



## Facile surface modification of a polyamide reverse osmosis membrane using a TiO<sub>2</sub> sol-gel derived spray coating method to enhance the anti-fouling property

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### ABSTRACT

We reported a facile surface modification by the TiO<sub>2</sub> sol-gel derived spray coating method to enhance the fouling resistance of a polyamide (PA) reverse osmosis (RO) membrane. TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles (TNPs) were prepared by the base catalyzed sol-gel method for a short span of time and deposited onto the commercial PA RO membrane by spraying. The coated TNPs, which have a role as a functional layer on the PA RO membrane, made the membrane surface more hydrophilic and more negatively charged. These modified surface properties reduced the interactive force between humic acid and the membrane surface which resulted in the enhancement of fouling resistance of the PA RO membrane without losses in membrane performances such as the permeate flux and salt rejection when the proper amounts of TiO<sub>2</sub> were coated on the membrane. This study suggests a facile surface modification to fabricate a fouling resistant PA RO membrane by using the TiO<sub>2</sub> sol-gel derived spray coating method.

*Keywords:* Reverse osmosis; TFC membrane; TiO<sub>2</sub> sol-gel spray coating; Surface modification

### 1. Introduction

Reverse osmosis (RO) is widely used and is the fastest growing desalination process [1,2]. Currently, no less than 15,000 desalination plants have been constructed, and the RO process comprises approximately 50% of those plants [3]. In the RO process, polyamide (PA) thin-film composite (TFC) membranes are dominantly used due to their high permeability, high selectivity, wide operation temperature and pH ranges [4]. Despite these advantages, membrane fouling is considered as one of the main obstacles for the RO process [5,6]. Membrane fouling causes a decrease in the membrane

performance (i.e., the permeate flux and salt rejection) due to the hindering of water transport and a subsequent concentration polarization near the membrane surface which eventually increases the operating cost [7].

The fouling characteristics of a membrane are affected by its surface property such as the hydrophilicity, morphology and surface charge [8]. In general, hydrophilic, smooth and negatively charged membranes are known to have resistance to fouling because a foulant (i.e., proteins and humic acid) naturally has a hydrophobic and negatively charged surface property [9]. Based on these understandings of the membrane fouling mechanism, development of anti-fouling

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RO membranes has been actively conducted. Hydrophilic modification of the RO membrane surface by plasma polymerization [10], graft polymerization [11] and grafting poly(ethylene glycol) (PEG) [12] all have shown enhanced fouling resistance. PEG [13] or zwitterionic film coating [14] on a RO membrane also resulted in an improved anti-fouling property by increasing the steric repulsion to foulants.

Titanium dioxide (TiO<sub>2</sub>) has been used on RO membranes to improve fouling resistance due to its advantages such as cost-effective, eco-friendly, and photo-catalytic properties [15]. For example, TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles were self-assembled on PA TFC RO membranes to control biofouling, and the TiO<sub>2</sub>-coated membranes exhibited a higher anti-microbial property than that of the commercial membrane under UV light [16,17]. It was also shown that organic foulants were detached from the fouled membrane, and the reduced permeate flux was recovered after UV irradiation [18]. In previous studies, the dip coating method has been usually used due to its simplicity. However, this dip coating method has a limitation, specifically a slow coating rate, which might cause low productivity in membrane manufacturing [19–21].

This paper introduced a facile surface modification for a fouling resistant PA RO membrane using the TiO<sub>2</sub> sol-gel derived spray coating method. TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles (TNPs) were prepared with the base catalyzed sol-gel method and coated onto the commercial PA RO membrane with the spray coating method. The surface properties of the TNP-coated PA RO membrane were analyzed with a scanning electron microscope, X-ray photoemission spectroscopy, attenuated total reflection Fourier-transform infrared, contact angle analyzer and zeta potential analyzer. The permeate flux, salt rejection and organic fouling property of the TNP-coated PA RO membrane were evaluated in a lab-scale cross-flow RO filtration system.

## 2. Materials and methods

### 2.1. Materials

Commercial PA RO membranes (RE-SHF) were kindly provided by the Toray Chemical Company (Korea). Titanium butoxide (Ti(OC<sub>4</sub>H<sub>9</sub>)<sub>4</sub>, reagent grade, 97%), diethanolamine (DEA, HN(C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub>OH)<sub>2</sub>, reagent grade, ≥98%), ammonium hydroxide (NH<sub>4</sub>OH, 28% in H<sub>2</sub>O), sodium chloride (anhydrous, ≥99.0%) and humic acid (technical grade) were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich. Ethanol (99.9%, Samchun Chemical, Korea) was chosen as the solvent for the TiO<sub>2</sub> sol-gel process.

### 2.2. Preparation of TiO<sub>2</sub> sol and TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticle-coated PA membrane

TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles (TNPs) were synthesized by the base catalyzed TiO<sub>2</sub> sol-gel reaction. Ammonium hydroxide (100 μL), deionized water (DI water, 1 mL) and ethanol (16 mL) were mixed as the base catalyst and solvent, respectively. While maintaining vigorous stirring, titanium butoxide (2 mL) was injected into the ethanol, and the solution color changed to a white colored TiO<sub>2</sub> sol. After a 10 min stirring, 1 mL of 10 w/v% DEA/ethanol solution was injected into the TiO<sub>2</sub> sol as a stabilizer to slow down the

hydrolysis and condensation reaction [22]. Finally, the TiO<sub>2</sub> sol was sonicated in a bath sonicator for 20 min. The prepared TiO<sub>2</sub> sol was deposited onto the PA membrane with the spray coating method. The PA RO membrane (10 cm × 10 cm) was fixed on a stainless plate, and a certain volume of TiO<sub>2</sub> sol was sprayed using an airbrush onto the PA RO membrane, and each membrane was designated as TNPROX. Note that TNPRO denotes the TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles coated onto the PA RO membrane, and the X denotes the amount of the sprayed volume of TiO<sub>2</sub> sol on the PA RO membrane. After the sprayed solution evaporated, membrane samples were rinsed with DI water and stored in DI water before testing.

### 2.3. Surface characterization of the TNP-coated membranes

A field emission scanning electron microscope (FE-SEM; JSM-6701F, Jeol, Japan) was used to observe the surface morphology of the TNP coated and bare PA membranes. To obtain a clear SEM image, the membrane surface was coated with Pt by a sputter coater at 20 mA for 80 s. The electron composition of the TNP-coated membrane was analyzed using energy dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDS; JSM-6701F, Jeol, Japan). The surface hydrophilicity of the TNP coated and bare PA membranes were characterized with a sessile drop method by using a contact angle analyzer (DSA100, KRÜSS, Germany) [23]. The zeta potential of the TNP coated and bare PA membranes was analyzed with an electrophoretic light scattering spectrophotometer (ELS-8000, Otsuka Electronics, Japan). The TNPRO2.0 and bare PA membranes were analyzed by X-ray photoemission spectroscopy (XPS, Sigma Probe®, Thermo VG Scientific Co. Ltd., UK) specifically for carbon, oxygen, sulfur and titanium. Each element was scanned in 0.10 eV steps, and the element spectrum was fitted to the C1s peak (285.0 eV).

### 2.4. Permeate flux and salt rejection change

The permeate flux and salt rejection of the TNP-coated PA RO membranes were evaluated in a lab-scale cross-flow RO filtration system. More details about the system were described in our previous study [24]. In this study, 6 L of feed water containing 2,000 mg/L NaCl were used, and the effective membrane area was 22.4 cm<sup>2</sup> (3.3 cm × 6.8 cm) with a 0.3 cm channel height. The membrane performance test was performed with a cross-flow velocity of 8 cm s<sup>-1</sup> at 25°C. After membrane compaction for 30 min. at 15.5 bar, the permeated water was collected in a bottle for 20 min. under the same pressure. The permeate flux and salt rejection were calculated according to Eqs. (1) and (2), respectively, as follows:

$$J_w = \frac{V}{A \times t} \quad (1)$$

$$R_s = \left[ 1 - \frac{C_p}{C_f} \right] \times 100 \quad (2)$$

where in Eq. (1),  $J_w$  is the permeate flux (LMH, L m<sup>-2</sup> h<sup>-1</sup>);  $V$  is the permeated volume of water;  $A$  is the effective membrane

area ( $\text{m}^2$ );  $t$  is the measuring time (h), and in Eq. (2),  $R_s$  is the NaCl rejection percentage ratio;  $C_f$  is the conductivity of the feed water ( $\text{mS cm}^{-1}$ ), and  $C_p$  is the conductivity of the permeate ( $\text{mS cm}^{-1}$ ). A conductivity meter (Horiba, Japan) was used to evaluate the salt rejection.

### 2.5. Organic fouling test of the TNP-coated membrane compared with the bare PA RO membrane

The organic fouling characteristics of the TNP coated and commercial PA RO membranes were evaluated by measuring the flux changes. The membranes were mounted in a membrane cell of the cross-flow RO filtration system. The operating conditions were as follows: an initial flux of 35 LMH and a cross-flow velocity of  $4 \text{ cm s}^{-1}$  at  $25^\circ\text{C}$ . The feed water consisted of 10 mM  $\text{CaCl}_2$  and 1 mM NaCl. After the system was stabilized, 1,200 mg of humic acid were added to the feed water tank to adjust the humic acid concentration of the feed water to  $200 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$  of humic acid. The changes in the permeate flux were automatically recorded by computer every 30 min, and the fouling was carried out for 19 h.

An atomic force microscope (AFM, SPA-400, Seiko Instrument, Japan) was used to measure the interactive forces between the membrane surfaces and humic acid immobilized AFM tips (Nanosensors, CONTR, spring constant =  $0.2 \text{ N m}^{-1}$ ). Similarly to our previous studies [25,26], the humic acid-immobilized AFM tips were prepared by a surface chemical reaction of an amine-terminated AFM tip and 100 mM humic acid solution. A speed of  $0.1 \text{ mm s}^{-1}$  was applied to obtain the force–extension curves during the approach and retraction of the membrane surfaces from the humic acid-immobilized AFM tip. All experiments were carried out in water at room temperature. Approximately 50 approach/retract cycles were performed for each membrane surface collected.

## 3. Results and discussion

### 3.1. Characterization of the TNP membranes

Fig. 1 shows the SEM images of the TNP coated and bare PA RO membranes. As shown in Fig. 1(a), the size of the TNPs, which were deposited on the TNPRO2.0 with the sol-gel derived spray coating method, appeared to be 30–50 nm. In Figs. 1(b)–(e), the TNP-coated membranes show that the ridge and alley structure of the bare PA membrane (Fig. 1(f)) surface was covered with TNPs, and the TNP-coated area increased with the amount of sprayed  $\text{TiO}_2$  sol.

The TNP coating layer on the PA RO membrane was also examined by EDS analysis (Fig. 2). Fig. 2(a) shows the titanium weight concentration change of the TNP-coated membranes as a function of the TNP coating amount on the PA RO membrane. The titanium weight concentration of the TNP-coated membranes gradually increased from 1.2% to 5.1% as the increased coating amount of the  $\text{TiO}_2$  sol while the commercial PA RO membrane showed no titanium. EDS mapping analysis also revealed that the observed coating layer consists of  $\text{TiO}_2$ . Figs. 2(c)–(e) show the carbon, titanium and oxygen elemental mapping of the TNPRO2.0. Note that the red, green and yellow colors indicate carbon, titanium and oxygen, respectively, and the brightness difference of the color implies the amount of each element. While the carbon signal (Fig. 2(c)) was detected uniformly with no difference in brightness and in titanium and oxygen signals (Figs. 2(d) and (e)) showed various intensities for the signals, and its morphology was very similar with the coating layer on the TNPRO2.0 observed by SEM image (Fig. 2(b)).

Fig. 3 shows the XPS spectrum of the TNPRO2.0 compared with the bare PA RO membrane. As shown in Fig. 3, two main changes were observed in the XPS spectrum. First, a Ti and Ti–O peak was detected in the TNPRO2.0 after the TNP coating. The titanium spectrum of the TNP2.0 had four

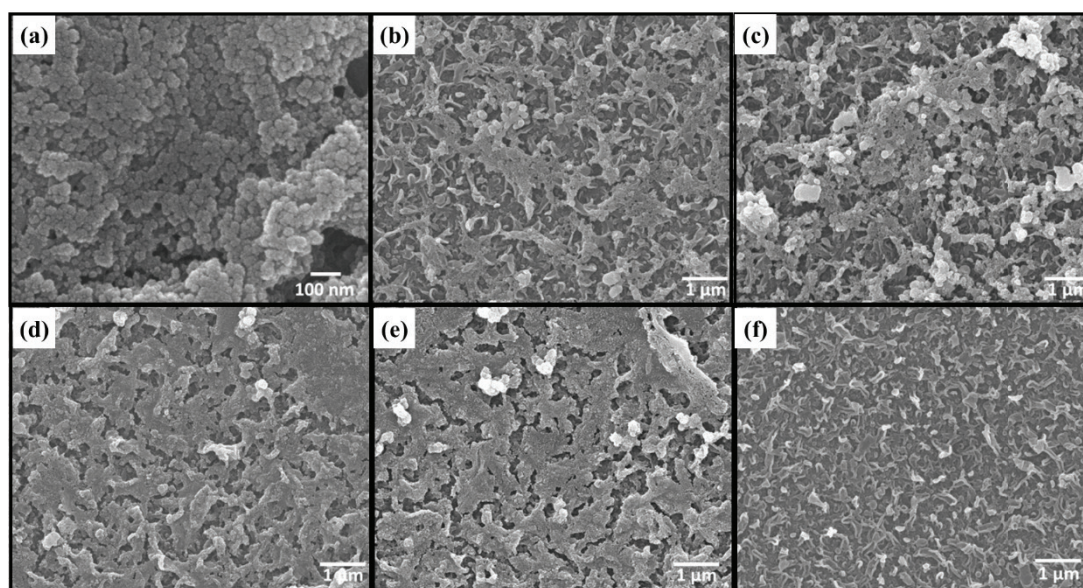


Fig. 1. SEM images of (a)  $\text{TiO}_2$  nanoparticles on the PA membrane (enlarged image of TNPRO2.0), (b) TNPRO0.5, (c) TNPRO1.0, (d) TNPRO1.5, (e) TNPRO2.0 and (f) bare PA (Note that TNPRO denotes the  $\text{TiO}_2$  nanoparticle-coated membrane and the number denotes the amount of sprayed  $\text{TiO}_2$  sol on the PA RO membrane).



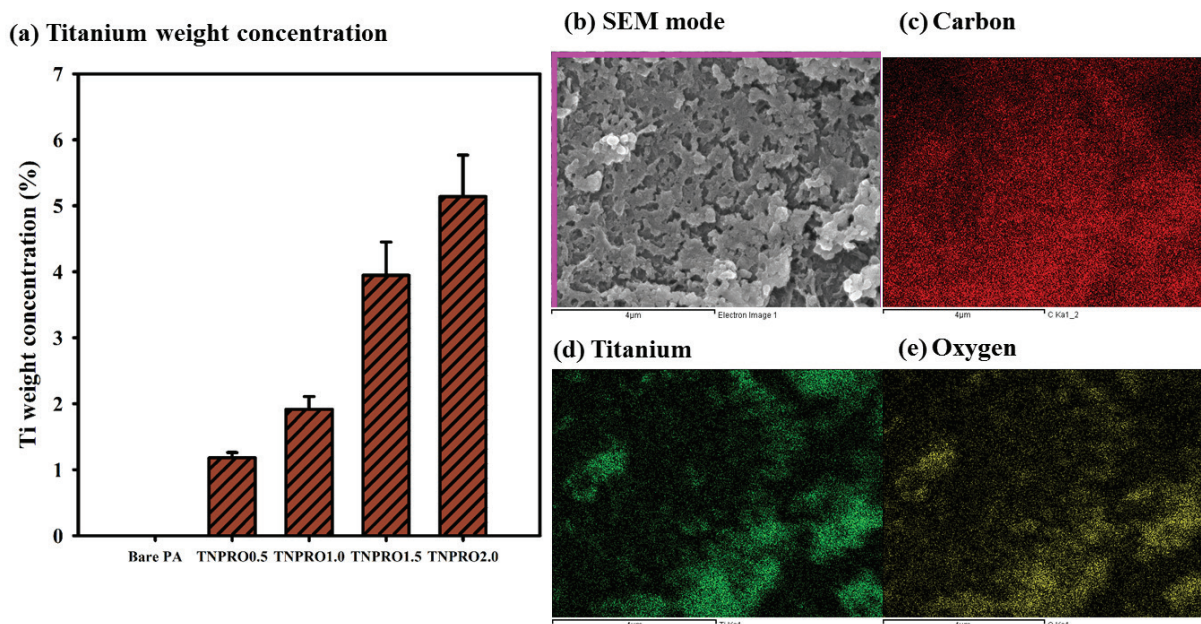


Fig. 2. EDS analysis results: (a) titanium weight concentration of the TNP membranes, (b) SEM image of the TNPRO2.0 membrane and its elemental mapping of (c) carbon, (d) titanium and (e) oxygen (Note that TNPRO denotes the  $\text{TiO}_2$  nanoparticle-coated membrane and the number denotes the amount of sprayed  $\text{TiO}_2$  sol on the PA RO membrane).

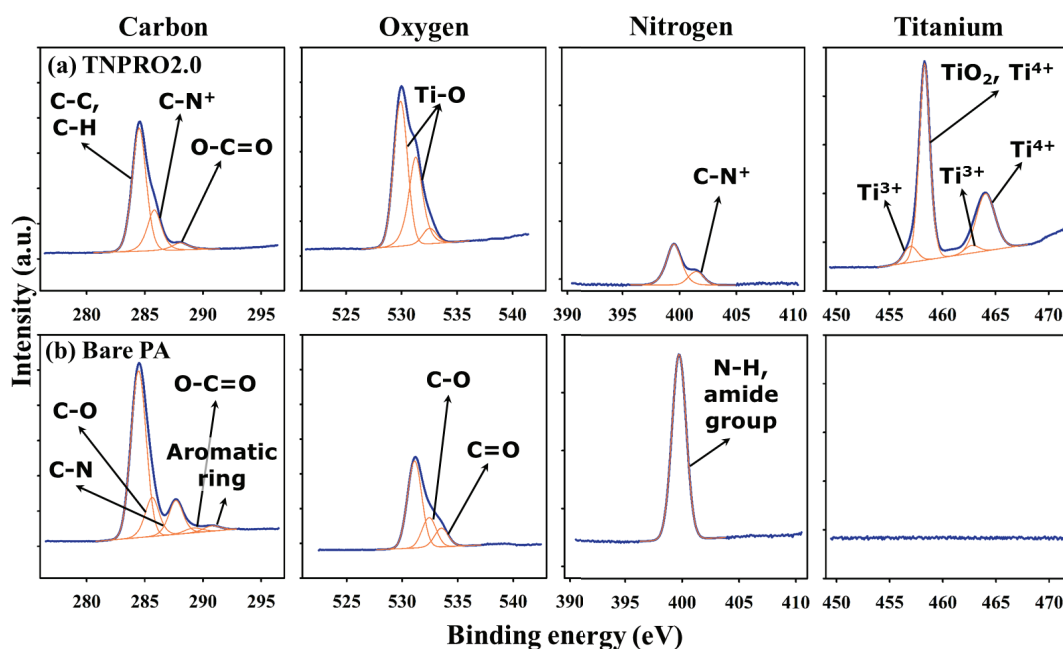


Fig. 3. Comparison of the X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy spectrum for (a) TNPRO2.0 and (b) bare PA membrane in terms of the carbon, oxygen, nitrogen and titanium (Note that TNPRO denotes the  $\text{TiO}_2$  nanoparticle-coated membrane, and the number denotes the amount of sprayed  $\text{TiO}_2$  sol on the PA RO membrane).

titanium peaks as follows: Ti 2p<sub>3/2</sub> (457–459 eV), Ti 2p<sub>1/2</sub> (463–464 eV),  $\text{Ti}^{3+}$  (457.0 and 462.8 eV), and  $\text{Ti}^{4+}$  (458.3 and 464.1 eV) [27,28]. In the oxygen spectrum, Ti–O peaks at 529.9 and 531.3 eV were found after the TNP coating [29,30]. These formations of the Ti and Ti–O peaks obviously indicate that

$\text{TiO}_2$  was synthesized from titanium butoxide by the base catalyzed sol-gel method. To confirm this result, attenuated total reflectance Fourier transform infrared (ATR-FTIR) analysis was performed (data not shown). In the range of 450–700  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ , several peaks, which might be attributed to

the Ti–O–Ti bond, were detected, and this also supports the formation of TiO<sub>2</sub> [31,32]. On the other hand, the TiO<sub>2</sub> layer coated on the PA surface blocks the XPS signal from the PA layer or weakens the peak intensity of PA layer. The C–O peaks (285.6 eV), C–N peak (287.7 eV), C=O peak (533.5 eV) and aromatic ring peak (290.9 eV) disappeared, and the peak intensities of C–C (284.5 eV), C–O (532.4 eV) and C–N (399.7 eV) were reduced after the TiO<sub>2</sub> coating [33–36]. It seems that the deposition of the TiO<sub>2</sub> coating layer reduces or hides the XPS signal of the PA layer due to the low XPS penetration depth. The peaks at 285.8 and 401.5 eV corresponding to the C–N<sup>+</sup> bond were generated in the TNPRO2.0 [36,37]. This might be the reason that the basic TiO<sub>2</sub> sol leads to the release of protons from the amide group of the PA layer.

Table 1 presents the contact angle and zeta potential of the TNP-coated membranes. The average contact angle of the TNP membranes gradually decreased from 23.6° to 5.8° as the coating amount of the TNP was increased while that of the bare PA was 43.6°. This result apparently indicates that the TNP coating formed a more hydrophilic surface on the TNP membrane. The zeta potentials of TNPRO0.5, TNPRO1.0, TNPRO1.5 and TNPRO2.0 were –25, –29.8, –30.9 and –40.1 mV, respectively. The TNP-coated membranes showed a greatly increased negative charge compared with the bare PA (–10.6 mV), and as the TiO<sub>2</sub> coating amount was increased, the surface zeta potential gradually decreased. This result is consistent with previous studies showing that the surface charge of TiO<sub>2</sub> is negative in a neutral or base condition [38–40]. Therefore, it could be interpreted that the surface coating of the TNP changed the charge of the PA RO membrane surface to negative due to the negative charge of the TiO<sub>2</sub>.

Fig. 4 shows the effect of the TNP coating on the permeate flux and salt rejection of the PA membrane. In our cross-flow RO membrane system, the permeate flux and salt rejection of the bare PA membrane was 27.6 LMH (blue dashed line) and 98.2% (gray dotted line), respectively. As shown in Fig. 4, while up to 2.0 mL of the TNP coating on the membrane showed only a negligible difference in the membrane performance (i.e., the permeate flux and salt rejection) compared with the bare PA membrane, TNPRO4.0 exhibited a decreased performance. This result could be explained by external concentration polarization caused by the deposited TNP on the PA membrane [7,41,42]. It seems that the large amount of TNPs on the TNPRO4.0 caused the accumulation

Table 1

Sessile drop contact angle and surface zeta potential of the TNP-coated membranes compared with the bare PA membrane (Note that TNPRO denotes the TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticle-coated membrane, and the number denotes the amount of sprayed TiO<sub>2</sub> sol on the PA RO membrane)

Membrane	Contact angle (°)	Zeta potential (mV)
TNPRO0.5	23.6 ± 0.9	–25.0 ± 1.6
TNPRO1.0	16.3 ± 2.7	–29.8 ± 1.2
TNPRO1.5	7.8 ± 2.4	–30.9 ± 0.9
TNPRO2.0	5.8 ± 2.2	–40.1 ± 0.4
Bare PA	43.6 ± 1.2	–10.6 ± 0.2

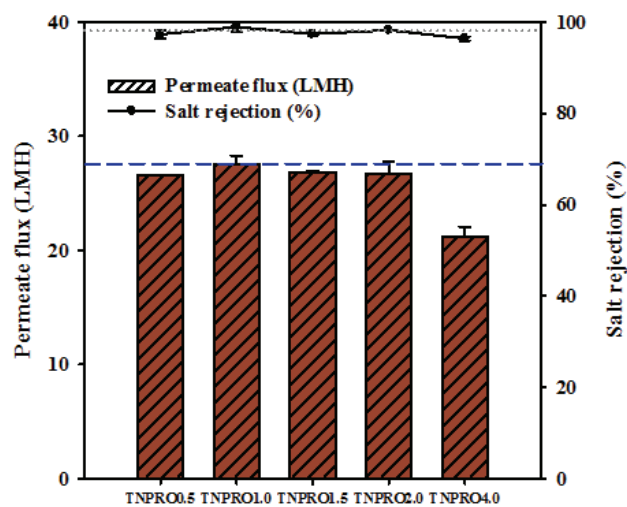


Fig. 4. Permeate flux and salt rejection change of the TNP-coated membranes as a function of the TNP coating amount on the PA membrane (gray dotted line: salt rejection of the bare PA; blue dashed line: permeate flux of the bare PA; the test was carried out in the cross-flow filtration system; cross-flow velocity and temperature: 8 cm s<sup>–1</sup> and 25°C; feed water: 2,000 mg/L NaCl; Note that TNPRO denotes the TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticle-coated membrane and the number denotes the amount of sprayed TiO<sub>2</sub> sol on the PA RO membrane).

of salt on the membrane surface and increased the osmotic pressure, consequently, decreasing the permeate flux and salt rejection rate, whereas the appropriate coating amount of TNPRO2.0 maintained the performance of the membrane.

The anti-fouling performance of TNPRO2.0 compared with the bare PA was evaluated under humic acid filtration condition and is shown in Fig. 5(a). As seen in Fig. 5(a), TNPRO2.0 showed only a 6% flux decline for 5 h, while the bare PA showed a 28% reduced flux. The normalized flux gap between the TNPRO2.0 and the bare PA was 26% at the end of the experiment (19 h). Because the accumulation of humic acid causes a permeate flux decline, Fig. 5(a) shows that a smaller quantity of humic acid was deposited on the TNPRO2.0 compared with the bare PA membrane. It is reported that a hydrophobic and less negatively charged membrane is easily fouled with humic acid due to the negative and hydrophobic surface property of the humic acid [43]. As presented in Table 1, the surface property of the membrane became more hydrophilic and more negatively charged, which consequently reduced the foulant–membrane interaction [9]. The interactive forces between the humic acid–tethered AFM tip and membrane surface of the TNPRO2.0 and the bare PA membranes clearly show this correlation (Fig. 5(b)). As shown in Fig. 5(b), during retraction, no interactive force (red circle) was found on the TNPRO2.0, while the bare PA showed a 0.15 nN pull-off force (black arrow). This result implies that the TNP coating on the PA membrane reduced the attractive force to humic acid. Therefore, the enhanced membrane surface property could be attributed to fouling resistance against humic acid. This result is consistent with a previous study [12]. The surface modified RO membrane by grafting PEG exhibited a fouling resistance due to the increased hydrophilicity and negative charge.

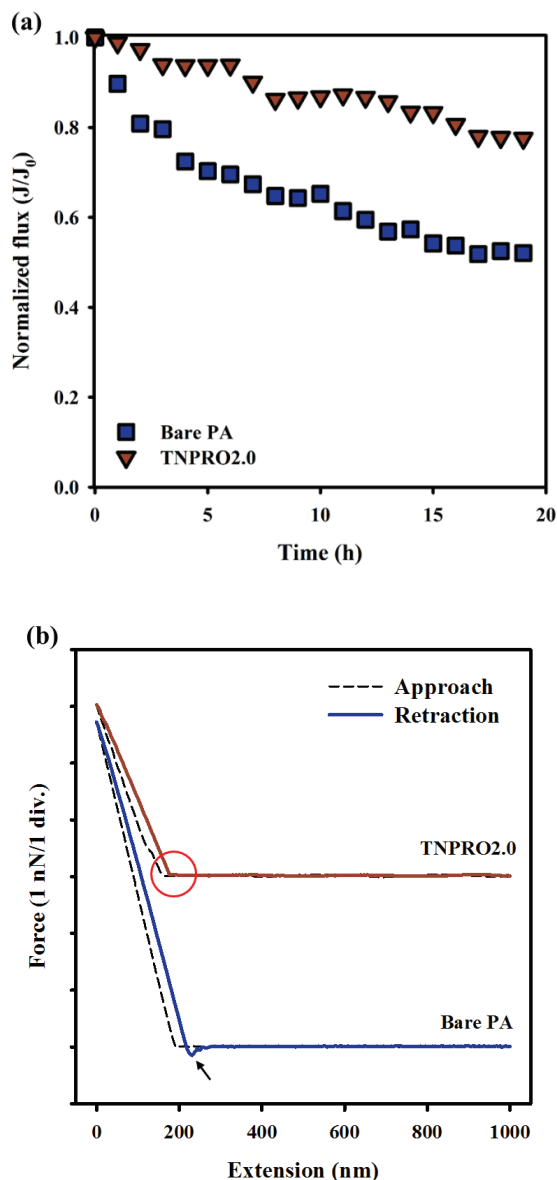


Fig. 5. Organic fouling property of the TNPRO2.0 membrane compared with the bare PA membrane (a) normalized flux change under humic acid filtration condition (Initial permeate flux: 35 LMH; feed water: 10 mM NaCl, 1 mM CaCl<sub>2</sub> and 200 mg/L humic acid; cross-flow velocity and temperature: 4 cm s<sup>-1</sup> and 25°C; time “0” means the dosing point of humic acid into the feed water; Note that TNPRO denotes the TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticle-coated membrane, and the number denotes the amount of sprayed TiO<sub>2</sub> sol on the PA RO membrane) (b) interactive force between the humic acid tethered AFM tip and the membrane surface.

#### 4. Conclusion

In this study, we propose a facile surface modification to fabricate a fouling resistant PA RO membrane with the TiO<sub>2</sub> sol-gel derived spray coating method. A TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticle solution was made by the base catalyzed sol-gel method. The results of SEM, EDS and XPS confirmed that the surface

of the PA RO membrane was successfully coated with TNPs. The TNP-coated PA RO membrane maintained its permeate flux and salt rejection when 2.0 mL of TiO<sub>2</sub> sol was coated onto the membrane surface and exhibited an increased hydrophilicity and negatively charged surface property. These surface changes reduced the interactive force between humic acid and the membrane surfaces, consequently, resulting in a 26% less flux reduction than that of the bare PA RO membrane during 19 h of humic acid fouling.

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