [14]. Also, Gd-based materials can be used in osteogenic, antimicrobial, anticancer applications, and in bioimaging and bioprobes. This functionality arises from the presence of unpaired electrons in Gd<sup>3+</sup> ions, which effectively alter the relaxation dynamics of nearby water protons, thereby enhancing image contrast [15].

This paper presents a comprehensive review of recent progress in synthesis strategies, luminescent behavior, and sensing applications of RE ion-doped vanadate materials.

## 2. Materials and Methods

The fabrication of vanadate based materials with high purity, crystallinity, and well-defined uniform size, morphology, and composition along with a homogeneous distribution of impurities is crucial for the advancement of modern functional materials. To be practical, synthetic methods must also be economical, scalable to industrial production, and capable of delivering high yields. These requirements drive the development of novel or modified synthesis procedures aimed at enhancing the characteristics and performance of different kinds of vanadate materials.

In recent years, the design, synthesis, and fabrication of multifunctional materials have gained significant attention. A variety of synthetic approaches can be employed to produce REVO<sub>4</sub> with diverse sizes, shapes, properties, and morphologies, depending on the intended application. Control over nanoparticle size and shape is typically achieved through careful optimization of reaction parameters. Furthermore, synthesis methods can be classified based on the phase in which the phosphors are formed, i.e., solid, liquid, or gaseous, providing different pathways to tailor their structural and functional properties.

### 2.1. Solid State Reaction

Inorganic solids are often synthesized by the ceramic method, which involves mixing stoichiometric amounts of solid precursors, grinding them to fine particles, and heating for several hours. For example, the simplest reaction pathway yields GdVO<sub>4</sub> by combining gadolinium oxide (Gd<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>) with vanadium pentoxide (V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>):



This process requires high temperatures to enable ion diffusion, but the large difference in melting points between V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> (681 °C) and Gd<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> (2339 °C) complicates synthesis. While diffusion can be aided by fine grain size and mixing, elevated temperatures remain essential. A challenge arises from V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> volatility and decomposition at high temperatures, which can lead to oxygen loss and formation of VO<sub>2</sub>. Literature reports vary: some note incomplete reactions with stoichiometric mixtures, while others suggest adding excess V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> or carefully controlling heating ramps to avoid evaporation. For example, slow heating to 950 °C followed by higher temperatures can stabilize the reaction. To address these limitations, precursors must be thoroughly mixed to maximize surface contact. In some cases, reactions are carried out under vacuum or in an inert atmosphere, which can further accelerate the process. Ultimately, thorough characterization of the product is necessary, as impurities such as unreacted Gd<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, GdVO<sub>3</sub>, or non-stoichiometric GdVO<sub>4</sub> may form due to volatility and reduction of V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> [16,17].

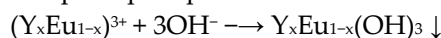
For example, REVO<sub>4</sub> (RE =Y, Sm, Gd, Yb, Lu) and GdVO<sub>4</sub>:Ho<sup>3+</sup>/Yb<sup>3+</sup> materials are typically synthesized in the solid phase using a high-temperature solid-state method. In this process, stoichiometric amounts of precursors are thoroughly ground, mixed, and heated in multiple steps at approximately 1200 °C for several hours to ensure complete reaction and formation of the desired product [18,19].

### 2.2. Coprecipitation Method

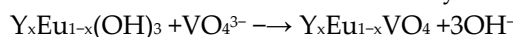
The coprecipitation method is a simple and effective technique for synthesizing vanadate-based materials with uniform size distribution. The process involves dissolving precursor salts (nitrates, sulfates, chlorides, etc.) in water, adding a precipitating agent (hydroxide, carbonate, or hydrogen carbonate), followed by aging, separating the precipitate, and finally washing and drying. The precipitation rate depends on the specific metal ions used. Huignard et al. demonstrated that Eu-doped YVO<sub>4</sub> materials can be synthesized at room temperature by coprecipitation from soluble nitrates and sodium orthovanadate. Although their work focused on nanoparticles, the findings—

aside from size control—apply to bulk materials. The reaction is highly pH-dependent, with yttrium orthovanadate forming only within a narrow range (12.5–13.0). At pH values above 13, hydroxides precipitate without reacting, while acidic conditions favour condensed vanadates, preventing orthovanadate formation [20].

The reaction involves in a first step the precipitation of the kinetically favored hydroxide:



which, in a second step, reacts with orthovanadate to form thermodynamically stable  $Y_xEu_{1-x}VO_4$ :



Subsequent studies suggest that similar conditions apply to  $Gd^{3+}$  systems, as rare earth hydroxides are generally insoluble in water but soluble in acids. For bulk reference materials, precise particle size control is unnecessary, and solution synthesis offers the advantage of ambient temperature processing, avoiding issues linked to high-temperature solid-state methods. However, rapid precipitation often produces defective crystalline regions. Thermal treatment has been shown to improve crystallinity, making a two-step process, coprecipitation followed by heating at different temperatures, a viable alternative to ceramic synthesis, while avoiding complications from  $V_2O_5$  volatility [13].

### 2.3. Hydrothermal/Solvothermal Method

Hydrothermal (or solvothermal) synthesis relies on dissolving inorganic substances in water or another solvent at temperatures above 100 °C and pressures around 1 atm, followed by crystallization. The key difference is that hydrothermal methods use water, while solvothermal methods employ other solvents.  $REVO_4$  can be readily prepared this way, though high-temperature calcination is required to enhance luminescence. Reaction parameters such as pressure, temperature, pH, and precursor ratios determine the morphology and size of the final product [21]. The hydrothermal synthesis method provides significant advantages for producing vanadates through multiphase or liquid-phase chemical processes. However, it has notable drawbacks: need of costly autoclaves, safety risks during reactions, and difficulty of monitoring processes directly [21].

For example,  $GdVO_4:Yb^{3+}/Er^{3+}$  nanoparticles produced hydrothermally are often coated with  $SiO_2$  before calcination to prevent growth and aggregation; the coating can later be removed by NaOH etching. Using trisodium citrate ( $Na_3Cit$ ) as a chelating agent,  $GdVO_4$  nano- and microcrystals with varied morphologies, crystal orientation and defects, have been synthesized [22,23].

### 2.4. Sol-Gel Route

Sol-gel synthesis is a versatile wet-chemical method that can be performed through routes such as alkoxide hydrolysis, inorganic gelation, or polymerizable complex processes. It enables molecular-level mixing of precursors, offering advantages over solid-state reactions, including uniform dopant distribution, lower synthesis temperatures, reduced contamination, and control over porosity. Drawbacks include difficulty in removing organic groups and risk of cracks in the final material. Chelating agents play a crucial role, as their type and combustion properties influence the physico-chemical characteristics of the products [24]. The sol-gel method is highly valued due to its relatively low initial cost for producing high-quality materials, its ability to design and control the chemical structure of substances, and its capacity to achieve uniform composition with a large surface area. Despite these advantages, the technique has limitations, including extended reaction times and considerable shrinkage during the dehydration stage [25].

In practice,  $GdVO_4$  is often synthesized from  $Gd(OAc)_3$  and  $NH_4VO_3$  dissolved in water, mixed in the proper molar ratio with carboxylic acids (e.g., citric, malic, or tartaric acid), then heated with stirring to form a gel. The gel is dried to yield a carboxylate precursor, which is subsequently calcined. In some cases, synthesis can proceed without carboxylic acids. Using different acids allows production of vanadate with different size and morphologies. For example, tartaric acid can serve both as a chelating agent and combustion fuel, with calcination temperature and precursor ratios directly affecting particle size and crystallinity [26].

## 2.5. Microwave-Assisted Method

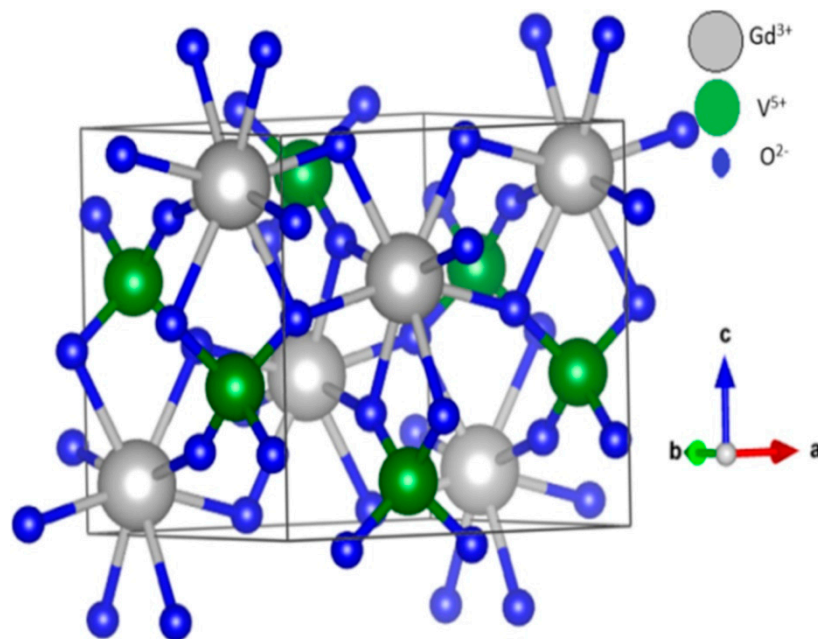
Microwave synthesis employs electromagnetic radiation (0.3–300 GHz) to rapidly decompose precursors and trigger fast nucleation, producing small nanoparticles in a much shorter time. A key requirement is that at least one precursor must absorb microwaves. This method is often combined with hydrothermal synthesis. Microwave irradiation plays a vital role in accelerating reaction kinetics by enabling rapid initial heating, which significantly increases overall reaction rates. This technique produces cleaner products, ensures faster consumption of starting materials, and improves yields. Another advantage lies in the uniform heating and precise control of process parameters, which enhance reproducibility and reliability of reaction conditions. In the field of vanadate synthesis, microwave heating represents a novel and uniform approach that deserves further development. Using of green reaction media not only shortens reaction times but also minimizes chemical waste, making it an attractive and sustainable method [27]. Typically,  $\text{Gd}(\text{NO}_3)_3 \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$  and  $\text{NH}_4\text{VO}_3$  solutions are mixed with EDTA at high pH, stirred, and placed in a microwave reactor at 150 °C for 180 minutes. The resulting powders are collected by centrifugation, washed with water and ethanol, and dried [28,29].

## 3. Results

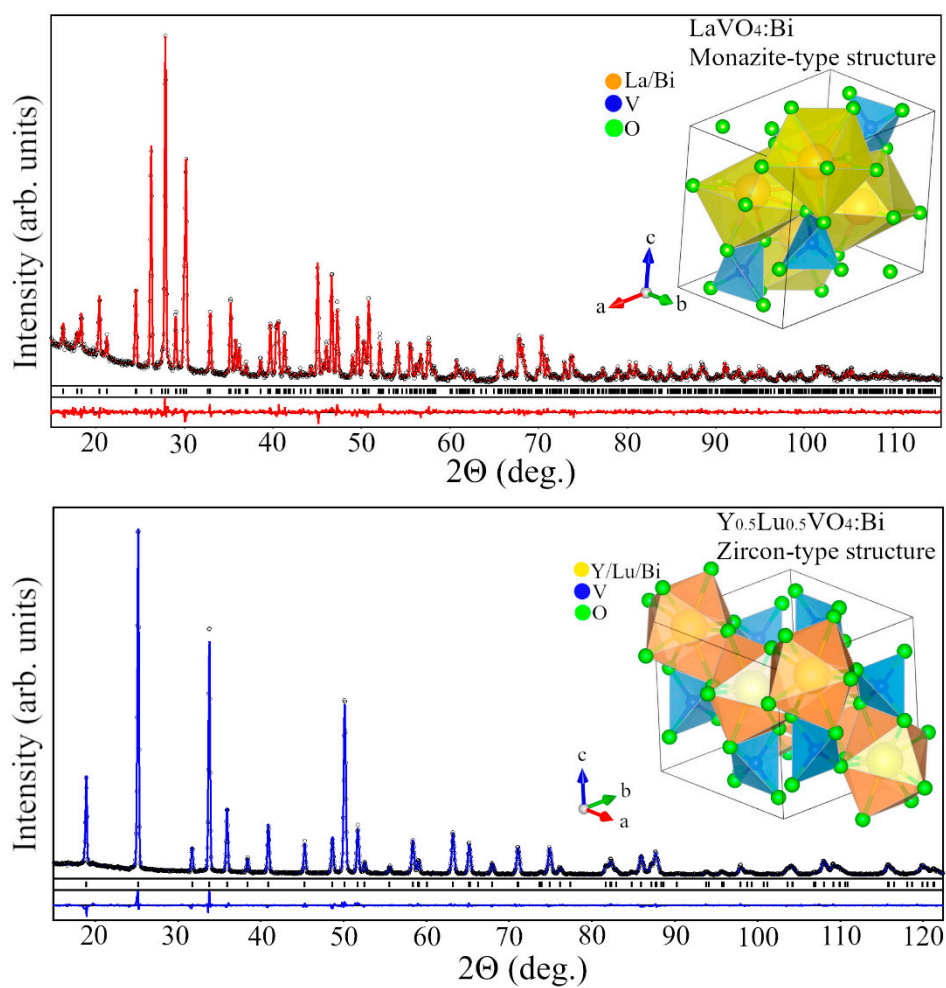
### 3.1. Crystal Structure of the $\text{AVO}_4$ Materials

Materials of the type  $\text{AVO}_4$  (where A = Sc, Y, Bi, or any of the lanthanides La–Lu) adopt a tetragonal zircon-type crystal structure, similar to  $\text{ZrSiO}_4$ . In this arrangement, the  $\text{V}^{5+}$  ions within the  $\text{VO}_4^{3-}$  groups are tetrahedrally coordinated by  $\text{O}^{2-}$  ions, while the trivalent  $\text{A}^{3+}$  cations are surrounded by eight  $\text{O}^{2-}$  ions. The three-dimensional framework is built from alternating  $\text{AO}_8$  distorted dodecahedra in which the  $\text{A}^{3+}$  cations occupy a non-centrosymmetric crystallographic site with  $\text{D}_{2d}$  symmetry that share edges with tetrahedral  $\text{VO}_4$ . As example, the tetragonal crystal structure of  $\text{GdVO}_4$  is presented in Figure 1. This connectivity results in chains of vanadium ions aligned parallel to the c-axis. Bond distances vary within the structure: there are four shorter (2.33 Å) and four longer (2.45 Å) A–O bonds, whereas V–O bonds are all 1.74 Å long, consistent with tetrahedral coordination of  $\text{V}^{5+}$  ions. Each  $\text{O}^{2-}$  ion is bonded to two equivalent  $\text{A}^{3+}$  cations and one  $\text{V}^{5+}$  ion. Importantly, substitution of different  $\text{A}^{3+}$  ions does not alter the crystal type, as all  $\text{AVO}_4$  compounds are isostructural. For example,  $\text{YVO}_4$  compound parameters are:  $a = 7.13$  Å,  $b = 7.13$  Å,  $c = 6.30$  Å,  $\alpha = \beta = \gamma = 90^\circ$  and unit cell volume  $V = 320.53$  Å<sup>3</sup> [30]. Many rare-earth vanadates exhibit a low-temperature Jahn–Teller distortion, in which their tetragonal crystal structure transforms into an orthorhombic geometry. Interestingly, this type of crystallographic transition has not been observed in  $\text{YVO}_4$  or in  $\text{GdVO}_4$  [31].

Also, the lattice distortion can be induced by the incorporation of dopant (for example  $\text{Eu}^{3+}$  ions) into the host crystal structure. The unit cell volume exhibits a slight increase as the concentration of dopant ions rises. Figure 2 depicts difference in the structural configuration of the monoclinic  $\text{LaVO}_4$  and  $\text{Y}_{0.5}\text{La}_{0.5}\text{VO}_4$  structures doped with  $\text{Bi}^{3+}$  together with Rietveld refinement. In the  $\text{LaVO}_4$  structure, La atoms are coordinated in a hexahedral arrangement with six oxygen atoms, while V atoms are coordinated to four oxygen atoms, forming a tetrahedral geometry. This host lattice contains two types of cations:  $\text{La}^{3+}$  with ionic radius  $r = 1.16$  Å and  $\text{V}^{5+}$  with ionic radius  $r = 0.35$  Å, for coordination number 8. The dopant ion  $\text{Bi}^{3+}$  (with ionic radius  $r = 1.17$  Å) for the coordination number 8, shares the same valence state as  $\text{La}^{3+}$  and exhibits similar ionic sizes and coordination environments and preferentially substitutes at  $\text{La}^{3+}$  sites within the lattice. The  $\text{Y}_{0.5}\text{La}_{0.5}\text{VO}_4$  structure crystallizes in tetragonal zircon-type crystal structure, as it was mentioned and explained above for  $\text{GdVO}_4$  [32–34].



**Figure 1.** Tetragonal crystal structure of  $\text{GdVO}_4$ . Reproduced from Ref. [30] under Institute of Physics and IOP Publishing license.



**Figure 2.** Graphical results of Rietveld refinement of Bi-doped  $\text{LaVO}_4$  (top) and  $\text{Y}_{0.5}\text{Lu}_{0.5}\text{VO}_4$  (bottom) structures. Experimental XRD patterns (black circles) are shown in comparison with the calculated profiles (red and blue

lines, respectively). Short vertical bars on the top and bottom panels indicate positions of Bragg's maxima in the monoclinic  $P2_1/n$  and tetragonal  $I4_1/amd$  structures, respectively. Insets shows polyhedral views of monazite-type  $\text{LaVO}_4:\text{Bi}$  and zircon-type  $\text{Y}_{0.5}\text{Lu}_{0.5}\text{VO}_4:\text{Bi}$  structures. Reproduced with permission from Ref. [34] under Creative Commons CC BY license.

### 3.2. Morphology of Luminescent $\text{REVO}_4$ Materials

The development of modern optoelectronic devices strongly depends on the advancement of luminescent materials with improved characteristics. These materials must exhibit specific functional properties, such as brightness, resolution, spectral energy distribution and lifetime under practical operating conditions. Such properties are determined by the structural and morphological features of the material used. Depending on the intended application, synthesized luminescent  $\text{REVO}_4$  materials should possess precisely defined functional characteristics. Among them, uniform particle size distribution, spherical morphology without agglomeration are particularly critical [35,36].

Precise control over nanoparticle size, uniformity, distribution and surface area enable significant enhancement of optical properties, such as lifetimes of intermediate energy levels, dopant ion emission at specific wavelengths, and reduction of light scattering when particle dimensions are smaller than the wavelength of incident light. Luminescent materials at the nanoscale are especially important because they bridge the gap between molecular and micron scales, offering unique opportunities for advanced applications. Their effectiveness arises from a high surface-to-volume ratio, which ensures that a large fraction of atoms remain available for interaction with surrounding molecules [37].

Furthermore, the small particle size provides greater flexibility for manipulation and facilitates efficient doping with activator ions. Since many dopant ions are located near particle surfaces in asymmetric crystalline environments, their emission behaviour differs from that of ions in regular crystallographic positions. This distinction opens pathways to novel and tuneable optical effects, positioning nanostructured luminescent materials as a promising frontier in optoelectronics [38].

As mentioned above, the morphology of  $\text{REVO}_4$  is strongly influenced by the preparation method and reaction parameters, such as reaction temperature, pressure, concentration of precursor solutions, pH value, kind of solvent, aging time, molar ratio of  $\text{RE}^{3+}/\text{V}^{5+}$ , the addition of surfactant and different dopant ions.

The  $\text{GdVO}_4:\text{Eu}^{3+}/\text{Sm}^{3+}$  and  $\text{GdVO}_4:\text{Ho}^{3+}/\text{Yb}^{3+}$  obtained with solid state reaction synthesis show that the powders contain chunks with irregular spheres with an average diameter in range from 1  $\mu\text{m}$  to 8  $\mu\text{m}$  [19,39].

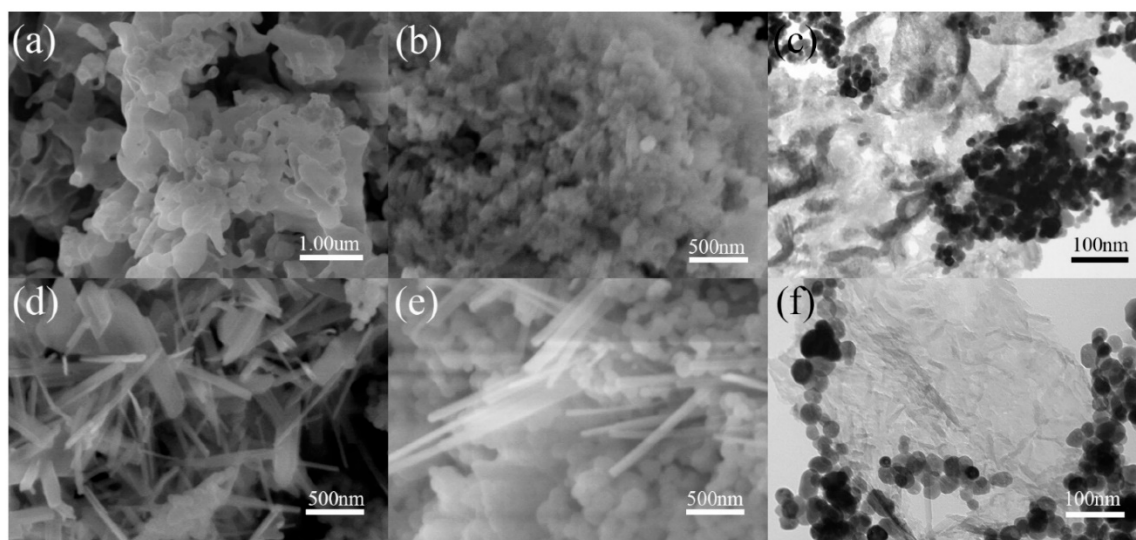
Using sol-gel route, the  $\text{GdVO}_4$  nanomaterial can be synthesized using different carboxylic acids, resulting in a homogeneous distribution of spherical particles with average sizes ranging from 50 to 100 nm [40]. In another approach, a tartaric acid-assisted sol-gel method was employed, where tartaric acid acted simultaneously as a chelating agent and as an additional fuel during precursor combustion. Key synthesis parameters, such as calcination temperature and the molar ratio between total metal ions and tartaric acid, directly influence the particle size and crystallinity of the final product, consisting of spherical nanoparticles with diameters between 20 and 30 nm [26].

$\text{GdVO}_4$  nano- and microcrystals with diverse morphologies and sizes were successfully synthesized using hydrothermal process and trisodium citrate ( $\text{Na}_3\text{Cit}$ ) as the chelating ligand. By employing  $\text{Gd}(\text{NO}_3)_3$  and  $\text{Na}_3\text{VO}_4$  as precursor together with  $\text{Na}_3\text{Cit}$  in varying molar ratios relative to  $\text{Gd}^{3+}$  ions, different morphologies and particle sizes were obtained. For instance, when the molar ratio of  $\text{Na}_3\text{Cit}$  to  $\text{Gd}^{3+}$  was 4:1, uniform pancake-like microstructures were produced, with an average thickness of 200 nm and a diameter of approximately of 1  $\mu\text{m}$  [22]. In another approach, hydrothermal synthesis under varying pH conditions, reaction media and reaction times yielded  $\text{Eu}^{3+}$ -doped  $\text{GdVO}_4$  phosphors with a wide range of morphologies as rhombic, spherical, and cubic structures, as well as irregular short nanorods [21]. Applying various reaction components, such as  $\text{EDTA-Na}_2$  and  $\text{EDTA}$ , and adjusting the pH of the solution, the hydrothermal method allows to tune the shape of  $\text{GdVO}_4$  into short and long nanowires and nanorods, nanoparticles and spheres [41]

Both as-prepared  $\text{GdVO}_4:\text{Ho}^{3+}/\text{Yb}^{3+}$  samples and those re-heated at  $300\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ , synthesized by the co-precipitation method, reveal bundles composed of 5–6 individual nanorods, each approximately 5 nm in diameter and up to 20 nm in length, aligned in different orientations. When the same samples were annealed at  $600\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ , the nanorods transformed into single ellipsoidal particles with an average size of about 20 nm, while at higher annealing temperatures of  $800\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$  and  $1000\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ , the morphology changed further, yielding irregular spherical particles of approximately 100 nm in size along with elongated rod-like structures [13].

The  $\text{YVO}_4$  nanoparticles synthesized using a simple microwave irradiation processing exhibited a size was in the range of 5–18 nm, which was extremely dependent on the pH value of the solution [42]. On other side, the  $\text{YVO}_4:\text{Bi}^{3+}:\text{Eu}^{3+}$  materials synthesized by microwave and ultrasonic radiation-activated technique have a pronounced spherical shape with a predominant diameter in the range of 20–40 nm [43].

As a further example, SEM and TEM images of  $\text{MVO}_4/\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$  ( $\text{M} = \text{La}, \text{Gd}$ ) prepared by the hydrothermal method are given in Figure 3. The pure  $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$  exhibits a nanosheet structure with a smooth surface (Figure 3a), while pure  $\text{GdVO}_4$  powders display a coral-like morphology (Figure 3b). The TEM image of the  $\text{GdVO}_4/\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$  composite (Figure 3c) reveals two distinct components: the black coral-like structures corresponding to  $\text{GdVO}_4$ , and the French-grey sheet-like structures belonging to  $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ . On the other hand, pure  $\text{LaVO}_4$  demonstrates a pin-like nanostructure (Figure 3d). Figures 3e and 3f illustrate the  $\text{LaVO}_4/\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$  composite, where both  $\text{LaVO}_4$  and  $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$  are clearly distinguishable, with  $\text{LaVO}_4$  particles well adhered to the  $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$  surface. Thus, the constitution of  $\text{MVO}_4/\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$  ( $\text{M} = \text{La}, \text{Gd}$ ) composites is readily identifiable, which facilitates efficient charge carrier transport compared to pure  $\text{MVO}_4$  ( $\text{M} = \text{La}, \text{Gd}$ ) [44].



**Figure 3.** The SEM images of (a)  $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ , (b)  $\text{GdVO}_4$ , (d)  $\text{LaVO}_4$ , and (e)  $\text{LaVO}_4/\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$  and the TEM images of (c)  $\text{GdVO}_4/\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$  and (f)  $\text{LaVO}_4/\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ . Reproduced with permission from Ref. [44] under Creative Commons CC BY license.

## 4. Discussion

### 4.1. Optical Properties of $\text{REVO}_4$ Materials

The lanthanides (Ln), spanning lanthanum ( $Z = 57$ ) to lutetium ( $Z = 71$ ), have a general electronic configuration of  $[\text{Xe}]6s^25d^14f^n$ . Typically, the 5d electron shifts into the 4f shell, giving  $4f^{n+1}$ , though exceptions exist (e.g., Gd). As atomic number increases, the 4f orbitals contract inward, a phenomenon called the lanthanide contraction making them to behave like inner electrons and limiting their role in bonding. This results in similar chemical properties across the series, dominated by outer valence electrons. Upon ionization, lanthanides form stable +3 ions ( $[\text{Xe}]4f^n$ ), with  $5s^25p^6$

orbitals shielding the 4f electrons, so crystal field effects remain weak and are treated with perturbation theory [45]. Inorganic materials doped with  $\text{Ln}^{3+}$  are essential across numerous fields, owing to their wide-ranging applications: LED diodes, luminescent monitors/electromagnetic displays, lasers, thin-film phosphors, drug delivery systems, luminescence thermometry, chemical sensing, biosensing, infrared fluorescence bioimaging, photothermal therapy, gas sensing, anti-counterfeiting technologies and so on.

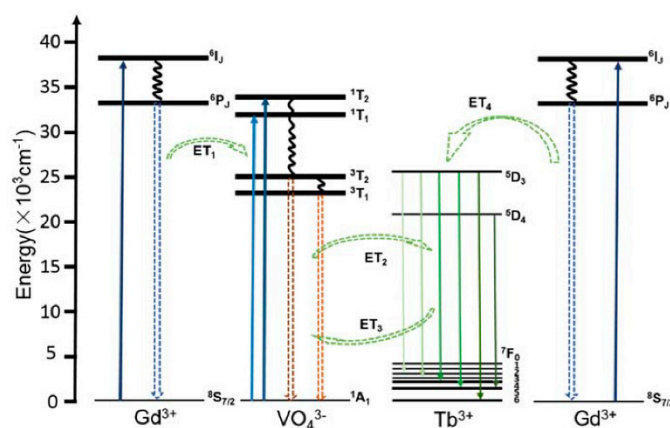
$\text{REVO}_4$  (RE = Gd, Y and Lu) are widely recognized as excellent host materials for various dopant ions, owing to their ability to be efficiently excited by UV radiation and their favourable charge-transfer energy. Because charge transfer from vanadate groups to optically active trivalent lanthanide ions ( $\text{Ln}^{3+}$ ) is highly efficient, luminescence can be achieved even at extremely low dopant concentrations [46].

In terms of luminescence mode, the  $\text{ReVO}_4$  doped with one of  $\text{Ln}^{3+} = \text{Eu}^{3+}, \text{Dy}^{3+}$  or  $\text{Sm}^{3+}$  ions can act as downconversion luminescent sensing materials, while double or triple doped with combinations of  $\text{Ln}^{3+}$  ions such as  $\text{Er}^{3+}/\text{Yb}^{3+}, \text{Ho}^{3+}/\text{Yb}^{3+}, \text{Tm}^{3+}/\text{Yb}^{3+}$ , or  $\text{Er}^{3+}/\text{Tm}^{3+}/\text{Ho}^{3+}/\text{Yb}^{3+}$  ions, act as an upconversion luminescent sensing materials, producing a wide range of emission colours. Also,  $\text{VO}_4$  can be doped with  $\text{Nd}^{3+}$  for additional sensing applications [47,48].

#### 4.1.1. Downconversion $\text{REVO}_4$ -Based Luminescent Materials and Sensing Applications

Stokes luminescence, also known as downconversion (DC), is a process in which matter absorbs photons of higher energy and re-emits photons of lower energy. DC luminescence follows Stokes' law, describing the conversion of high-energy excitation into lower-energy emission [49].

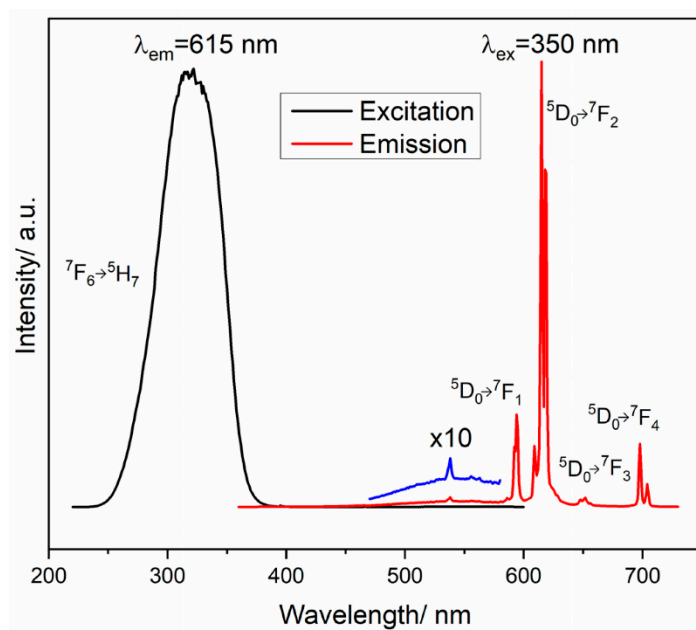
As an example for  $\text{REVO}_4$ -based DC-luminescent materials, the schematic diagram of the energy transfer process in  $\text{GdVO}_4:\text{Tb}$  samples is given in Figure 4. The  $\text{VO}_4^{3-} \rightarrow \text{Tb}^{3+}$  one-electron charge transfer takes place between the 2p orbital of oxygen ( $\text{O}^{2-}$ ) and the vacant 3d orbital of the central vanadium ( $\text{V}^{5+}$ ) in the tetrahedral  $\text{VO}_4^{3-}$  with Td symmetry. According to the molecular orbital theory, energy levels involved are the ground  ${}^1\text{A}_1$  state and the excited  ${}^1\text{T}_1, {}^1\text{T}_2, {}^3\text{T}_1$  and  ${}^3\text{T}_2$  states. These transitions from  ${}^1\text{A}_1$  level to the  ${}^1\text{T}_1$  and  ${}^1\text{T}_2$  generate a broad and intense charge-transfer absorption band in the UV region [11]. At the same time, weak absorption features indicate a low-efficiency reverse transfer process from  $\text{Tb}^{3+}$  to  $\text{VO}_4^{3-}$ . There are four possible energy transfer (ET) pathways:  $\text{ET}_1$  ( $\text{Gd}^{3+} \rightarrow \text{VO}_4^{3-}$ ),  $\text{ET}_2$  ( $\text{VO}_4^{3-} \rightarrow \text{Tb}^{3+}$ ),  $\text{ET}_3$  ( $\text{Tb}^{3+} \rightarrow \text{VO}_4^{3-}$ , weak) and  $\text{ET}_4$  ( $\text{Gd}^{3+} \rightarrow \text{VO}_4^{3-} \rightarrow \text{Tb}^{3+}$ ) which demonstrate cooperative interactions among  $\text{Gd}^{3+}, \text{VO}_4^{3-}$  and  $\text{Tb}^{3+}$  ions. Overall,  $\text{VO}_4^{3-} \rightarrow \text{Tb}^{3+}$  transfer was identified as the dominant process, supported by spectral shifts, broadened emission bands, and lifetime analysis [50].



**Figure 4.** Schematic diagram of the energy transfer process in  $\text{GdVO}_4:\text{Tb}$  samples. Reproduced with permission from Ref. [50] under Creative Commons CC BY license.

$\text{Eu}^{3+}$  and  $\text{Bi}^{3+}$  ions co-doped  $\text{LuVO}_4$  thin films annealed at  $1000^\circ\text{C}$  exhibit pronounced luminescent behaviour. The  $\text{Eu}^{3+}$  ions generate intense red emission via the  ${}^5\text{D}_0 \rightarrow {}^7\text{F}_2$  transition with a

similar feature as the  $\text{GdVO}_4:\text{Eu}^{3+}$  samples obtained by coprecipitation synthesis and additionally annealed at  $1000^\circ\text{C}$  [51]. As an example, excitation and emission spectra of  $\text{LuVO}_4:\text{Eu}^{3+},\text{Bi}^{3+}$  films are given in Figure 5.



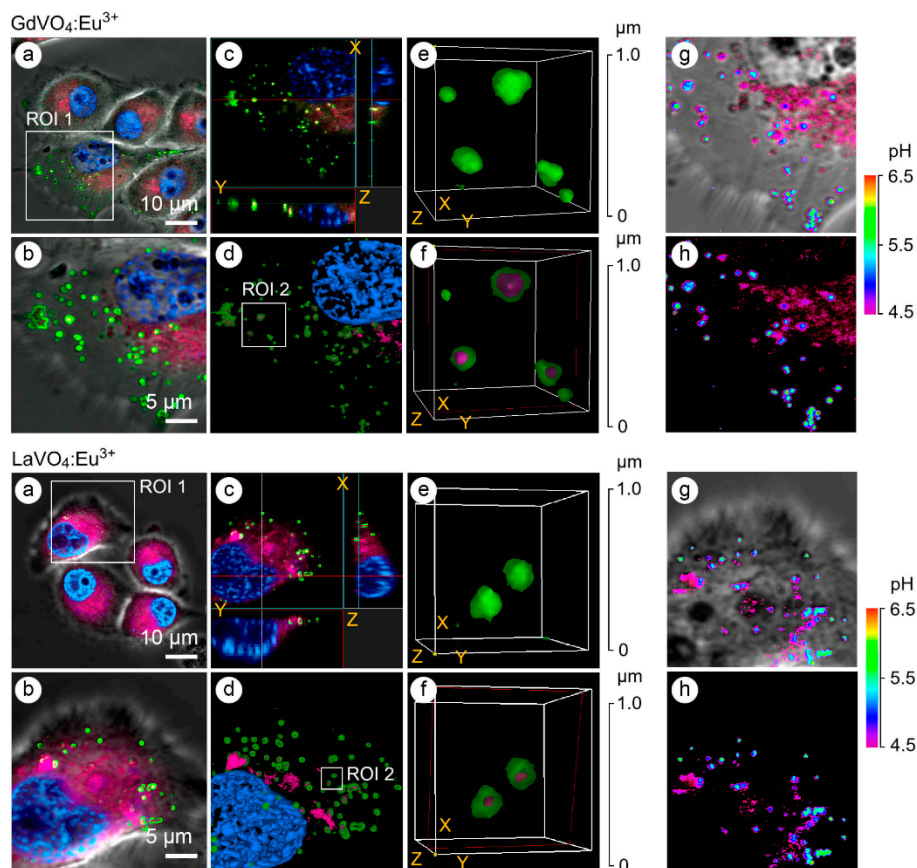
**Figure 5.** Excitation and emission spectra of  $\text{LuVO}_4$  films with 2.5 at. %  $\text{Eu}^{3+}$  and 1.5 at. %  $\text{Bi}^{3+}$  after 3 h of annealing at  $1000^\circ\text{C}$ . Reproduced with permission from Ref. [52] under Creative Commons CC BY license.

Under 350 nm excitation, emission peaks at 594, 615, 650, and 700 nm are produced, corresponding to  $\text{Eu}^{3+}$  transitions  ${}^5\text{D}_0 \rightarrow {}^7\text{F}_J$  ( $J = 1, 2, 3, 4$ ), while the most prominent emission is observed at 615 nm. The  $\text{Bi}^{3+}$  ions act as sensitizers by absorbing UV radiation and transferring the energy to  $\text{Eu}^{3+}$  ions. The characteristic  $\text{Bi}^{3+}$  emission band at 550 nm is significantly reduced in co-doped samples, confirming efficient  $\text{Bi}^{3+} \rightarrow \text{Eu}^{3+}$  energy transfer.  $\text{LuVO}_4$  thin films exhibit stable and tuneable luminescence, making them highly promising for optoelectronic applications such as displays and light emitters, as well as efficient phosphors for LEDs, particularly in warm-white lighting. Their properties also open opportunities in optical sensing and biological imaging, where reliable luminescence performance is essential [52]. Analysis of the intensity ratio  $R = I({}^5\text{D}_0 \rightarrow {}^7\text{F}_2)/I({}^5\text{D}_0 \rightarrow {}^7\text{F}_1)$  demonstrates that  $\text{Bi}^{3+}$  promotes  $\text{Eu}^{3+}$  occupation at lower-symmetry sites. According to Dexter's theory, quadrupole–quadrupole interactions dominate the transfer mechanism, consistent with other  $\text{Bi}^{3+} \rightarrow \text{Eu}^{3+}$  systems [53].

The  $\text{Eu}^{3+}$  ions are frequently employed as luminescent activators for bioapplications (biodetection, bioimaging and biosensing) and chemical sensing due to their unique luminescence properties. Due to the different crystal field surroundings, the  $\text{Eu}^{3+}$  ions situated at multiple sites in different materials exhibit distinct photoluminescent spectra and photoluminescent decays. The long-lived luminescence of  $\text{Eu}^{3+}$  ions is highly advantageous for background-free, time-resolved photoluminescence biodetection. The  $\text{Eu}^{3+}$ -activated nanomaterials have demonstrated broad applicability in both heterogeneous and homogeneous biodetection, *in vitro* and *in vivo* bioimaging, anti-aging antibacterial, anti-cancer and antioxidant effects [54,55]. The  $\text{GdVO}_4:\text{Eu}^{3+}$  nanoparticles are excellent candidates for multifunctional material development, as they can perform diverse and polyvalent functions.

The redox-active  $\text{GdVO}_4:\text{Eu}^{3+}$  and  $\text{LaVO}_4:\text{Eu}^{3+}$  nanoparticles can intensify damage in oxidatively stressed L929 cells, even at concentrations that remain non-toxic to normal cells. This effect is linked to the internalization of the nanoparticles and is mediated through activation of the intrinsic mitochondrial apoptotic pathway, excessive reactive oxygen species (ROS) generation and  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$

signaling. These results highlight the potential of  $\text{GdVO}_4\text{:Eu}^{3+}$  and  $\text{LaVO}_4\text{:Eu}^{3+}$  nanoparticles as promising candidates for using as anti-cancer agents, as depicted in Figure 6 [56].



**Figure 6.** Representative LSCM images of the endosome-positive L929 cells following treatment with  $\text{GdVO}_4\text{Eu}^{3+}$  and  $\text{LaVO}_4\text{Eu}^{3+}$  nanoparticles at 20 mg/L for 1 h. The L929 cells were transfected with GFP-Rab5a/GFP-Rab7a and, 24 h after transfection, the cells were exposed to the investigated NPs. The Rab5a and Rab7a proteins were markers of the early and late endosomes, respectively. The GFP-Rab5a/GFP-Rab7a-positive endosomes (green) and NPs' autofluorescence signals (magenta) were detected. The cell nuclei are shown in blue (DAPI staining). Single-optic section phase contrast and fluorescence-merged imaging (Panel (a)); magnified single-optic section fluorescence imaging of the ROI1 (Panel (b)); orthogonal XZ and YZ projections of the ROI1 (Panel (c)); 3D reconstruction of the ROI1 (Panel (d)); complete 3D reconstruction of the endosomes without and with the NPs' fluorescence channel (magenta) of the ROI2 (Panel (e)); cross section of the endosomes (red frame) demonstrating the intra-endosomal localization of the NPs (magenta) of the ROI2 (Panel (f)); and pseudocolored and phase-contrast imaging of the endosomal pH using the LysoSensor ratiometric probe (molecular probes, L22460) of the ROI1 (Panels (g,h)). Ratiometric pseudocolored images were constructed from two emission images at  $450 \pm 33$  nm and  $510 \pm 20$  nm, respectively. Both were excited at  $365 \pm 8$  nm. The cells were preliminarily exposed to pH calibration buffers (pH 4.5–6.5). Reproduced with permission from Ref. [56] under Creative Commons CC BY license.

A  $^{64}\text{Cu}$ -labeled multifunctional nanoprobe targeting integrin  $\alpha_2\beta_1$  (often used as metastasis suppressor) was developed using  $\text{GdVO}_4\text{:Eu}^{3+}$  two-dimensional tetragonal nanosheets for in vitro fluorescence studies, in vivo magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) and micro-positron emission tomography (PET) imaging of prostate cancer. The unique water solubility and biocompatibility make  $\text{GdVO}_4\text{:Eu}^{3+}$  highly versatile for biomedical applications [57] and with strong potential as radionuclide carrier and as contrast agents for theranostic applications [58,59].

Due to their negative surface potential,  $\text{GdVO}_4\text{:Eu}^{3+}$  nanoparticles strongly adsorb metal cations. Among common blood ions,  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$  uniquely induces distinct fluorescence quenching.  $\text{GdVO}_4\text{:Eu}^{3+}$

nanoparticles are promising magnetic/fluorescent multimodal probes for  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$  ions detection in blood [60]. Colloidal  $\text{GdVO}_4:\text{Eu}^{3+}@\text{SiO}_2$  nanocrystals could find a promising application for highly selective and sensitive detection of  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$  ions in an environmental or biological sample [61]. Also,  $\text{Eu}^{3+}$ -activated ultra-small nanoparticles ( $\text{EuVO}_4$  and  $\text{GdVO}_4:\text{Eu}^{3+}$ ) could potentially be used for the detection of pesticides in environmental and biomedical fields, due to photoluminescence quenching [62]. Hydrogen peroxide ( $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$ ) acts as a strong quencher of ultra-small (2-3 nm)  $\text{GdVO}_4:\text{Eu}^{3+}$  fluorescence. The observed  $\text{Eu}^{3+}$  luminescence quenching is found to be more effective with increasing concentration of  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$ . To evaluate selectivity for  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$ , several potentially interfering ions were also tested. Common physiological ions such as  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ ,  $\text{Zn}^{2+}$  and  $\text{Mg}^{2+}$  did not affect fluorescence intensity, while  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$  and  $\text{Fe}^{3+}$  quenched even more efficiently than  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  [63]. Two primary mechanisms were identified as responsible for the quenching of  $\text{Eu}^{3+}$  luminescence in  $\text{GdVO}_4:\text{Eu}^{3+}$  nanoparticles: i) reduction in the efficiency of non-radiative resonance energy transfer from the vanadate groups to  $\text{Eu}^{3+}$  ions, caused by scattering effects introduced by  $\text{V}^{4+}$  ions; ii) direct luminescence quenching of  $\text{Eu}^{3+}$  ions by  $-\text{OH}$  groups formed on the nanoparticle surface as a result of  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  decomposition [64].

The additional sensing application and distribution of  $\text{Gd}_{0.6}\text{Eu}_{0.4}\text{VO}_4$  nanoparticles was investigated with XRF spectroscopy after injection of their colloidal solutions into mouse ear pinnae. The distribution of the nanoparticles was mapped by raster scanning the sample and detecting the  $\text{V K}_\alpha$ ,  $\text{Gd L}_\alpha$ , and  $\text{Eu L}_\alpha$  fluorescence emissions. It was found that all three elements coexist and therefore no short-term out-diffusion of those elements from the nanoparticles to the tissues takes place. These results provided a proof-of-concept that XRF mapping and spectroscopy are excellent tools for the determination of the long-term fate of  $\text{Gd}_{0.6}\text{Eu}_{0.4}\text{VO}_4$  nanoparticles in tissue in terms of element leaching and stability for diagnostic and therapeutic purposes [65].

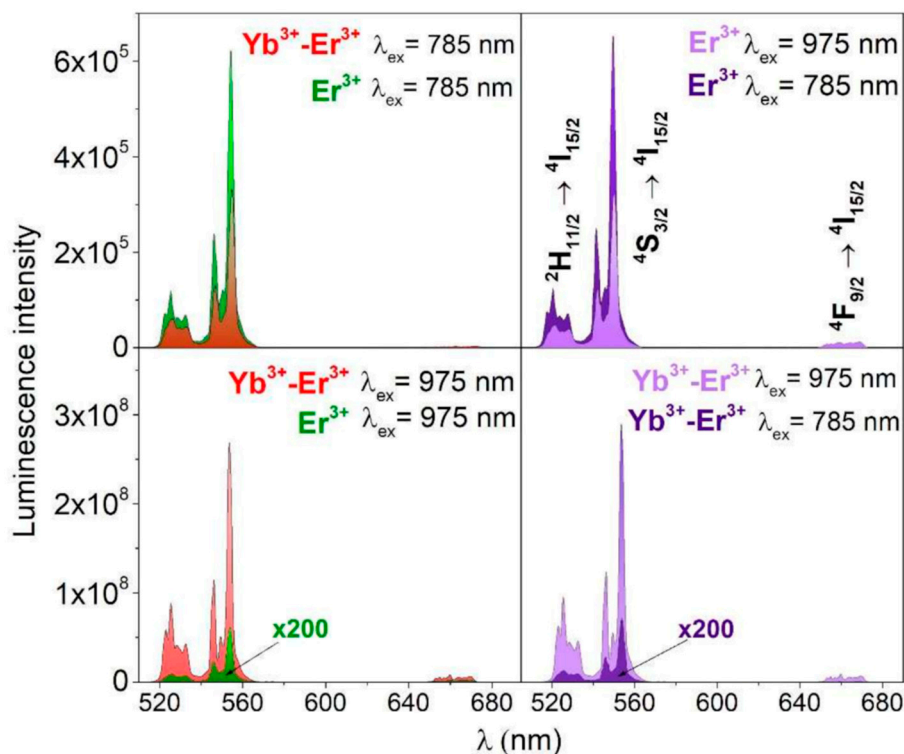
#### 4.1.2. Upconversion $\text{REVO}_4$ -Based Luminescent Materials and Sensing Applications

Upconversion (UC) luminescence is a non-linear anti-Stokes process with low energy excitation light (NIR region). In recent years, UC materials excited by NIR light illumination and emitting in visible (Vis) region have received much attention. Typically, UC materials are composed of a host material with low phonon energy, such as  $\text{REVO}_4$ , and sensitizer ions (commonly  $\text{Yb}^{3+}$ ) along with activator ions (most often  $\text{Er}^{3+}$ ,  $\text{Tm}^{3+}$ , or  $\text{Ho}^{3+}$ , or their combination).  $\text{Yb}^{3+}$ -sensitized UC materials are typically excited at 980 nm. The  $\text{Yb}^{3+}$  ion possesses a simple energy structure with only two states: the ground state ( $^2F_{7/2}$ ) and the excited state ( $^2F_{5/2}$ ), separated by an energy gap of approximately 10,000  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ .  $\text{Yb}^{3+}$  acts as the sensitizer due to its strong absorption cross-section at 980 nm and efficient energy transfer to  $\text{Er}^{3+}$ , while  $\text{Er}^{3+}$  provides the emission. Importantly,  $\text{Yb}^{3+}$  absorbs in the NIR region where inexpensive laser diodes operate efficiently. This absorption enhances luminescence efficiency by transferring excitation energy to  $\text{Er}^{3+}$ ,  $\text{Ho}^{3+}$ , or  $\text{Tm}^{3+}$  ions [66].

The intensity of upconversion emissions is strongly influenced by several factors, including temperature, particle morphology, surface characteristics, and concentration ratio between dopant ions ( $\text{Er}^{3+}$ ,  $\text{Ho}^{3+}$ ,  $\text{Tm}^{3+}$ ) and sensitizer ions ( $\text{Yb}^{3+}$ ). In the  $\text{GdVO}_4$  host matrix, varying the concentration ratio of  $\text{Yb}^{3+}$  to  $\text{Er}^{3+}$  alters the balance between green and red emissions. It is important to note that literature indicates only a few  $\text{Er}^{3+}$  or  $\text{Yb}^{3+}/\text{Er}^{3+}$ -doped inorganic UC materials which emit intense green emission under NIR excitation. Specifically, increasing the  $\text{Er}^{3+}$  concentration enhances the green emission in doped- $\text{GdVO}_4$  and  $\text{YVO}_4$  materials. This effect can be attributed to perturbations in site symmetry, which promote stronger emission from the  $^2\text{H}_{11/2}$  state. The perturbation arises from the hypersensitive nature of the  $^2\text{H}_{11/2}$  state and the difference in ionic radii between  $\text{Yb}^{3+}$  and  $\text{Gd}^{3+}$  ions, leading to modified local environments that favour enhanced luminescence [67,68]. The UC mechanism involves  $\text{Yb}^{3+}$  absorbing most of the excitation energy and transferring it to  $\text{Er}^{3+}$ , whose long-lived excited states enable multiphoton absorption and radiative relaxation, producing green and red emissions. Nanoparticles show weaker UC intensity compared to bulk material, though the emission band shapes and green-to-red ratios remain unchanged [69].

Figure 7 demonstrates how excitation wavelength and elemental composition influence the green UC emission intensity of  $\text{YVO}_4$  nanomaterials. Excitation at 785 nm produces stronger UC

emission in  $\text{YVO}_4:\text{Er}^{3+}$  compared to  $\text{YVO}_4:\text{Er}^{3+},\text{Yb}^{3+}$  due to  $\text{Er}^{3+} \rightarrow \text{Yb}^{3+}$  back energy transfer, which reduces  $\text{Er}^{3+}$  UC emission by channeling energy into  $\text{Yb}^{3+}$  relaxation. In contrast, the most intense green UC luminescence is observed in  $\text{YVO}_4:\text{Er}^{3+},\text{Yb}^{3+}$  under 975 nm excitation due to the large absorption cross-section of  $\text{Yb}^{3+}$  ions ( $^2\text{F}_{7/2} \rightarrow ^2\text{F}_{5/2}$  transition) and efficient energy transfer to  $\text{Er}^{3+}$  ions [70]. Also, the laser pump power can affect the intensity of the  $\text{Er}^{3+}$  emission measured for large nanoparticle ensembles and single particle in the  $\text{YVO}_4:\text{Yb},\text{Er}$  system [71].

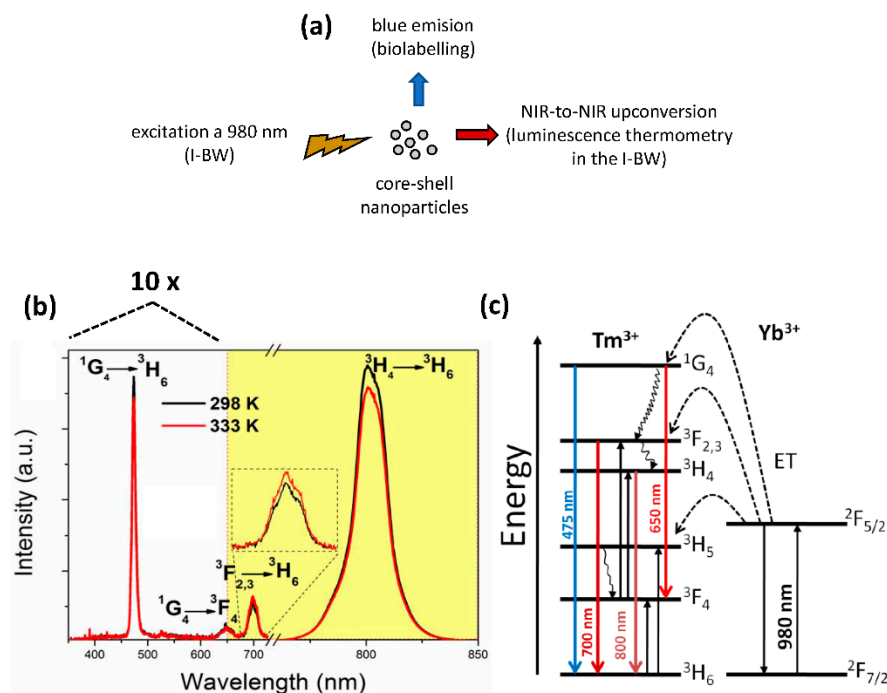


**Figure 7.** Non-normalized UC emission spectra of the obtained nanomaterials  $\text{YVO}_4:\text{Er}^{3+}$  and  $\text{YVO}_4:\text{Yb}^{3+},\text{Er}^{3+}$  under  $\lambda_{\text{ex}} = 785$  or  $975$  nm ( $\approx 50$  W/cm<sup>2</sup>). Reproduced with permission from Ref. [70] under Creative Commons Attribution (CC BY) license.

The incorporation of  $\text{Ho}^{3+}$  ions into the matrix, together with  $\text{Yb}^{3+}$  ions, is particularly effective due to the favourable energy level distribution of  $\text{Ho}^{3+}$  ions. Radiative transitions from the  $^5\text{S}_2/^5\text{F}_4$  level of  $\text{Ho}^{3+}$  to the ground state ( $^5\text{I}_5$ ) produce green emission around 545 nm, while transitions from the  $^5\text{F}_5$  level to  $^5\text{I}_5$  yield red emission near 650 nm under UV and NIR excitation, respectively. The intensity of red UC emission originating from the  $^5\text{F}_5 \rightarrow ^5\text{I}_5$  transition of  $\text{Ho}^{3+}$  increases consistently with higher  $\text{Yb}^{3+}$  concentrations. Typically, strong red UC emission in  $\text{Ho}^{3+}/\text{Yb}^{3+}$  systems requires relatively high  $\text{Ho}^{3+}$  concentrations, explained by cross-relaxation processes between  $\text{Ho}^{3+}$  energy levels that suppress green emission [72,73].

$\text{GdVO}_4:\text{Tm}^{3+},\text{Yb}^{3+}$  material, under 980 nm excitation, exhibits UC luminescence in three distinct regions: a dominant blue emission at 475 nm arising from the  $^1\text{G}_4 \rightarrow ^3\text{H}_6$  transition of  $\text{Tm}^{3+}$  ions, a weaker red emission at 650 nm attributed to the  $^1\text{G}_4 \rightarrow ^3\text{F}_4$  transition and an infrared emission at 808 nm corresponding to the  $^3\text{H}_4 \rightarrow ^3\text{H}_6$  transition of  $\text{Tm}^{3+}$  ions [74]. Figure 8 summarizes the structure and luminescence behavior of  $\text{Tm}^{3+},\text{Yb}^{3+}:\text{GdVO}_4@\text{SiO}_2$  core-shell nanoparticles, which can serve as biolabels in the visible range and luminescence thermometers within the first biological window (I-BW) (Figure 8a). Under 980 nm excitation, the UC emission spectra reveal that most bands decrease in intensity with rising temperature, except the 700 nm band, which slightly increases (Figure 8b). The energy transfer mechanism (Figure 8c) involves sequential absorption by  $\text{Yb}^{3+}$  ions ( $^2\text{F}_{7/2} \rightarrow ^2\text{F}_{5/2}$ ) and transfer to  $\text{Tm}^{3+}$  levels, ultimately populating  $^1\text{G}_4$  and producing blue (475 nm) and red (650 nm) emissions, while transitions from  $^3\text{F}_4$  and  $^3\text{H}_4$  yield emissions at 700 nm and 800 nm. Non-radiative

relaxation, Tm–Tm cross-relaxation and efficient population of the  $^3H_4$  level can explain the strong NIR emission observed at 800 nm and the temperature-dependent spectral behavior [75].



**Figure 8.** (a) Schematic representation of the pumping and emission bands generated by the Tm,Yb:GdVO<sub>4</sub>@SiO<sub>2</sub> core-shell nanoparticles, (b) Upconversion emission spectra of the Tm,Yb:GdVO<sub>4</sub>@SiO<sub>2</sub> core-shell nanoparticles at room temperature and at 333 K. The inset shows the magnification of the peak located at 700 nm, (c) Energy level diagram of Tm<sup>3+</sup> and Yb<sup>3+</sup> ions in GdVO<sub>4</sub>, indicating the absorption, energy transfer and emission pathways. Reproduced with permission from Ref. [71] under Creative Commons Attribution (CC BY) license.

It is common to use a 980 nm excitation source for UC emission, but this wavelength has drawbacks in biomedical applications, including strong water absorption, limited tissue penetration and local heating that can damage cells. To overcome these issues, research has shifted toward shorter excitation wavelengths, particularly 808 nm, which lies within the biological NIR windows (650–950 and 1100–1750 nm) where tissues are more transparent. The second NIR window is especially attractive for fluorescence imaging due to deeper penetration, higher resolution, and reduced scattering. At 808 nm, water absorption is lower, penetration is deeper, and heating effects are minimized [76,77]. The excitation wavelength shift is possible Yb<sup>3+</sup> ions with Nd<sup>3+</sup> ions, which have a strong absorption band centered at 808 nm. UC emission spectra of GdVO<sub>4</sub>:Nd<sup>3+</sup>/Er<sup>3+</sup> and GdVO<sub>4</sub>:Nd<sup>3+</sup>/Ho<sup>3+</sup> systems under 808 nm excitation show three bands: green emission (520–565 nm, max ~540 nm), red emission (570–630 nm, max ~597 nm), and another red band (640–680 nm, max ~675 nm). The dominant red emission at 597 nm corresponds to the Nd<sup>3+</sup> ( $^4G_{7/2} \rightarrow ^4I_{11/2}$ ) transition, while the other bands arise from Er<sup>3+</sup> and Ho<sup>3+</sup> transitions [48]. GdVO<sub>4</sub> single crystals doped with Nd<sup>3+</sup> ions under 808 nm continuous-wave laser excitation across varying temperatures have been studied for optical thermometry. The excitation pathway involves ground-state absorption, non-radiative relaxation, excited-state absorption and energy-transfer upconversion, which enhances higher-level populations. As temperature increases, phonon-assisted processes such as cross relaxation and non-radiative transitions become more efficient, leading to dramatic emission intensity enhancements at 400 °C compared to room temperature [78]. YVO<sub>4</sub>:Nd<sup>3+</sup> nanophosphors can also be used as NIR-to-NIR thermal sensors in a wide temperature range [79]. Ultra-small stoichiometric NdVO<sub>4</sub> nanoparticles (3–4 nm) dispersed in water exhibit long-term stability, large absorption cross-sections at 808 nm, and excellent biocompatibility, making them promising

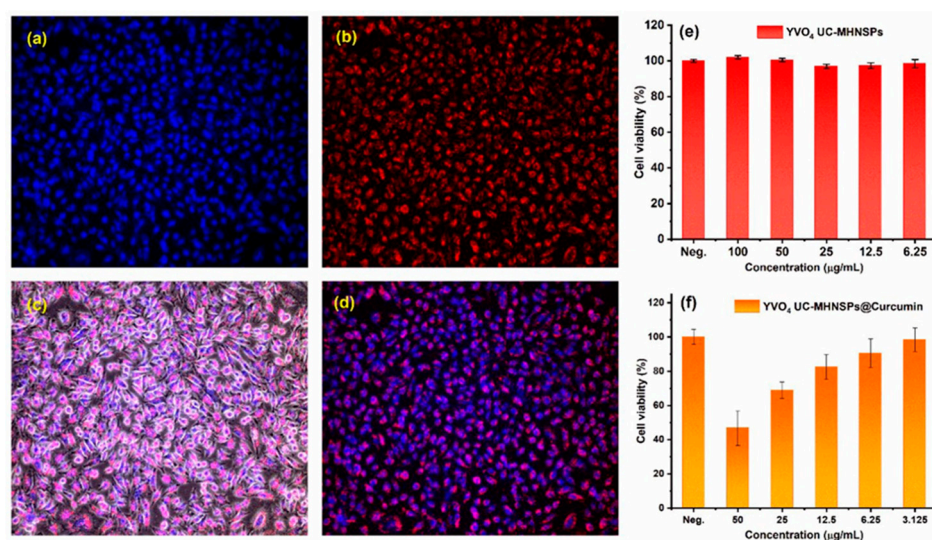
multifunctional agents for biomedical imaging and *in vivo* photothermal cancer therapy using a mouse model. A concentrated colloidal dispersion of NdVO<sub>4</sub> nanoparticles in Tris-buffered saline (TBS) was subcutaneously injected, and infrared fluorescence imaging with an InGaAs CCD camera enabled precise localization of the injection site [80,81].

Due to the unique 4f-electron structure of lanthanide ions, UC nanomaterials have been widely investigated for biomedical and materials science sensing applications. Due to remarkable optical, electronic and magnetic properties, these materials can be used in biomedicine, luminescence imaging, cell labeling probe, magnetic resonance imaging (MRI), photodynamic therapy (PDT), chemotherapy, single-photon emission computed tomography (SPECT), X-ray computed tomography(CT), optical biosensing/biodetection, and many other sensing technologies. In biomedical contexts, UC nanoparticles offer several advantages: deeper penetration into biological tissues, minimal autofluorescence background, reduced scattering and absorption, excellent photostability and negligible photoblinking [82,83].

The unique ability of UC nanoparticles to function as MRI contrast agents, coupled with their strong tissue penetration and prolonged circulation, enables highly sensitive imaging of biological targets. Beyond diagnostics, these nanoparticles can be precisely engineered in size and morphology to act as multifunctional platforms, supporting both imaging and therapeutic applications such as photodynamic therapy, photothermal therapy, and chemotherapy. Their luminescent responsiveness to temperature further broadens their utility, making them valuable tools for thermometry and sensor development. Altogether, UC nanoparticles represent versatile systems at the intersection of medical innovation and opto-electronic technology [84,85].

The YVO<sub>4</sub>:Er<sup>3+</sup>,Eu<sup>3+</sup>,Yb<sup>3+</sup> nanoparticles with an average size of ~100 nm, synthesized using melamine formaldehyde as a template, can serve as dual-mode excitation materials for bioimaging and have been successfully applied *in vitro* for imaging HeLa cells. Cytotoxicity was evaluated using the methyl thiazolyl tetrazolium (MTT) assay, confirming that functionalized YVO particles exhibit low cytotoxicity, supporting their potential biomedical applications [86]. GdVO<sub>4</sub>@SiO<sub>2</sub>:Tm,Yb core-shell structures demonstrate excellent thermal sensitivity and resolution, making them suitable as intracellular thermal probes for measuring temperature within living HeLa cells [75].

YVO<sub>4</sub>:Nd<sup>3+</sup> nanoparticles have emerged as multifunctional nanotheranostic agents, enabling fluorescence imaging, magnetic resonance imaging, and enhanced sonodynamic therapy of orthotopic gliomas. Similarly, GdVO<sub>4</sub>:Nd<sup>3+</sup> particles are promising candidates for time-gated bioimaging [87–89]. Figure 9 illustrates *in vitro* imaging studies of YVO<sub>4</sub>:Er<sup>3+</sup>/Yb<sup>3+</sup> UC-MHNSPs, highlighting their permeability and translocation in HeLa cell lines [90].



**Figure 9.** *In vitro* fluorescence images of YVO<sub>4</sub>:Er<sup>3+</sup>/Yb<sup>3+</sup> UC-MHNSPs uptake by HeLa cell lines, (a) nuclear stain (Hoechst 33342), (b) red emission from YVO<sub>4</sub>:Er<sup>3+</sup>/Yb<sup>3+</sup> UC-MHNSPs, (c,d) merged fluorescence bright-field and

dark-field pictures of HeLa cells under 980 nm excitation. (e) Cell viability assessed by CCK-8 assay after incubating with various quantities of YVO<sub>4</sub>:Er<sup>3+</sup>/Yb<sup>3+</sup> UC-MHNSPs for 24 h and (f) antitumor activity of YVO<sub>4</sub>:Er<sup>3+</sup>/Yb<sup>3+</sup> UC-MHNSPs after conjugation with different quantities of curcumin. Reproduced with permission from Ref. [90] under Creative Commons Attribution (CC BY) license.

The REVO<sub>4</sub> UC nanomaterials have been studied as sensors for luminescence thermometry. Temperature monitoring can be achieved by remotely detecting changes in nanomaterials luminescent properties offering valuable their applications in biomedicine, micro/nanoelectronics and integrated photonics [91]. Temperature sensing with UC nanoparticles is of particular interest for biomedicine, because the excitation typically occurs in the NIR spectral region, and autofluorescence from biological material does not affect the measurements. In this context, GdVO<sub>4</sub>:Er<sup>3+</sup>/Yb<sup>3+</sup> and YVO<sub>4</sub>:Ho<sup>3+</sup>/Yb<sup>3+</sup> nanoparticles have been investigated for temperature sensing, with their upconversion emission spectra recorded across the range of 307-473 K and 12–300 K, respectively [69,92]. Figure 10(a) presents the emission spectra of YVO<sub>4</sub>:1%Er<sup>3+</sup> in the temperature range 300–800 K together with temperature dependence of the fluorescence intensity ratio (FIR) between the emission peaks at 525 nm (<sup>2</sup>H<sub>11/2</sub>–<sup>4</sup>I<sub>15/2</sub>) and 553 nm (<sup>4</sup>S<sub>3/2</sub>–<sup>4</sup>I<sub>15/2</sub>) [93]. Because two closely separated levels show Boltzmann-type relative population, the integrated FIR of transitions from the <sup>2</sup>H<sub>11/2</sub> and <sup>4</sup>S<sub>3/2</sub> levels to the ground level <sup>4</sup>I<sub>15/2</sub> can be approximated using Boltzmann distribution as follows [94]:

$$FIR = \frac{I(^2H_{11/2} \rightarrow ^4I_{15/2})}{I(^4S_{3/2} \rightarrow ^4I_{15/2})} = \frac{g_H A_H h\nu_H}{g_S A_S h\nu_S} \exp\left(-\frac{\Delta E}{kT}\right) = B \exp\left(-\frac{\Delta E}{kT}\right) \quad (1)$$

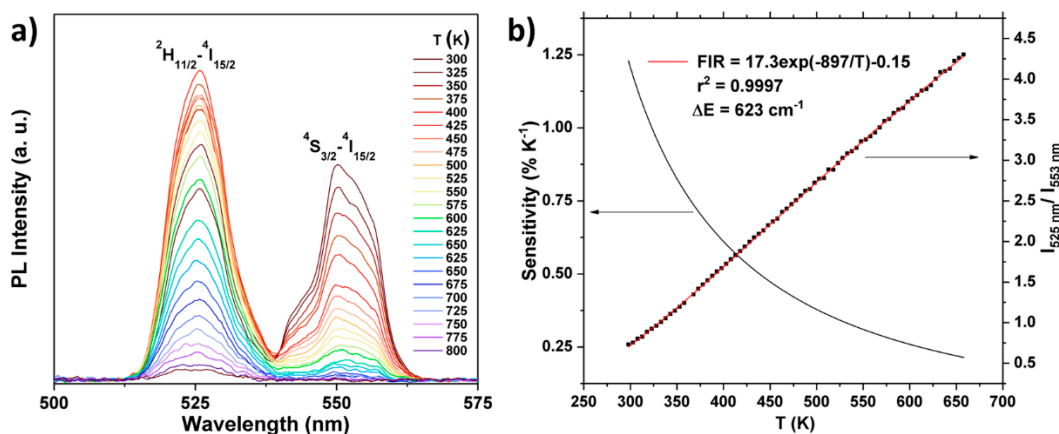
where  $g_H$  and  $g_S$  are the degeneracies of the <sup>2</sup>H<sub>11/2</sub> and <sup>4</sup>S<sub>3/2</sub> levels, respectively;  $A_H$  and  $A_S$ ,  $\nu_H$  and  $\nu_S$  are the spontaneous emission rates and frequencies of the <sup>2</sup>H<sub>11/2</sub> → <sup>4</sup>I<sub>15/2</sub> and <sup>4</sup>S<sub>3/2</sub> → <sup>4</sup>I<sub>15/2</sub> transitions, respectively;  $h$  is the Planck's constant;  $k$  is the Boltzmann's constant; and  $T$  is the absolute temperature. Equation (1) can be expressed as follows:

$$\ln(FIR) = \ln(B) + \left(-\frac{\Delta E}{kT}\right) = \ln(B) + \left(-\frac{C}{T}\right) \quad (2)$$

where  $B$  and  $C$  are the constants that need to be determined. Fitting the experimental data with Equation (2) demonstrates a strong correlation between theory and experiment, consistent with previous reports on thermometry based on Er<sup>3+</sup> UC emission [94,95]. The relative sensor sensitivity,  $S_r$  [in %K<sup>-1</sup>] of the luminescent probe, is defined as relative change in the FIR with temperature (Figure 10(b)):

$$S_r = \frac{1}{FIR} \frac{\Delta FIR}{\Delta T} \times 100\% \quad (3)$$

The highest relative sensitivity was achieved for a dual layered YVO<sub>4</sub>:Eu<sup>3+</sup>/YVO<sub>4</sub>:Dy<sup>3+</sup> sample, exhibiting a maximum sensitivity of 3.6% K<sup>-1</sup> at 640 K [93].



**Figure 10.** (a) Emission spectra of YVO<sub>4</sub>:1%Er<sup>3+</sup> in the temperature range 300–800 K. (b) The temperature dependence of the FIR between the emission peaks at 525 nm (<sup>2</sup>H<sub>11/2</sub>–<sup>4</sup>I<sub>15/2</sub>) and 553 nm (<sup>4</sup>S<sub>3/2</sub>–<sup>4</sup>I<sub>15/2</sub>). The red line

shows the best fit for the experimental data (black squares) to the equation: FIR. The black solid line shows the corresponding relative temperature sensitivity. Reproduced with permission from Ref. [93] under Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License.

## 5. Sensing Applications: Recent Advances

Sensing applications of vanadates have been previously illustrated and discussed. This section provides a brief overview of significant developments in the field since 2023.

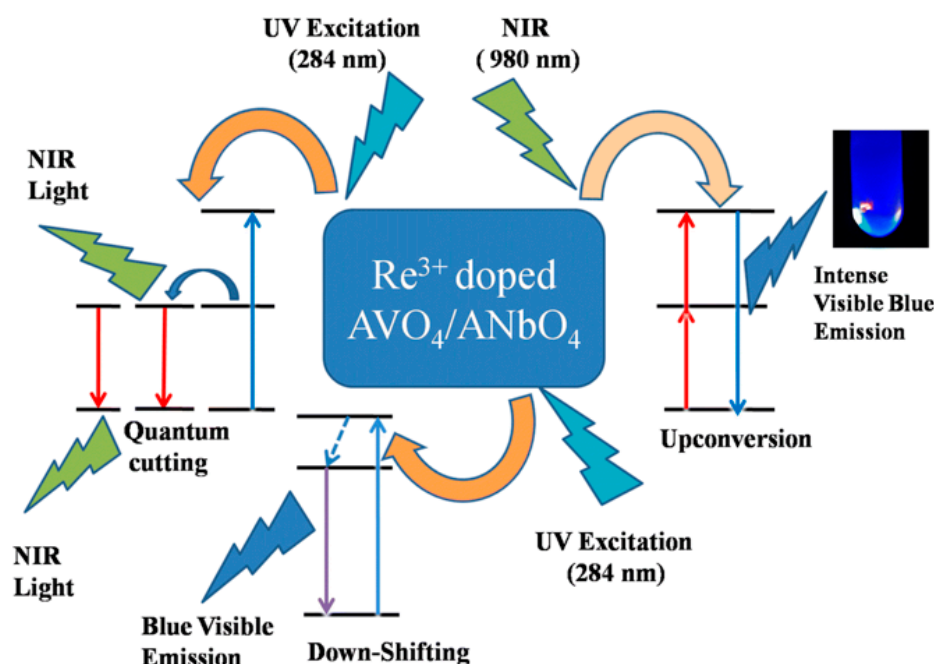
Vanadate materials – including binary oxides such as  $V_2O_5$ , ternary compounds like  $BiVO_4$ , and various transition-metal vanadates (e.g., Zn-, Fe-, Pr–vanadates) – are semiconductors characterized by tunable electronic structure, high redox activity, and versatile surface chemistry. These properties render them highly effective for a range of chemical sensing applications, particularly in gas detection and electrochemical identification of complex analytes.

Vanadium pentoxide, for instance, exhibits a wide bandgap (2.3 eV), a robust chemical and thermal stability, a rich surface chemistry and a characteristic metal–insulator transition at 257 °C. As detailed in a comprehensive review of  $V_2O_5$  gas sensors [96], these devices operate primarily through three mechanisms: gas adsorption, polaron hopping and direct chemical interaction. These mechanisms facilitate diverse applications in environmental monitoring, food safety, medical diagnostics and pharmaceuticals. Recent literature [97] emphasizes that the high surface-to-volume ratio and inherent reactivity of  $V_2O_5$  allow for the selective detection of biomolecules and other analytes at sub-ppm concentrations. Furthermore, its distinctive lamellar structure is highly conducive to doping, enabling direct modification of its structural and optical characteristics. Incorporating multiple rare-earth (RE) elements can induce cooperative effects that enhance optical performance and expand functionality [98]. For instance, annealed films constituted by  $CeO_2:V_2O_5$  nano-particles have recently demonstrated high sensitivity in thin film strain-gauge applications due to their optimized electrical and morphological characteristics [99].

Bismuth vanadate is an n-type semiconductor nanomaterial with a narrow bandgap (2.4 eV), making it highly active under visible light. While being a promising catalyst for rapid removal of pollutants from wastewater [100],  $BiVO_4$  has emerged as a potent biosensing platform, due to its unique electrochemical properties, high dispersibility, high photocatalytic efficiency, low toxicity, and biocompatibility. Recent developments highlight its efficacy in detecting various disease biomarkers with high sensitivity and specificity [101]. Additionally, morphology-tailored  $BiVO_4$  nanostructures have shown improved gas-sensing performance for environmental monitoring (e.g.,  $NO_x$ ,  $H_2S$ ) by maximizing surface active sites and oxygen vacancies [102].

The zircon-type tetragonal structure of certain vanadates acts as a stable host lattice for dopant ions. Materials such as  $YVO_4$ ,  $GdVO_4$ , and  $LuVO_4$  have emerged as premier materials for optical sensing due to their unique combination of structural stability and exceptional spectroscopic properties. Unlike other hosts, the vanadate group ( $VO_4^{3-}$ ) is "self-activated", absorbing ultraviolet (UV) light and efficiently transferring energy to lanthanide dopants, thus significantly enhancing luminescence. These materials maintain structural integrity at high temperatures (melting points near 1800°C) and are resistant to chemical degradation, making them ideal for sensing in harsh environments. Recent advances in the synthesis and applications of RE-doped phosphors, including vanadates have been discussed in literature [103–105].

Figure 11 shows schematically the luminescence processes in RE-doped  $AVO_4$  and  $ANbO_4$  phosphors (where A= Y, Gd, or La for niobate, and A= Y or Gd for vanadate) [103]. The very intense emission upon UV and NIR excitation may be exploited for producing high-security anti-counterfeiting inks. These 'invisible' inks remain covert under ambient light but emit intense fluorescence under UV or near-infrared (NIR) excitation. An advance in documents' security is possible by integrating optical authentication provided by the ink's fluorescence and biometric recognition through fingerprint patterns. Efficient detection of latent fingerprints, with low background interferences, was made possible by the RE ions' capability of multi-color emission [106–109].



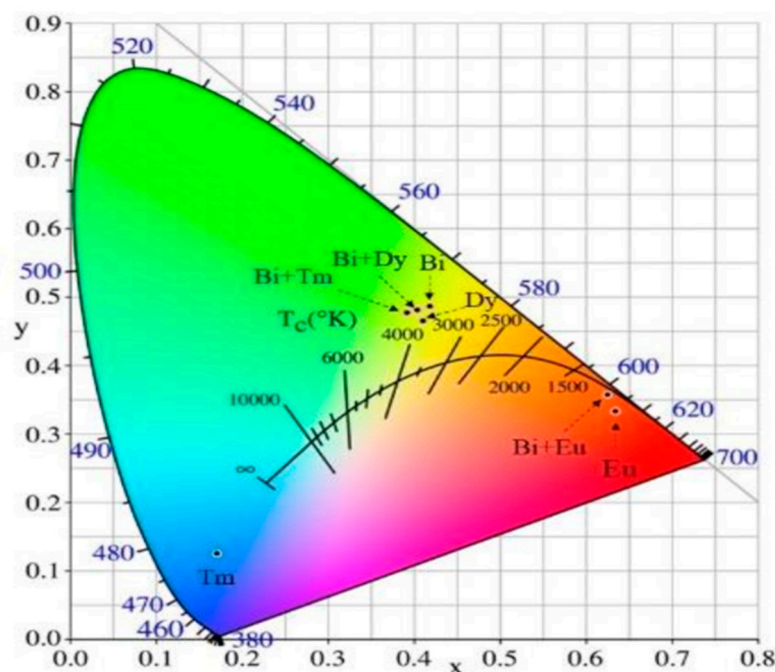
**Figure 11.** Schematic representation of the spectral conversion processes which may occur in RE-doped vanadate and niobate materials upon UV or NIR excitation. A= Y or Gd for vanadate, and A= Y, Gd, or La for niobate. Image reproduced from [103] under CC BY license.

For example, Ye et al. [107] developed various  $\text{GdVO}_4:\text{RE}^{3+}$  through a dual sintering process at  $1100^\circ\text{C}$ . CIE color coordinates diagram for  $\text{GdVO}_4$ -doped with trivalent Bi, Dy, Eu, Bi/Dy, Bi/Tm and Bi/Eu ions is shown in Figure 12. The  $\text{GdVO}_4:\text{Bi}^{3+}/\text{Eu}^{3+}$  formulation proved particularly resistant to background interference, enabling the resolution of latent fingerprint details on various surfaces and under hard humidity and temperature conditions. Because these nanoparticles are significantly (1000–10,000 times) smaller than the width of a fingerprint ridge, they enable exceptional spatial resolution and superior adhesion. Recent studies on a set of nanocrystalline red light-emitting  $\text{Ca}_8\text{ZnGd}_{1-x}\text{Eu}_x(\text{VO}_4)_7$  ( $x = 0.10\text{--}0.50$  mol), synthesized via a non-hazardous and cost-effective solution-based calcination (SBC) route have shown promising results [109]. XRD analysis confirmed that  $\text{Eu}^{3+}$  ions were diffused into the trigonal host matrix without causing structural deformation. The size of non-uniform agglomerated particles was evaluated around 61 nm. The chromaticity coordinates of the optimal sample ( $\text{Ca}_8\text{ZnGd}_{0.80}\text{Eu}_{0.20}(\text{VO}_4)_7$ ) and its high color purity of 97.7% indicate that this material stands at the forefront of both fluorescence-based forensic sensing and advanced optoelectronic devices.

As a general trend, RE-doped vanadates have gained significant interest for luminescence thermometry and chemical biosensing. In most cases, the luminescence intensity ratio (LIR) technique is used. This ratiometric approach calculates absolute temperature by comparing the intensity of two distinct emission peaks (e.g., from  $\text{Eu}^{3+}$  or  $\text{Nd}^{3+}$ ), effectively neutralizing fluctuations in excitation laser power. Beyond LIR, thermal sensing can also be performed by monitoring temperature-dependent shifts in spectral line position and line bandwidth. Significant research over the last decade has demonstrated the efficacy of various nanostructures, including  $\text{YVO}_4:\text{Nd}^{3+}$  [79] and  $\text{La}_3\text{Sc}_2\text{Ga}_3\text{O}_{12}:\text{Cr}^{3+}/\text{Nd}^{3+}$ , nanophosphors [110],  $\text{YVO}_4:\text{Ho}^{3+}/\text{Yb}^{3+}$  nanocrystals [111],  $\text{GdVO}_4:\text{Er}^{3+}/\text{Yb}^{3+}$  nanocrystalline powders [112], and (Y, Yb, Tm, Er) $\text{VO}_4$  systems [113].

In a recent study, a RE-doped solid solution of yttrium phosphate-vanadate ( $\text{YV}_{1-x}\text{P}_x\text{O}_4:\text{Eu}^{3+}, \text{Er}^{3+}$ ) was proposed as a high-performance luminescent thermometer [114]. This material leverages the strong, broad charge transfer absorption of the vanadate group to sensitize  $\text{RE}^{3+}$  ions. It facilitates multi-mode sensing by utilizing: the LIR of  $\text{Er}^{3+} {}^2\text{H}_{11/2}/{}^4\text{S}_{3/2}$  emission, the dual-center LIR of integrated  $\text{Er}^{3+}$  and  $\text{Eu}^{3+}$  emission intensities, and the emission lifetime of  $\text{Eu}^{3+}$ . This system enables very accurate

temperature sensing across a wide temperature range, from room temperature to 873 K; inside that range, the P/V ratio (x) is adjustable to optimize performance for specific thermal windows.



**Figure 12.** CIE color coordinates of gadolinium vanadate doped with heavy metal (Bi) and different rare earths (Dy, Eu, Tm) or a combination of them (Bi+Dy, Bi+Eu, Bi+Tm). Reproduced from [107] under CC BY license.

While the LIR method is easy to be implemented and is robust against experimental or sample-related conditions, such as fluctuations in excitation intensity, sample geometry, or concentration of luminescent probes, concerns have been raised about its absolute precision. Vieira Perrella et al. [115] addressed this issue by synthesizing UV-excitable  $\text{Eu}^{3+}$ -doped yttrium vanadate and phosphovanadate ( $\text{Y}(\text{V},\text{P})\text{O}_4$ ) particles. Their work clarified how the intrinsic spectral overlap between  ${}^3\text{T}_{1,2} \rightarrow {}^1\text{A}_1$   $\text{VO}_4^{3-}$  transitions and  $\text{Eu}^{3+}$  transitions  ${}^5\text{D}_0 \rightarrow {}^7\text{F}_j$  impacts sensor reliability. Without a proper baseline correction, the broad band background overlap can result in a ten-fold increase in temperature uncertainty and a  $\sim 60\%$  underestimation of relative thermal sensitivity.

Vanadate compounds are increasingly used for the detection and remediation of persistent pollutants in aquatic ecosystems, often related to pharmaceutical residuals eliminated by humans and animals through their bodily waste. This issue has become crucial due to the disproportionate usage of antimicrobial agents in humans, animals and in feed supplements. The photocatalytic activity of pure  $\text{Ca}_2\text{V}_2\text{O}_7$  has shown remarkable results under visible light irradiation [116]. Within 180 min, this material achieved 79.5% removal of safranin O (a red cationic dye used in histology and Gram-bacteria staining) and 80.6% removal of tetracycline hydrochloride (a yellow, crystalline, broad-spectrum antibiotic) [116]. In addition,  $\text{Ca}_2\text{V}_2\text{O}_7$  nanomaterial was effective for photocatalytic hydrogen generation.

RE-vanadates are emerging as superior electrochemical probes for the precise quantification of various biological and pharmaceutical compounds. Sriram et al. [117] performed a comparative study of hydrothermally synthesized  $\text{TVO}_4$  ( $\text{T} = \text{Ho}, \text{Y}, \text{Dy}$ ) for the simultaneous detection of two representative drugs, namely, nitrofurazone (an antiseptic drug towards urinary tract infection) and roxarsone (an organo-arsenic drug, used in poultry as feed additive). The three RE-vanadates were found to respond differently, and results demonstrated that  $\text{DyVO}_4$ -based electrodes exhibited superior sensitivity, achieving exceptionally low detection limits ( $0.002 \mu\text{M}$  for nitrofurazone and  $0.0009 \mu\text{M}$  for roxarsone). Similarly, orthovanadates ( $\text{RE-VO}_4$ , where  $\text{RE} = \text{Pr}, \text{Gd}, \text{and Sm}$ ) were evaluated for the detection of two antibiotics, i.e., furazolidone (FD) and metronidazole (MD), nitro-functional synthetic drugs that have been in use for over 30 years [118]. Using differential pulse

voltammetry, the different vanadates were compared as electrode modifiers and SmVO<sub>4</sub>-modified glassy carbon electrode emerged as the most effective, characterized by the lowest charge transfer resistance ( $R_{ct} = 56.82 \Omega$ ) and the largest electrochemical surface area ( $A = 0.11 \text{ cm}^2$ ). This sensor not only provided the lowest limits of detection (0.0009  $\mu\text{M}$  for FD and 0.0036  $\mu\text{M}$  for MD individually, and 0.0015  $\mu\text{M}$  and 0.0049  $\mu\text{M}$  for simultaneous detection) but also showed excellent anti-interference, repeatability, and reproducibility. A recent comparative analysis of RE-doped molybdate, tungstate, and vanadate nanomaterials for the detection and photocatalytic degradation of nitrofurantoin (NFT), a persistent and toxic antibiotic contaminant, highlighted the versatility of these materials [119]. A series of NaDy(MoO<sub>4</sub>)<sub>2</sub>:Tb<sup>3+</sup>, NaDy(WO<sub>4</sub>)<sub>2</sub>:Tb<sup>3+</sup>, and Na<sub>3</sub>Dy(VO<sub>4</sub>)<sub>2</sub>:Tb<sup>3+</sup> nanomaterials were synthesized via a hydrothermal method and systematically characterized. While the tungstate variant excelled in the photocatalytic degradation of NFT under UV light (96% degradation in 60 min), the vanadate variant exhibited the highest sensitivity for NFT detection, with a detection limit of 0.38 ppm.

## 6. Conclusions

This paper has provided a comprehensive overview of advances in synthesis strategies, luminescent properties and sensing applications of the Ln-doped rare-earth vanadate materials: A detailed discussion is given regarding the preparation such as solid state reactions, coprecipitation, hydrothermal/solvothermal, sol-gel, microwave-assisted methods. The main attention has been focused on their structures properties, especially optical, downconversion and upconversion luminescence and their sensing application perspectives of these materials.

The Ln<sup>3+</sup>-activated nanomaterials have emerged as versatile platforms for biodetection, fluorescence *in vitro* and *in vivo* bioimaging and therapeutic applications including anti-aging, antibacterial, anticancer and antioxidant effects. Their performance is driven by advances in host materials such as GdVO<sub>4</sub>, YVO<sub>4</sub>, and LuVO<sub>4</sub>, alongside innovations in design, size, shape, co-doping and surface modification. As a result, Ln<sup>3+</sup>-activated nanomaterials are gaining increasing importance in biomedical research, with rapid progress expected through continued developments in materials synthesis, surface engineering and assay technologies.

Vanadates activated by Ln<sup>3+</sup> ions and co-doped with (Yb<sup>3+</sup> or Nd<sup>3+</sup>), so-called upconverting materials, have broader sensing application potential, beyond biomedicine and advanced sensing technologies. They have been applied in luminescence imaging, cell labeling, magnetic resonance imaging, photodynamic therapy, chemotherapy, single-photon emission computed tomography, X-ray computed tomography, optical biosensing, biomarker identification, immunoassays, drug delivery, luminescence thermometry, solar energy conversion, fingerprint detection, photocatalysis, and related fields. In biomedical contexts, upconverting nanomaterials offer distinct advantages, including deeper tissue penetration, minimal autofluorescence background, reduced scattering and absorption, excellent photostability, and negligible photoblinking.

Looking ahead, the main research on Ln-doped vanadate materials should be focus on the integrating multimodal biomedical functions, while ensuring biocompatibility for clinical applications and shifting of excitation wavelengths from 980 nm to safer biological windows (808 nm) to reduce tissue heating.

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**Conflicts of Interest:** The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

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