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Mesoporous carbide-derived carbon with porosity tuned for efficient adsorption of cytokines

Gleb Yushin^a, Elizabeth N. Hoffman^a, Michel W. Barsoum^a, Yury Gogotsi^{a,*}, Carol A. Howell^b, Susan R. Sandeman^b, Gary J. Phillips^b, Andrew W. Lloyd^b, Sergey V. Mikhalovsky^b

^aDepartment of Materials Science and Engineering and A.J. Drexel Nanotechnology Institute, Drexel University, Philadelphia, PA 19104, USA

^bSchool of Pharmacy and Biomolecular Sciences, University of Brighton, Moulsecoomb, Brighton BN2 4GJ, UK

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Abstract

Porous carbons can be used for the purification of various bio-fluids, including the cleansing blood of inflammatory mediators in conditions such as sepsis or auto-immune diseases. Here we show that the control of pore size in carbons is a key factor to achieving efficient removal of cytokines. In particular, the surface area accessible by the protein governs the rate and effectiveness of the adsorption process. We demonstrate that novel mesoporous carbon materials synthesized from ternary MAX-phase carbides can be optimized for efficient adsorption of large inflammatory proteins. The synthesized carbons, having tunable pore size with a large volume of slit-shaped mesopores, outperformed all other materials or methods in terms of efficiency of TNF- α removal and the results are comparable only with highly specific antibody-antigen interactions.

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1. Introduction

The worldwide occurrence of sepsis with over 18 million cases recorded annually and the absence of efficient drug-based therapies, make this systemic inflammatory response to infection one of the leading causes of death [1]. Severe sepsis, which accounts for over 17% of the total sepsis cases, and having a current mortality rate 30–40%, is responsible for the death of 1500 people/day worldwide, on a scale comparable to lung and breast cancer (~2700 and ~1100 people /day, respectively) [1,2]. From an economic perspective, sepsis places a significant burden on healthcare systems, costing over \$17 billion/year in the US alone [3]. The inflammatory response to various bodily insults is driven by a complex network of inflammatory mediators; these consist mainly of proteins called cytokines [4–6]. Cytokine removal from blood may help to bring under

control the unregulated pro- and anti-inflammatory processes driving sepsis. Therapies aimed at the simultaneous reduction of cytokines across a wide range of molecular sizes might, therefore, prove more effective than drugs directed against a single or a few inflammatory mediators [5–7]. Hemofiltration or hemoadsorption could allow extracorporeal removal of these inflammatory cytokines to an extent that is sufficient to strongly reduce the inflammatory response. While both sieving and adsorption could play a role in hemofiltration, the adsorption characteristics of the filter material are generally believed to be a dominant factor in membrane efficiency. Adsorption can remove toxins without introducing other substances into the blood. Therefore, hemoadsorption might have advantages over hemofiltration, having the same or better efficiency in the treatment of inflammatory diseases, being of lower cost and offering considerably better comfort for patients during and after the treatments [8].

*Corresponding author. Tel.: +1 215 8995 6211.

E-mail address: gogotsi@drexel.edu (Y. Gogotsi).

1 Activated carbons (ACs), known for over 3000 years,
 2 still remain the most powerful conventional adsorbents [8],
 3 mainly due to their highly developed porous structure and
 4 large surface area. Most of the specially purified ACs
 5 prepared from synthetic polymers show excellent biocom-
 6 patibility and do not require special coatings for direct
 7 contact with blood [8,9]. However, despite extensive studies
 8 and improvements in the activation processes, little control
 9 over the pore structure has been achieved. Even advanced
 10 ACs show limited performance in adsorbing large inflam-
 11 matory proteins, mostly due to the limited surface area
 12 accessible to the adsorbate. Templating has previously been
 13 used to increase the volume fraction of the larger pores
 14 [10–12]. For example, porous carbon was prepared by
 15 introducing carbon into the pores of alumina or silica
 16 substrates and subsequently dissolving the oxide template
 17 by acidic treatment. Apart from cost issues, the resulting
 18 carbon generally demonstrates poor mechanical integrity
 19 and near-spherical shape of the pores with the bottlenecks
 20 that do not allow large molecules to be adsorbed inside the
 21 bulk of the particles. In principle, it follows that
 22 interconnected slit-shaped pores of an optimized size
 23 would be more advantageous for the discussed application.
 24 Small particles (<100 nm) would offer a larger external
 25 surface, but they cannot be used in most of the biomedical
 26 applications due to difficulties of filtering them from the
 27 biofluids. The pore size in other porous carbon materials,
 28 such as carbon nanotubes (CNT), is very difficult to
 29 control and tune to the desired values. Most CNTs have a
 30 low specific surface area (SSA) and agglomeration of CNT
 31 into ropes, particularly when they are brought in contact
 32 with biofluids, generally significantly reduces their acces-
 33 sible surface area.

34 Carbon produced by etching of metal(s) from metal
 35 carbides and called carbide derived carbon (CDC) has
 36 recently been shown to offer great potential for controlling
 37 the size of micropores (0.4–2 nm) [13]. CDCs are generally
 38 produced by chlorination of carbides in the 200–1200 °C
 39 temperature range. Metals and metalloids are removed as
 40 chlorides, leaving behind a collapsed noncrystalline carbon
 41 with up to 80% open pore volume. The detailed nature of
 42 the porosity—average size and size distribution, shape, and
 43 total SSA—can be tuned with high sensitivity by the
 44 judicious selection of the precursor carbide (composition,
 45 lattice type, etc.) [13–16] and chlorination temperature [13].
 46 However, only tuning of microporosity (0.4–2 nm) has
 47 been demonstrated in CDCs so far. In this paper, we
 48 demonstrated a method to produce porous carbons with
 49 controlled volume and surface area of slit-shaped meso-
 50 pores (2–50 nm) of certain size by CDC synthesis from
 51 selected ternary (MAX-phase) carbides [17] and investi-
 52 gated the effect of pore structure on removal of cytokines
 53 from blood.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Materials

54 CDCs were synthesized from Ti_2AlC and Ti_3AlC_2 powders by the
 55 reaction with pure chlorine (99.5%, BOC gases) at 600, 800 and 1200 °C.
 56 Both carbides were produced at Drexel University, but are now
 57 commercially available (3-ONE-2, Inc, NJ, US). They belong to the
 58 MAX-phase group of ternary carbides, having a layered hexagonal
 59 structure with carbon atoms positioned in basal planes and separated by
 60 0.68 nm (Ti_2AlC) or alternating layers of 0.31 and 0.67 nm (Ti_3AlC_2) [18].
 61 The CDCs produced from these carbides are known to possess slit-shaped
 62 open pores [13,19,20]. The average particle size of the carbide samples
 63 used in our experiments was $\sim 10 \mu m$, as measured using a particle size
 64 analyzer (Horiba LA-910, Japan). For CDC synthesis, the selected carbide
 65 powder was placed onto a quartz sample holder and loaded into the hot
 66 zone of a horizontal quartz tube furnace. Prior to heating, the tube
 67 (~ 30 mm in diameter) was purged with high purity Ar (BOC Gases,
 68 99.998%) for 30 min at a flow rate of 100 sccm. Once the desired
 69 temperature was reached and stabilized, the Ar flow was stopped and a 3-h
 70 chlorination began with Cl_2 flowing at a rate of 10 sccm. After
 71 the completion of the chlorination process, the samples were cooled down
 72 under a flow of Ar (40 sccm) for about 5 h to remove any residual chlorine
 73 or metal chlorides from the pores, and taken out for further analyses. In
 74 order to avoid a back-stream of air, the exhaust tube was connected to a
 75 bubbler filled with sulfuric acid. A detailed description of the chlorination
 76 apparatus used in this study can be found elsewhere [21].

77 The sorption performance of the CDCs was compared with that of
 78 Adsorba 300C and CXV carbon adsorbents. Adsorba 300C is an activated
 79 carbon produced by Norit from peat, and coated with a 3–5 μm thick
 80 cellulose membrane for better hemocompatibility. It is commercially used
 81 in adsorbent-assisted extracorporeal systems manufactured by Gambro,
 82 Sweden. CXV is an AC obtained from CECA (subsidiary of Arkema,
 83 France), known to be extremely efficient for cytokine removal applications
 84 and thus used as a benchmark reference.

2.2. Characterization

85 The structure of the CDCs was investigated using high-resolution
 86 transmission electron microscopy (HRTEM). The TEM samples were
 87 prepared by 2 min sonication of the CDC powder in isopropanol and
 88 deposition on the lacey-carbon coated copper grid (200 mesh). A field-
 89 emission TEM (JEOL 2010F, Japan) with an imaging filter (Gatan GIF)
 90 was used at 200 kV.

91 The porosity of CDCs was studied using automated micropore gas
 92 analyzers Autosorb-1 and Nova (Quantachrome Instruments, USA). The
 93 N_2 and Ar sorption isotherms were obtained at liquid nitrogen
 94 temperature (-196 °C) in the relative pressure P/P_0 range of about
 95 8×10^{-7} –1 and 2×10^{-2} –1, respectively. The isotherms were analyzed
 96 using Brunauer–Emmet–Teller (BET) equation and non-local density
 97 functional theory (NLDF) [22–25] to reveal the SSA and pore-size
 98 distributions (PSD) of the CDCs. The SSAs calculated using BET and
 99 DFT theory are referred to as BET–SSA and DFT–SSA, respectively. A
 100 difference in absolute values between BET–SSA and DFT–SSA is
 101 expected, as both types of calculations are based on different assumptions,
 102 which might not be justified with the utmost accuracy for all the materials
 103 under study. Quantachrome Instruments data reduction software Auto-
 104 sorb v.1.50 [22] was employed for the porosity analysis. Slit-shaped pores
 105 were assumed for the calculations.

2.3. Cytokine adsorption experiments

106 Fresh frozen human plasma (NBS, UK) was defrosted and spiked with
 107 the recombinant human cytokines (TNF- α , IL-1 β , IL-6, and IL-8; all
 108 obtained from BD Biosciences, USA) at a concentration of about 1000,
 109 500, 5000 and 500 pg/ml, respectively. These levels are comparable with
 110

the concentrations measured in the plasma of patients with sepsis [26–28]. Carbon adsorbents (0.02 g) were equilibrated in phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) (0.5 ml) overnight prior to removal of PBS and addition of 800 μ l of spiked human plasma. Controls consisted of spiked plasma with no adsorbent present. Adsorbents were incubated at 37 °C while shaking (90 rpm). At 5, 30 and 60 min time points, samples were centrifuged (125 g) and the supernatant collected and stored at –20 °C prior to ELISA (BD Biosciences) analysis for the presence of cytokines. Samples were diluted 1:4 (TNF- α , IL-8, IL-1 β) and 1:10 (IL-6) in assay diluent prior to analysis.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Porosity characterization

Fig. 1 shows the N₂ sorption isotherms of CDCs (Fig. 1A) and commercial carbon samples (Fig. 1B). All the samples, except Adsorba 300C, demonstrate type IV isotherm according to the Brunauer classification [24] with a characteristic hysteresis, suggesting the presence of mesopores (pores with size in the 2–50 nm range). CDCs from both Ti₂AlC (Fig. 1A) and Ti₃AlC₂ (not shown) demonstrate similar trends as the temperature of synthesis changes. The volume of N₂ adsorbed in the porous structure of CDC prepared at lower temperature (600 °C) approaches half of the maximum values at low relative pressure (P/P_0). The steep slope of the adsorption curve at

P/P_0 values approaching 1, associated with capillary condensation in mesopores, is quite short, suggesting a small mesopore volume [22]. The N₂ sorption behavior changes dramatically at intermediate (~800 °C) chlorination temperatures. The total volume of adsorbed N₂ more than doubles; an increase is observed over the whole P/P_0 range, indicating a significant increase in both the total and mesopore volume. The level of adsorption–desorption hysteresis, and the steep slope as P/P_0 approaches unity also increases substantially, in agreement with the suggested increase in the relative volume of mesopores. As the synthesis temperature increases to 1200 °C, the volume of adsorbed N₂ further increases in the P/P_0 range of up to ~0.8, but becomes lower at higher P/P_0 values (Fig. 1A). Such changes in the isotherm shape indicate the reduction in the relative volume of larger mesopores.

The PSD curves calculated in the 1.5–36 nm range for all the studied samples from the N₂ isotherms (Fig. 2) fully support the aforementioned conclusions. The CDC samples formed at low temperature (600 °C) have a very low volume of mesopores, particularly those above 10 nm (Figs. 2B and F). At the intermediate synthesis temperatures (800 °C), the PSD becomes wider and shifts to higher pore-size values (Figs. 2C and G). These samples clearly have the largest volume of mesopores above 5 nm. At the high chlorination temperature of 1200 °C the total CDC mesopore volume remains relatively high (Figs. 2D and H). It is in fact higher than the total pore volume of many activated carbon samples, including Adsorba 300C (Fig. 2A). However, most of the mesopores in these samples are below 4–5 nm. Adsorba 300C has the smallest volume of mesopores and is almost purely microporous carbon. The PSD of the CXV sample (Fig. 2E) is close to that of an average of CDC samples produced at high and intermediate temperatures. The porosity data for all the studied samples are summarized in Table S1 (Supplementary Information).

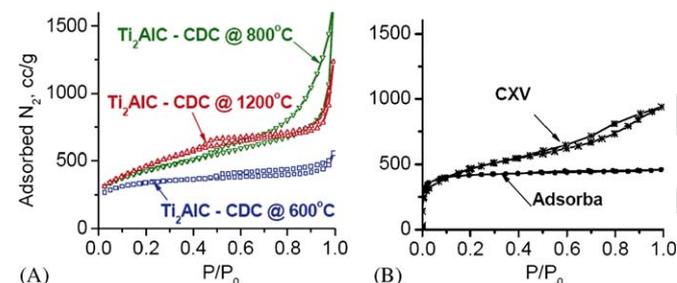


Fig. 1. Nitrogen sorption isotherms. (A) Ti₂AlC CDC, (B) CXV and Adsorba samples. N₂ isotherms for Ti₃AlC₂ CDC are very similar to the isotherms for Ti₂AlC CDC synthesized at identical temperatures.

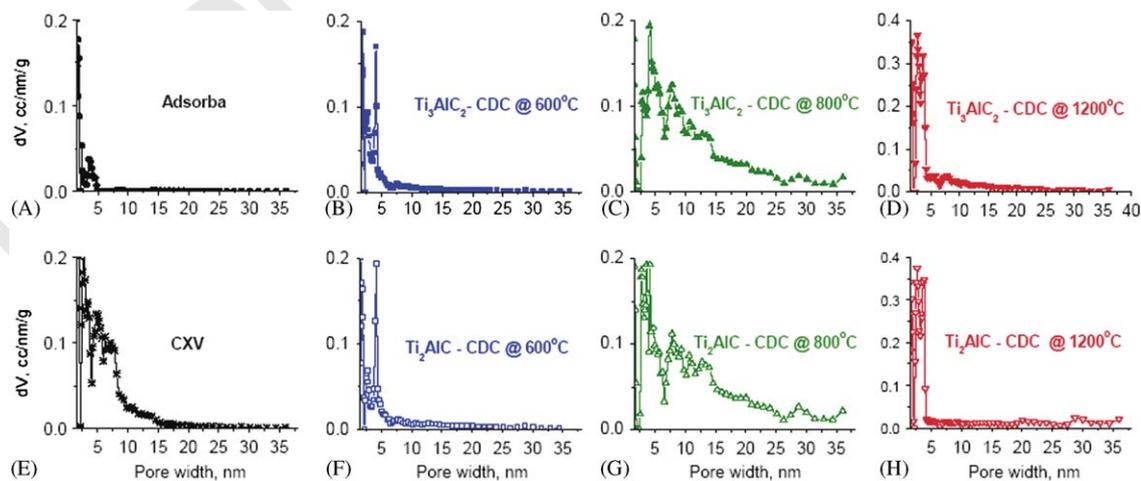


Fig. 2. Distribution of pore sizes of porous carbons in the 1.5–36 nm range obtained from N₂ sorption isotherms. (A) Adsorba, (B–D) CDC produced from Ti₃AlC₂ at 600, 800, and 1200 °C, (E) CXV, (F–H) CDC produced from Ti₂AlC at 600, 800, and 1200 °C.

1 While Ar sorption is not a very efficient technique to
 3 study the large mesopores, it gives more accurate PSD
 5 results for small (<4 nm) pore values, mainly due to
 7 argon's smaller atomic size, the absence of quadrupole
 9 moment (which can potentially lead to localized adsorption
 11 as in case of N₂) and its weaker interactions with carbon
 13 adsorbents. The PSD of the studied samples in the 0.4–4-
 15 nm range obtained from Ar sorption isotherms (Supple-
 17 mentary Information, Fig. S1) revealed details of the
 19 samples' microporosity. Similar to Adsorba 300C, both
 CDC samples produced at 600 °C have the majority of
 pores below 2 nm in width. As the CDC synthesis
 temperature increases, the average size of the pores in the
 0.4–4-nm range increases as well (Fig. S1). However, above
 800 °C, pores in the 2–4-nm range have a tendency to grow
 on the account of the micropores, forming a large volume
 of ~3 nm pores at 1200 °C. The PSD of the CXV sample is
 close to the average between the CDC samples formed at
 800 and 1200 °C.

21 3.2. Transmission electron microscopy

23 TEM revealed disordered microstructure of all the
 25 studied carbons. The degree of disorder was different
 27 between the carbons. Both CDCs formed at 600 °C
 29 demonstrate completely amorphous structure, without
 31 any graphite fringes visible (Fig. 3A). Increasing the
 33 CDC-processing temperature to 800 °C resulted in the
 35 formation of short-curved graphene structures, considered
 37 turbostratic carbon (Fig. 3B). At 1200 °C TEM detected
 markedly increased ordering and the formation of long and
 thin (1–3 graphene sheets) graphite ribbons (Fig. 3C). At
 the edge of the particles, ribbons with up to 10 graphene
 layers were found (Fig. 3C). The microstructure of
 Adsorba 300C sample was found to be highly amorphous,
 (Fig. 3D) while that of the CXV carbon (Fig. 3E),
 turbostratic.

Our previous studies have shown that the observed
 evolution of ordering within the carbon structure with the
 chlorination temperature is quite common for most of the
 CDCs obtained from both ternary and binary carbides [21].
 The changes in the PSDs correlate to changes in the CDC
 microstructure. The low mobility of the carbon atoms at
 the low chlorination temperatures resulted in the formation
 of a uniform amorphous structure (Fig. 3A) with small
 micropores (Figs. 2B and F; Figs. S1B, S1F). At higher
 synthesis temperatures, higher carbon mobility allowed for
 the formation of graphitic ribbon networks (Fig. 3C), with
 mesopores forming between the graphene ribbons and
 micropores in the imperfections of the graphitic ribbons or
 within the remaining disordered carbon (Figs. 2D and H;
 Figs. S1D, S1H). At the intermediate temperature of
 800 °C, the mobility of carbon was high enough to allow
 for a redistribution of carbon atoms into defective
 graphene sheets and the collapse of several sheets into
 stacks forming mesopores between them. However, the
 mobility was still too low to allow uniform linking between

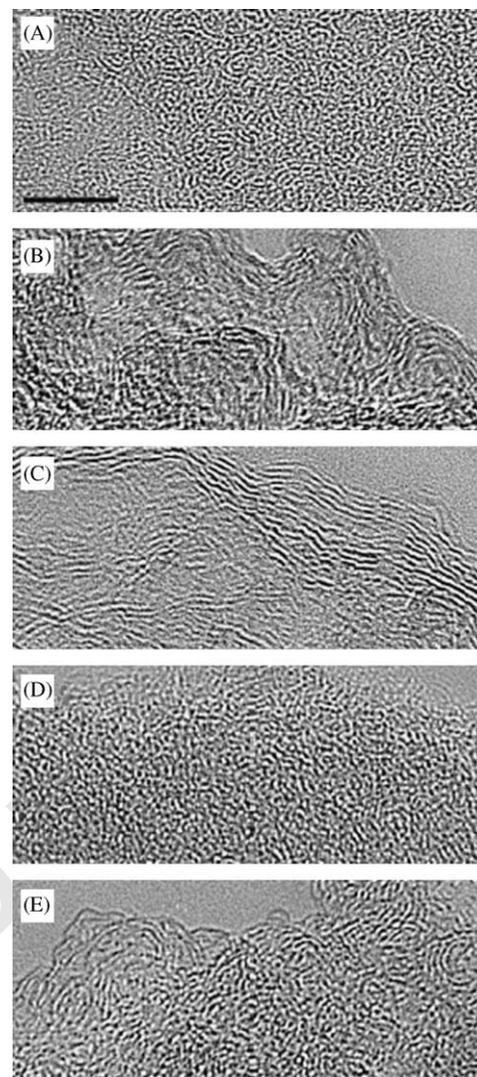


Fig. 3. Transmission electron microscopy of porous carbon samples. (A–C) CDC produced from Ti₂AlC at 600, 800 and 1200 °C, (D) Adsorba, (E) CXV. The structure of Ti₃AlC₂ CDC replicates the one for Ti₂AlC CDC if synthesized at identical temperatures. Scale bar = 5 nm.

the turbostratic ribbons, resulting in a wide distribution of
 mesopores (Figs. 2C and G). Note, that since precise
 determination of non-spherical pores in disordered non-
 planar particles is not possible using TEM, we relied on gas
 sorption measurements for the PSD determination.

3.3. Cytokine adsorption

Fig. 4 compares efficiency of removal of two selected
 cytokines (tumor necrosis factor alpha (TNF- α) and
 interleukin-6 (IL-6)) from human plasma using the
 investigated carbons. Adsorption of TNF- α is known to
 be the most challenging task, probably due to a large size
 (> 9.4 nm) of the trimeric (most common) form of this
 cytokine [29]. Adsorba 300C and CDC produced at 600 °C,
 which have small pores, did not noticeably change the
 protein concentration over time. CDC produced at 1200 °C
 and CXV also demonstrated a limited success in the

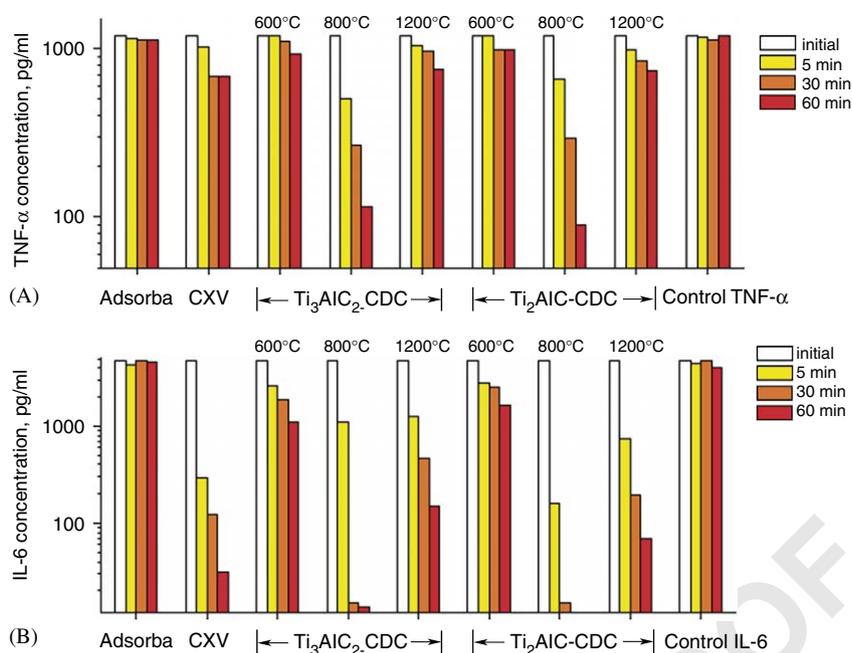


Fig. 4. Comparison of the porous carbons efficiency in the cytokine removal from human blood plasma. (A) Concentration of TNF- α in the plasma solution initially and after 5, 30 and 60 min of adsorption. (B) Similar changes in IL-6 concentration. Both CDC samples produced at 800 °C and having developed mesoporosity outperformed other materials in the efficiency of cytokines removal.

adsorption of TNF- α , decreasing its concentration by about 40% after 1 h of adsorption (Fig. 4A), similar to that observed in advanced porous carbon hemoadsorption systems [30]. In contrast, both CDC samples prepared at 800 °C decreased the protein concentration by over 13 times in this time period. To the best of our knowledge, in these experiments CDCs outperformed any other material or method for the efficient removal of TNF- α , and the results are comparable only to highly specific antibody-antigen interactions [31,32].

Adsorption of the smaller cytokine IL-6 by most of the studied carbons was noticeably higher, but demonstrated similar trends (Fig. 4B). Strictly microporous Adsorba 300C was clearly inefficient. However, CDCs prepared at 600 °C, having a limited amount of mesopores (pores 2–50 nm), adsorbed 66–77% of the cytokines initially present in the solution in 1 h. The CDCs produced at 1200 °C demonstrated 97–98.5% adsorption, which is comparable to the CXV sample, capable of adsorbing ~99%. The CDCs prepared from Ti₂AlC at 800 °C, having the most developed mesoporosity decreased IL-6 concentration by ~99.8%; the remaining IL-6 was close to the detection limit of the ELISA used.

A clear dependence of protein removal efficiency on the PSDs of the porous carbons is seen when protein adsorption is plotted as a function of the carbons' accessible surface area, which is approximated as the SSA of pores exceeding the smallest protein dimension in size (Fig. 5). Dimensions of the investigated cytokines were considered to be: 9.4 × 9.4 × 11.7 nm (trimer of TNF- α) [29], 5.5 × 5.5 × 7.7 nm (IL-1 β) [33], 5 × 5 × 12.2 nm (IL-6) [34], 4 × 4 × 9 nm (IL-8) [35]. The larger the surface areas of

the porous carbons accessible to a given cytokine (SSA_{acc}), the more cytokines were adsorbed at a given time (Figs. 5A–D). Some scattering in the results obtained could be explained by experimental errors in the estimation of the cytokine concentration and the carbon PSD. Depending on the cytokine and its initial concentration, values of the SSA_{acc} above 50–100 m²/g were generally sufficient for fast and efficient cytokine removal. The relatively short and small IL-1 β and IL-8 cytokines diffused so rapidly into the carbon pores that 5 min was sufficient to adsorb most of these proteins by carbons with SSA_{acc} exceeding 50 m²/g (Figs. 5B and D). The existence of larger channels within these carbons should have further accelerated the adsorption process. IL-6 demonstrated slower adsorption (Fig. 5C), probably due to its longer dimensions and hence slower diffusion within the carbon pore structure. The TNF- α trimer, the largest adsorbate, demonstrated a further decrease in adsorption rate (Fig. 5A) as the amount of pores, exceeding three times the adsorbate size needed for fast diffusion, was limited (Figs. 2C and G).

Historically, in medical sciences and applied medicine, ACs are considered to be high SSA carbons of ultra purity. Differentiation of ACs with respect to difference in their PSD is uncommon. In fact, the same carbon materials are often used for adsorption of various species, from gases to organic molecules. However, since most commercial medical grade ACs, including Adsorba, are primarily microporous (Figs. 2A, Fig. S1A), adsorption of inflammatory mediators with size exceeding 2 nm could only take place on the particles' surface (Fig. 6A). The calculated SSA of spherical carbon particles with a 10 μ m diameter and 50% porosity is only ~0.3 m²/g, which is much smaller

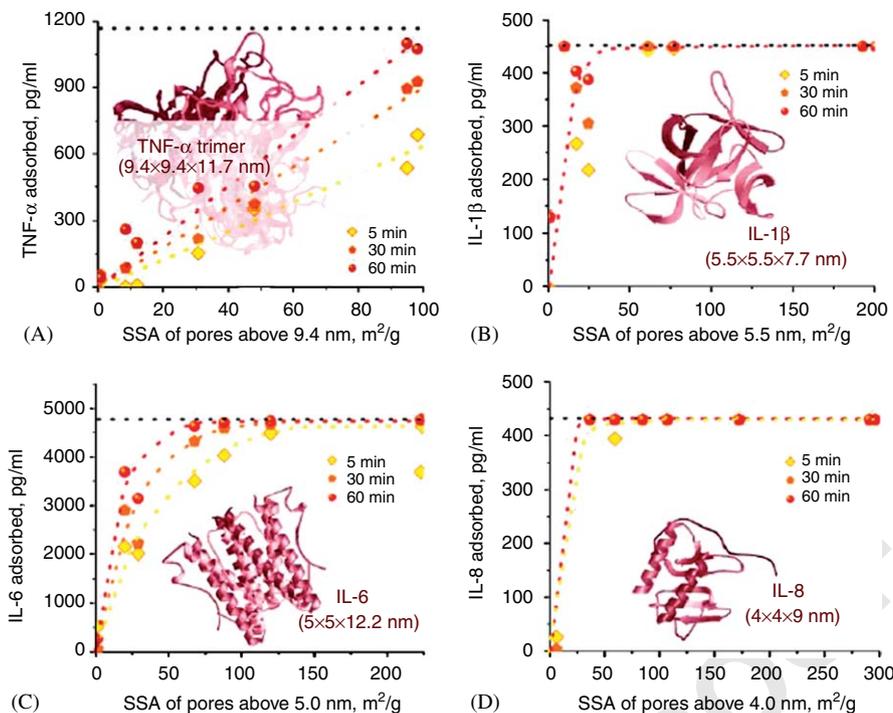


Fig. 5. Adsorption of cytokines by porous carbons as a function of the surface area accessible to the cytokines. (A) TNF- α , (B) IL-1 β , (C) IL-6, (D) IL-8. The accessible area is approximated as the SSA of pores exceeding the smallest protein dimension in size: 9.4 nm for TNF- α trimer, 5.5 nm for IL-1 β , 5 nm for IL-6, and 4 nm for IL-8. Amount of the adsorbed cytokines was measured after 5, 30 and 60 min adsorption. Larger carbon surface area accessible to the cytokines clearly results in faster and more complete adsorption. The horizontal dotted black line on the top of each graph indicates the initial concentration of the cytokines in plasma.

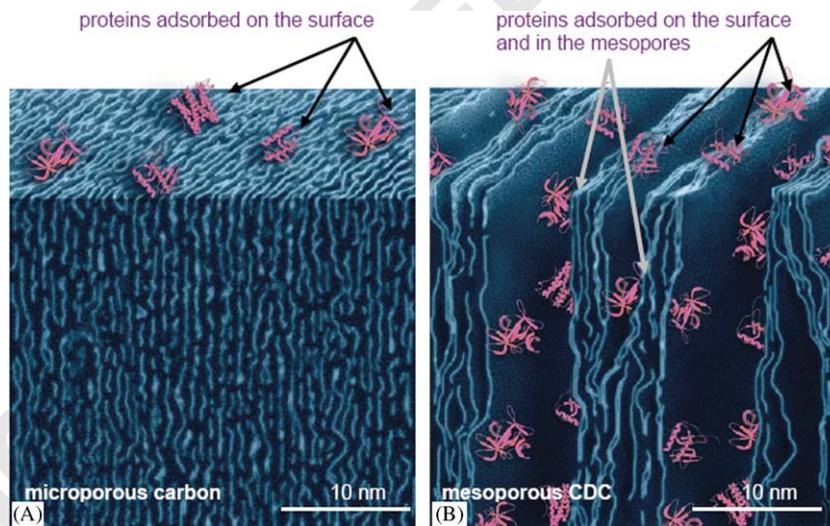


Fig. 6. Schematics of protein adsorption by porous carbons. (A) Surface adsorption in microporous carbon. Small pores do not allow proteins (shown in pink) to be adsorbed in the bulk of carbon particles (shown in blue). (B) Adsorption in the bulk of mesoporous CDC. Large mesopores are capable to accommodate most of the proteins. Carbon particles are shown in cross-section. Alignment of the slit-shaped pores drawn in both illustrations is a simplification.

than the 386–406 m²/g SSA of mesopores (2–50 nm) in the CDCs produced at 800 °C. It is thus not too surprising that clinical trials of commercial extracorporeal adsorption systems did not show significantly decreased mortality in patients with sepsis [36,37]. Large biological molecules can move through pores of appropriate size, as translocation of

DNA through a nanotube demonstrated recently [38], and be adsorbed in the bulk of the adsorbent particles (Fig. 6B). Pore size control is thus a key issue for achieving highly efficient removal of large cytokines from blood plasma. Engineering of novel nanostructured CDC adsorbents, with rationally optimized porosity may provide a

1 solution for extracorporeal adsorption systems and save
2 the lives of people suffering severe sepsis. Similar
3 approaches could be used for the selective adsorption of
4 other large organic molecules and possibly viruses for other
5 bio-related or medical applications.

7 4. Conclusions

9 Chlorination of layered ternary MAX-phase carbides
10 has made it possible to synthesize mesoporous carbons
11 with large-surface areas and volumes of slit-shaped
12 mesopores. Based on this work it appears that not only
13 micropores (0.4–2 nm) but also mesopores (2–50 nm) can
14 be tuned in a controlled way by extraction of metals from
15 carbides, providing a mechanism for the optimization of
16 adsorption systems for selective sorption of a large variety
17 of biomolecules.

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29 Appendix A. Supplementary data

31 Supplementary data associated with this article can be
32 found in the online version at [doi:10.1016/j.biomaterials.2006.07.019](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biomaterials.2006.07.019).

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