1	A Critical Review on Thin-film Nanocomposite Membranes with
2	Interlayered Structure: Mechanisms, Recent Developments, and
3	Environmental Applications
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### 23 ABSTRACT

24 The separation properties of polyamide reverse osmosis and nanofiltration membranes, 25 widely applied for desalination and water reuse, are constrained by the permeability-selectivity upper bound. Although thin-film nanocomposite (TFN) membranes 26 incorporating nanomaterials exhibit enhanced water permeance, their rejection is only 27 28 moderately improved or even impaired due to agglomeration of nanomaterials and formation 29 of defects. A novel type of TFN membranes featuring an interlayer of nanomaterials (TFNi) 30 has emerged in recent years. These novel TFNi membranes show extraordinary improvement 31 in water flux (e.g., up to an order of magnitude enhancement) along with better selectivity. 32 Such enhancements can be achieved by a wide selection of nanomaterials, ranging from 33 nanoparticles, one-/two-dimensional materials to interfacial coatings. The use of nano-structured interlayers not only improve the formation of polyamide rejection layers but 34 35 also provide an optimized water transport path, which enables TFNi membranes to 36 potentially overcome the longstanding tradeoff between membrane permeability and 37 selectivity. Furthermore, TFNi membranes can potentially enhance the removal of heavy metals and micropollutants, which is critical for many environmental applications. This 38 39 review critically examines the recent developments of TFNi membranes and discusses the 40 underlying mechanisms and design criteria. Their potential environmental applications are 41 also highlighted.



### 45 INTRODUCTION

46 Global water scarcity has been recognized as one of the most critical challenges in the new millennium,<sup>1-3</sup> and it has been estimated that half of the world's population will be living in 47 water-stressed regions by 2025.<sup>4</sup> Membrane-based separation technologies, such as reverse 48 49 osmosis (RO) and nanofiltration (NF), play increasingly important roles in efficient water production, reuse, and desalination.<sup>2, 5-7</sup> RO and NF membranes used for seawater 50 51 desalination and water reuse generally have a thin-film composite (TFC) structure that 52 consists of an ultra-thin polyamide selective layer of approximately 10-400 nm in thickness supported by a porous substrate.<sup>5, 6</sup> TFC membranes are formed by an interfacial 53 polymerization (IP) reaction, typically between *m*-phenylenediamine (MPD) or piperazine 54 55 (PIP) in an aqueous phase with trimesoyl chloride (TMC) in an organic phase. These 56 membranes have a wide range of operating pHs (e.g., pH 2-11) and reasonable thermal stability (up to 60 °C).<sup>8,9</sup> Unfortunately, their separation performances are constrained by a 57 permeability-selectivity trade-off known as the "upper bound".<sup>10-12</sup> Consequently, TFC 58 membranes often have relatively low water permeance (1-20 L m<sup>-2</sup>h<sup>-1</sup>bar<sup>-1</sup>) in order to 59 maintain the desired selectivity.<sup>10</sup> Moreover, membrane fouling and susceptibility to chlorine 60 61 attack are major issues that can deteriorate membrane integrity, decrease its life span and/or increase maintenance cost.<sup>13, 14</sup> These limitations of TFC membranes motivate membrane 62 scientists to develop next-generation high-performance RO and NF membranes.<sup>6, 12, 15, 16</sup> 63

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65 Over the past decade, TFC membranes incorporating nanomaterials have been extensively studied (Figure 1). This approach has been shown to successfully enhance water 66 permeance<sup>17-26</sup> and improve anti(bio)fouling properties.<sup>24-35</sup> Nanomaterials can be 67 incorporated into polyamide rejection layers by adding them in the monomer (MPD or TMC) 68 solutions to prepare thin-film nanocomposite membranes (TFN, Figure 1a).<sup>16, 36</sup> Alternatively, 69 they can be added into the substrate to prepare thin-film composite membranes with a 70 nanocomposite substrate (TFCn, Figure 1b).<sup>6</sup> Hoek and coworkers<sup>17</sup> pioneered the concept of 71 TFN in 2007 by incorporating porous zeolite nanoparticles (NPs) of 0.4 nm internal pores in 72

73 the polyamide rejection layer of an RO membrane. The resulting membrane showed an 74 enhancement of 81% in water permeance with nearly unchanged salt rejection compared to the unmodified membrane. Various other nanomaterials, 75 such as silica, TiO<sub>2</sub>, metal-organic-frameworks (MOFs), and Ag, have also been reported for TFN membranes.<sup>16,</sup> 76 <sup>37, 38</sup> In parallel, Pendergast et al.<sup>39, 40</sup> incorporated silica and zeolite nanoparticles into a 77 polysulfone (PSF) substrate to fabricate TFCn membrane with higher water permeance and 78 improved mechanical stability. Likewise, Ma et al.41 demonstrated improved water 79 80 permeance and reduced internal concentration polarization for a TFCn forward osmosis (FO) 81 membrane with hydrophilic and porous zeolite nanoparticles loaded in its substrate. These 82 works have been followed by a slate of additional investigations reporting the use of other nanomaterials, such as TiO<sub>2</sub>,<sup>42</sup> carbon nanotubes (CNTs)<sup>43-45</sup> and graphene oxide (GO).<sup>46</sup> 83 Several TFN membranes have also been successfully commercialized.<sup>47-49</sup> Figure 2 presents 84 the performance enhancement factors in terms of water permeance (A value) and water/salt 85 86 selectivity (A/B) for TFN and TFCn membranes reported in the recent literature. The majority 87 of these membranes have up to 200% enhancement in water permeance. Nevertheless, 88 enhancement in selectivity A/B is far less obvious, with many membranes even suffering 89 from compromised selectivity due to the aggregation of nanomaterials or impaired polyamide integrity.16, 46, 50-54 90

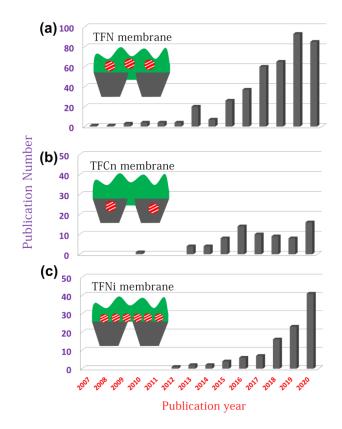
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92 Growing interests have been focused on fabricating thin-film nanocomposite membranes with 93 an interlayer (TFNi), where nanomaterials or coating layers can be uniformly deposited on the substrate before forming the polyamide layer. In 2015, Karan et al.<sup>55</sup> fabricated TFNi 94 95 membranes via introducing a sacrificial layer of cadmium hydroxide nanostrands for 96 controlling the rate of IP reaction. They demonstrated a TFNi membrane with two orders of 97 magnitude higher water flux than that of commercial membranes. A slate of other nanomaterials, from nanoparticles (e.g., TiO2, <sup>56</sup> Ag<sup>57</sup>), 1D (e.g., CNTs<sup>58-60</sup>), and 2D (e.g., 98 GO<sup>61, 62</sup> and MOFs<sup>63-66</sup>) materials to other interfacial coating materials (e.g., polydopamine<sup>67</sup> 99 and polyelectrolytes<sup>68</sup>), have also been reported for making TFNi membranes based on 100

101 surface coating,<sup>67</sup> covalent bonding,<sup>69</sup> co-deposition,<sup>70</sup> *in situ* growth,<sup>71</sup> evaporation,<sup>65</sup> etc..<sup>59</sup>
102 Despite the growing number of publications on TFNi membranes (Figure 1c) and their
103 dramatically enhanced separation performance (Figure 2), a critical review of TFNi
104 membranes and their potential applications is not yet available.

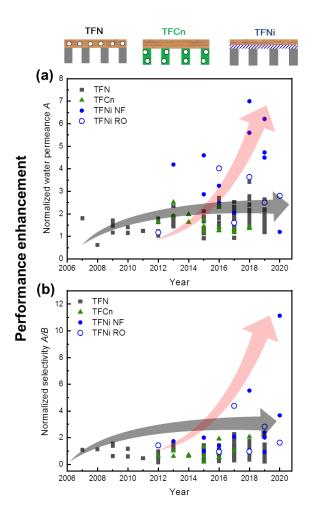
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106 This paper provides a comprehensive review of the recent development of TFNi RO and NF 107 membranes. The mechanisms responsible for their enhanced water transport and solute 108 rejection are critically analyzed. The methods and design principles for high-performance 109 TFNi membranes are highlighted, and their environmental applications are systematically 110 assessed.



112 **Figure 1.** Recent publications of TFN, TFCn and TFNi membranes. Data for year 2020 is

- 113 incomplete. All data were obtained by searching the keyword "thin film nanocomposite 114 membrane" in the database of Scopus, with further manual screening to differentiate the types
- 115 of TFN, TFCn and TFNi membranes.



**Figure 2.** Performance enhancement factors of TFN, TFCn and TFNi ( $\bigcirc$  symbol representing for NF and  $\bigcirc$  representing for RO) over the recent years: (a) *A* value and (b) *A/B* value normalized by the respective values of the control TFC membrane without the inclusion of nanomaterials. The *A/B* values were based on simple salts (NaCl for RO membranes and Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> for NF membranes).

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## 123 CONVENTIONAL TFN AND TFCn MEMBRANES

While a comprehensive review of conventional TFN and TFCn membranes is beyond the scope of the current paper and can be found elsewhere,<sup>16, 37, 38, 72, 73</sup> a brief discussion of these membranes and the relevant transport mechanisms are helpful to facilitate the better understanding of TFNi membranes. Table 1 classifies TFN and TFCn membranes based on the types of the incorporated nanofillers (e.g., solid, porous or sacrificial fillers). Solid nanofillers such as silica,<sup>50, 51, 53, 74</sup> silver,<sup>75</sup> TiO<sub>2</sub><sup>76, 77</sup>, ZnO<sup>78</sup> and 2D-nanoclay<sup>79</sup> have been shown to enhance the permeance of TFN membranes by improving their hydrophilicity<sup>16</sup>

and/or creating interfacial nanochannels between the nanofillers and the polyamide matrix.<sup>57,</sup> 131 <sup>58</sup> In comparison, porous nanofillers such as microporous zeolite, <sup>17, 80</sup> mesoporous silica, <sup>18, 54,</sup> 132 <sup>81</sup> MOFs,<sup>23, 82-84</sup> covalent-organic-frameworks (COFs),<sup>85</sup> aquaporins,<sup>86-88</sup> and artificial water 133 channels<sup>89</sup> can provide additional selective water channels through their defined 134 micro/mesopores to further enhance separation performance.<sup>16, 17, 37, 73</sup> Sacrificial nanofillers, 135 which are etched after membrane formation, can also be used to generate nanosized voids or 136 channels in the polyamide rejection layer to enhance its permeance.<sup>90</sup> Enhanced formation of 137 nanovoids of several tens of nm in size can also be achieved by the creation of nanosized gas 138 bubbles.<sup>91-93</sup> 139

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The solute rejection and thus selectivity of TFN membranes are strongly dependent on the 141 properties of the incorporated nanofillers.<sup>16</sup> It is believed that highly defined interior channels 142 of some porous nanofillers (e.g., zeolite,<sup>17</sup> MOFs,<sup>83</sup> COFs<sup>85</sup> and aquaporins<sup>94</sup>) can 143 significantly enhance membrane selectivity due to their size exclusion effect.<sup>6, 7, 16, 37, 73</sup> While 144 their nanochannels are large enough for the transport of water, a solute whose size is greater 145 146 than the channel size cannot transport through the interior channels. Solute rejection can also 147 be improved by additional solute-nanofiller interactions such as enhanced electrostatic repulsion of anions by negatively charged nanofillers (e.g., silica,<sup>18</sup> Ag,<sup>95</sup> GO<sup>52</sup>, and MOF<sup>96</sup>). 148 Similarly, the use of some hydrophilic nanomaterials (e.g., polydopamine, hydrophilic MOFs, 149 etc.) has been shown to improve the selectivity against hydrophobic compounds such as 150 endocrine disruptor compounds (EDCs) as a result of suppressed hydrophobic interaction.<sup>97-99</sup> 151 In addition to interior channels, selective interfacial nanochannels can also be created to 152 achieve enhanced solute rejection.<sup>57</sup> Nevertheless, despite the presence of selective 153 154 nanochannels (i.e., interior channels for porous fillers and interfacial channels for both porous and solid fillers), many TFN membranes show little enhancement in selectivity or even suffer 155 from reduced solute rejection (Figure 2b) as a result of impaired membrane integrity caused 156 by aggregations of NPs<sup>52, 54</sup> and/or defects formation.<sup>58</sup> Compared to typical interior channels 157 and interfacial channels of sub-nm to a few nm, nanovoids or channels created by sacrificial 158

fillers often have much larger sizes (e.g.,  $\sim$  or > 10 nm), making them less selective. For example, Yang et al.<sup>90</sup> incorporated sacrificial copper nanoparticles (CuNPs) in a polyamide rejection layer. The nanovoids resulted from the subsequent acid etching led to a 3-fold increase in water flux but at the expense of slightly decrease NaCl rejection.

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164 In a similar fashion, solid, porous and sacrificial nanofillers can be incorporated into the support layer to prepare TFCn membranes (Table 1).<sup>43, 46, 51, 76, 100</sup> Like TFN membranes, 165 TFCn membranes can achieve significant enhancement in membrane permeance but often 166 show similar or even reduced solute rejection compared to their respective controls without 167 the loading of nanofillers.<sup>51, 101</sup> In addition to RO, TFCn membranes are often reported for 168 forward osmosis (FO) or pressure retarded osmosis (PRO), since the enhanced hydrophilicity 169 170 and porosity of the substrate is favorable to reduce the structural parameter (i.e., the S value) and to mitigate internal concentration polarization (ICP).<sup>41, 43</sup> Studies<sup>39, 40, 102</sup> also reported 171 172 enhanced membrane mechanical stability for some TFCn membranes due to the interaction 173 between the nanofillers and the polymeric matrix of the substrate.

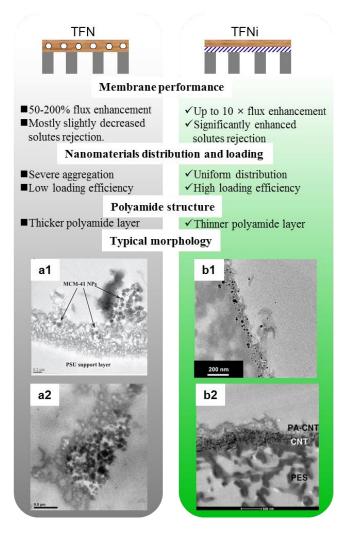
# **Table 1.** Classifications of different nanocomposite membranes.

	Type of nanofillers	Membrane structure	Examples	Transport mechanism	General membrane performance
TFN	Solid fillers		ZnO, <sup>103</sup> Ag, <sup>95</sup> silica <sup>104, 105</sup> and TiO <sub>2</sub> . <sup>106, 107</sup>	Nanofiller-induced interfacial channels; potentially improved selectivity due to enhanced size exclusion, hydrophilicity and/or charge repulsion	Enhancement of permeance by up to 200%. Despite the potential of selective interior and/or interfacial
	Porous fillers		Zeolite, $^{17, 80}$ MCM-41, $^{18, 54}$ CNT, $^{108, 109}$ MOFs, $^{82, 83}$ COFs, $^{85}$ $\beta$ -cyclodextrin, $^{110}$ and aquaporins. $^{86, 87}$	Selective interior channels in addition to the possible presence of interfacial channels; potentially improved selectivity due to enhanced size exclusion, hydrophilicity and/or charge repulsion	channels, TFN membranes often show no major improvements in solute rejection (or even deteriorated rejection) due to aggregations of NPs
	Sacrificial fillers (Nanovoid formation)		Enhanced nanobubble formation. <sup>91-93</sup>	Relatively large (and non-selective) nanovoids of ~ or > 10 nm in size; enhanced water transport	and/or formation of defects in the polyamide rejection layer.
TFCn	Solid fillers		ZnO, <sup>111</sup> Ag, <sup>75</sup> silica <sup>50, 74</sup> and TiO <sub>2</sub> . <sup>112</sup>	Enhanced hydrophilicity of substrate	Enhanced permeance, often with similar or deteriorated
	Porous fillers		Zeolite, <sup>40, 41</sup> MCM-41, <sup>51</sup> CNT <sup>43, 113</sup> and MOFs. <sup>101</sup>	Improved porosity and/or hydrophilicity of substrate	solute rejection for RO membranes. Reduced <i>S</i>
	Sacrificial fillers (Nanovoids)		Etching of MOF <sup>100</sup> and CaCO <sub>3</sub> . <sup>114</sup>	Improved porosity of substrate	value and thus ICP for FO and PRO membranes.
TFNi	NPs, in the form of solid, porous and sacrificial nanofillers		TiO <sub>2</sub> , <sup>115</sup> Ag <sup>57, 71</sup>	Mitigated NPs aggregation; enhanced hydrophilicity; additional water pathways and reduced membrane	Enhancement of water permeance by up to an order of magnitude with

	Zeolite, <sup>116</sup> MOFs <sup>63, 64</sup>	hydraulic resistance; improved formation of polyamide (see Table 2)	simultaneously enhanced solute rejection
	CuNPs <sup>90</sup>		
Nanotubes (1D)	CNTs <sup>58, 59, 117, 118</sup>	Gutter effect (analogue to that for gas separation <sup>119, 120</sup> ) ) by reducing water transport pathways in polyamide layer;	
2D materials or interfacial coatings	PDA, <sup>67</sup> TA/Fe <sup>3+</sup> , <sup>121</sup> polyphenol/PEI <sup>122</sup> , GO <sup>123</sup> and MXene <sup>124</sup>	improved interfacial channels with higher aspect ratio of the incorporated nanomaterials; improved formation of polyamide (see Table 2)	
Interfacial voids	Sacrificial nanostrands <sup>55</sup>	Significantly reduced hydraulic resistance	

### 175 MECHANISTIC INSIGHTS INTO TFNi MEMBRANES

176 Figure 3 shows a comparison of TFNi and TFN membranes. Conventional TFN membranes 177 face a critical limitation of little or limited improvement in water/solute selectivity (also see Figure 2). The random blending of nanomaterials in monomer solutions for TFN (or in 178 179 substrates for TFCn) can cause severe agglomeration of these nanofillers (see Figure 3a1,2 and Ref. <sup>18, 19, 53, 71, 125-127</sup>), which not only restricts their loading efficiency<sup>71</sup> but also results 180 in defects formation.<sup>73</sup> These challenges can be effectively overcome by incorporating 181 182 nanofillers as a more ordered interlayer between the substrate and the rejection layer for the case of TFNi. For example, interlayers of AgNPs formed by *in situ* reduction (Figure 3b1)<sup>57</sup> 183 or CNTs prepared by vacuum filtration (Figure 3b2)<sup>128</sup> present a more uniform loading of 184 185 nanomaterials, thereby leading to significant enhancement in solute rejection of the resulting 186 TFNi membranes. Furthermore, TFNi membranes often exhibit remarkable improvement in water permeance (sometimes by an order of magnitude, see Figure 2),<sup>55, 117, 121, 129</sup> which can 187 188 be attributed to (1) the optimized transport pathways due to the inclusion of a high-permeability interlayer (i.e., the gutter effect<sup>119, 130-132</sup>) and (2) the improved interfacial 189 190 polymerization conditions and thus the formation of better-quality polyamide rejection layers (e.g., thinner layers with higher cross-linking degrees<sup>55, 57, 129</sup>). This section analyzes the 191 detailed mechanisms responsible for enhanced separation performance of TFNi membranes. 192



**Figure 3.** Comparison of TFN and TFNi membranes with respect to membrane separation performance, loading and distribution of nanomaterials, and the corresponding polyamide structures. Cross-sections of some representative TFN and TFNi membranes are shown in transmission electron micrographs. The following parts are reprinted with copyright permission: Part 3a1 from Ref.,<sup>18</sup> Part 3a2 from Ref.<sup>19</sup>, Part 3b1 from Ref.,<sup>57</sup> and Part 3b2 from Ref.<sup>128</sup>

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## 201 Effect of interlayer on transport pathway - the "gutter mechanism"

Despite that numerous experimental studies have demonstrated enhanced water permeance for TFNi membranes (Figure 2),<sup>18, 19, 53, 71, 125-127</sup> this phenomenon is somewhat counterintuitive at the first glance. Based on the resistance-in-series model,<sup>133, 134</sup> the inclusion of an additional layer would have increased the overall hydraulic resistance. For instance, coating a polydopamine layer on a membrane surface decreases its water permeance.<sup>98, 135</sup> Nevertheless, the use of polydopamine as an interlayer can lead to an 208 opposite effect of greatly improved water permeance.<sup>132, 136, 137</sup> These contradictory results 209 can be reconciled by recognizing the effect of a high-permeability interlayer on shortening 210 the transport path through the low-permeability rejection layer (Figure 4a,b). Although this 211 "gutter" effect has been well documented for gas separation membranes <sup>119, 120, 130, 131</sup>, it has 212 been far less discussed in the context of TFNi membranes used for water filtration.<sup>132</sup>

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A recent modelling study on the role of substrates by Ramon et al.<sup>138</sup> can provide some 214 215 important insights on the transport of water in conventional TFC polyamide membranes. 216 These authors argue that water molecules, after passing through the polyamide rejection layer, 217 have to be collected by the pores in the substrate, i.e., the polymeric matrix of the substrate is 218 assumed to be impermeable. Accordingly, water collected by polyamide far away from a pore 219 region follows a slanted direction through the polyamide layer (Figure 4a), resulting in an 220 effective transport distance that could be an order of magnitude higher than the thickness of the polyamide layer.<sup>138</sup> Ramon's model predicts that substrates with a greater number of 221 222 smaller surface pores are preferred to reduce the transport distance through the polyamide layer and thus increase the water permeance,<sup>138</sup> which has been experimentally confirmed by 223 Jiang et al.<sup>139</sup> In this regard, the use of a porous interlayer can effectively meet these criteria 224 and therefore enhance the overall transport efficiency.<sup>58-60, 132, 140, 141</sup> 225

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While Ramon's model<sup>138</sup> did not explicitly include the effect of the interlayer, the gutter 227 228 effect has been more systematically investigated through numerical simulations by Kattula et al.<sup>119</sup> for gas separation membranes. According to their simulations, the inclusion of a 229 230 high-permeability gutter layer reduces the effective transport distance through the 231 low-permeability selective layer by making the transport path less slanted (Figure 4b). 232 Intuitively, the gutter effect can be better understood using the concept of the least resistance 233 path, i.e., water transport between any two points assumes a path with the lowest overall 234 hydraulic resistance. Since this overall resistance is contributed by both the transport distance 235 in the selective layer and that in the gutter layer with the latter being more permeable than the

former, it is preferred for water to take a shorter transport path in the selective layer (i.e., closer to the normal direction) at the expense of longer transport path in the gutter layer (i.e., the incident angle  $\theta_1$  < the refracted angle  $\theta_2$  in Figure 4b).

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Although Ramon's <sup>138</sup> and Kattula's <sup>119</sup> models provide useful insights, modelling of the 240 gutter effect is not yet available in the context of TFNi RO and NF membranes. In view of the 241 242 critical role of the gutter effect, quantitative models need to be developed for the optimization 243 of these water filtration membranes, e.g., with respect to the permeability and thickness of the 244 interlayer. Presumably, the permeability of the interlayer must be far greater than that of the 245 polyamide layer to prevent excessive hydraulic resistance through the gutter. The thickness of 246 the interlayer also needs to be optimized to provide effective guttering without suffering severe hydraulic resistance of the gutter layer itself. Future studies should confirm these 247 248 design principles through both systematic theoretical modelling and experimental validation. 249 Furthermore, the role of the interlayer on solute transport and thus on water-solute selectivity 250 needs to be investigated systematically.

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252 A detailed survey of literature data (Figure 2a) further reveals that the TFNi strategy tends to be more effective in enhancing water permeance for interlayered NF membranes formed by 253 PIP and TMC (up to an order of magnitude enhancement <sup>121, 129, 142, 143</sup>) compared to 254 interlayered RO membranes formed by MPD and TMC (1 - 3 fold enhancement<sup>57, 68, 144</sup>). This 255 observation is contradictory to Ramon's <sup>138</sup> and Kattula's <sup>119</sup> models (Figure 4c) that would 256 predict the greater influence of interlayers (or substrate properties) for membranes with 257 258 thinner rejection layers, noting that the intrinsic polyamide film thicknesses for RO membranes (approximately 10 - 20 nm<sup>142, 143</sup>) are usually smaller than those of NF 259 membranes (typically on the order of 100 nm<sup>121, 129</sup>). This disparate observation can be 260 potentially explained by the nanovoid-containing structure of polyamide films formed via the 261 262 interfacial polymerization of MPD and TMC - the state-of-the-art chemistry for polyamide RO membranes (Figure 4d and Refs.<sup>91, 142, 143, 145, 146</sup>). Originated from interfacial degassing 263

(e.g., the release of  $CO_2$  gas bubbles from the  $HCO_3$ -rich MPD solution under the combined 264 effects of interfacial heating and H<sup>+</sup> generation during interfacial polymerization<sup>91, 92, 147-149</sup>), 265 these nanovoids with negligible hydraulic resistance would provide a self-guttered effect, 266 267 rendering any additional gutter layers less effective in further enhancing the water permeance. 268 In contrast, polyamide layers formed by the PIP/TMC chemistry typically contain fewer or no 269 interior voids, resulting in a more marked gutter effect with the TFNi approach. Future 270 studies should systematically investigate the detailed mechanisms involved in both 271 MPD/TMC and PIP/TMC chemistries for the optimization of separation performance of 272 TFNi membranes.



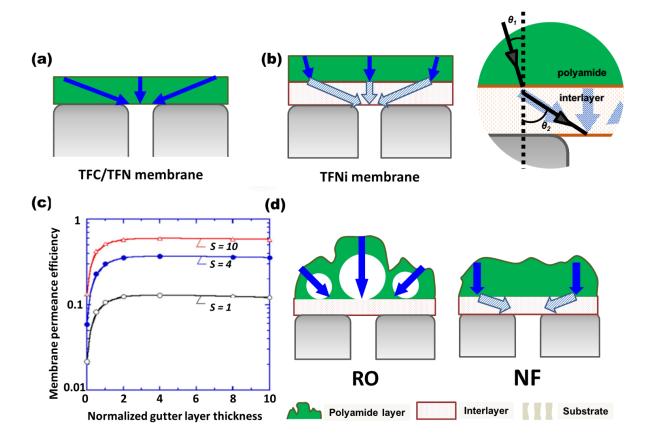




Figure 4. The gutter effect in TFNi membranes. (a) Schematic illustration of water transport path in a TFC/TFN membrane. The average transport path through the polyamide layer is significantly longer than the thickness of the polyamide layer. (b) Schematic illustration of water transport path in a TFNi membrane. To minimize the overall hydraulic resistance, water will take a shorter path in the less permeable polyamide layer at the expense of a longer path in the more permeable interlayer, causing the incident  $\theta_1$  to be greater than the refracted angle  $\theta_2$ . (c) Simulation of the gutter effect for gas separation membranes. The horizontal axis

282 shows the normalized gutter layer thickness, i.e., the ratio of gutter layer thickness over the 283 substrate pore radius. The vertical axis shows the membrane permeance efficiency, i.e., the 284 permeance of the composite membrane over the ideal permeance of the selective layer (with 285 the latter obtained assuming all the transport paths are normal to the selective layer). The simulation is performed for three different scaled selective layer thickness (S = 1, 4 and 10), 286 287 where S is the ratio of selective layer thickness over the substrate pore radius. Other 288 simulation conditions include: substrate porosity = 1% and the gutter layer is 10 times as 289 permeable as the selective layer. (d) Schematic illustration of the gut effect in RO and NF TFNi membranes, respectively. Figure 4c was modified from reference<sup>119</sup> with copyright 290 291 permission.

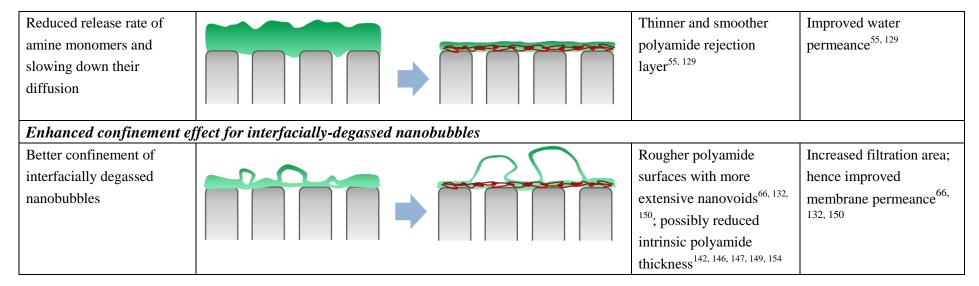
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# 293 Effect of interlayer on the formation of polyamide rejection layer

In addition to the important gutter effect, the interlayer can also significantly change the formation of the polyamide rejection layer due to its influence on the interfacial polymerization reaction via (1) changing the reaction interface,<sup>55, 121</sup> (2) affecting the uptake and release of the amine monomers,<sup>55, 121</sup> and/or (3) enhancing the confinement effect to interfacially degassed nanobubbles.<sup>150</sup> These effects and their impact on the physicochemical properties on the TFNi membranes, summarized in Table 2, are discussed in detail in this section.

# **Table 2.** The effect of interlayer on the formation of polyamide rejection layer.

Role of interlayer	Schematic illustration		Effect on membrane	Effect on separation	
	TFC	TFNi	morphology/chemistry	performance	
Improved reaction interface	?				
Improved uniformity, reduced surface pore size, reduced surface roughness, and/or enhanced surface hydrophilicity	Defect	Statesters	Minimizing defects in polyamide rejection layers <sup>121, 122</sup>	Improved selectivity <sup>151,</sup> <sup>152</sup>	
Reduced surface pore size			Eliminating intrusion of polyamide into substrate pores <sup>117, 121, 132</sup>	Enhanced water permeance by preventing the "bottleneck" effect <sup>117,</sup> <sup>121, 132</sup>	
Improved interfacial stability	Potential detach		Reactive/functional interlayers firmly bound to the polyamide rejection layer with improved stability <sup>67, 69</sup>	Improved selectivity <sup>67,</sup> 122, 136	
Enhanced sorption of amin	e monomers				
Increased effective amine monomer concentration			Enhanced polyamide crosslinking degree <sup>132</sup>	Improved selectivity <sup>57,</sup> 153	
Controlled release of amine	monomers			1	



304 Improved reaction interface. The inclusion of an interlayer can significantly change the properties of the reaction interface, e.g., improved uniformity, reduced surface pore size, 305 reduced surface roughness, and/or enhanced surface hydrophilicity.<sup>59, 124, 150, 151</sup> These 306 307 improved surface properties are beneficial to minimize the formation of defects in the 308 polyamide rejection layer and thus improve the selectivity of the resulting TFNi membranes (Table 2).<sup>117, 121, 151</sup> In addition, the shift of the reaction interface and the smaller surface pore 309 size can prevent the intrusion of polyamide into the substrate pores (Table 2).<sup>117, 121</sup> In 310 311 contrast, the intrusion of polyamide into substrate pores have been reported for conventional TFC membranes (particularly when relatively large substrate pores are used),<sup>117, 118, 121, 149, 155</sup> 312 which can present a "bottleneck" effect to significantly reduce their water permeance.<sup>121</sup> 313

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315 In some cases, the functional groups introduced to the interlayer can also participate in the interfacial polymerization reaction [e.g., the reaction between -OH groups of PDA and 316 317 polyvinyl alcohol (PVA) with TMC to form ester bonds], which tends to improve membrane rejection.<sup>151, 152</sup> In view of the poor interfacial stability of conventional TFC membranes (due 318 319 to the lack of chemical bonding between the polyamide layer and the substrate and their different swelling tendance<sup>67</sup>), the use of a reactive/functional interlayer can be effective in 320 321 address this problem. For example, several studies have reported the effective use of polydopamine<sup>67, 69, 132, 136, 156</sup> and PVA<sup>151, 152, 157</sup> to effectively enhance the interfacial strength. 322 Reactive/functional interlayers can firmly attach the polyamide rejection layer to the substrate 323 through covalent bonding,<sup>158, 159</sup> hydrogen bonding<sup>69, 160</sup>, and/or electrostatic attraction,<sup>68, 161</sup> 324 thereby enhancing the membrane performance stability in terms of water flux and salt 325 rejection.<sup>67, 162</sup> Future studies should further explore the tailoring of physical binding and 326 327 chemical bonding of the interlayer to the polyamide layer and to the substrate.

328

329 *Enhanced sorption of amine monomers.* Recent studies show that some interlayer materials 330 (e.g., polyphenol <sup>121, 122</sup>, polydopamine<sup>69</sup> and polyvinyl alcohol<sup>151, 152</sup>) can significantly 331 increase the sorption of amine monomers, sometimes by orders of magnitude.<sup>121</sup> The 332 enhanced uptake of MPD or PIP monomers can be attributed to the enhanced hydrophilic interaction<sup>57, 163</sup> or chemical bonding.<sup>67, 121</sup> According to the existing literature on interfacial 333 334 polymerization, increasing the effective amine monomer concentration is beneficial to form a more highly crosslinked rejection layer.<sup>68, 149, 164, 165</sup> In addition, the enhanced amine uptake 335 may further minimize the formation of defects in the rejection layer.<sup>55</sup> Indeed, many studies 336 on TFNi (e.g., using interlayers of AgNPs<sup>57</sup>, CNTs<sup>59</sup>, GO<sup>166</sup> and coating layers of 337 polydopamine<sup>132, 156</sup> and tannic acid/Fe<sup>3+121</sup>) reported enhanced rejection of various solutes 338 (e.g.,  $NaCl^{68, 71}$ ,  $Na_2SO_4^{118, 121}$ , neutral solutes<sup>57, 136</sup> and some trace organic compounds<sup>57, 132</sup>). 339

340

341 Controlled release of amine monomers. The presence of an interlayer can significantly reduce the release rate of amine monomers and slow down their diffusion, which tends to 342 create thinner polyamide layers with smoother surface (Table 2).<sup>55, 68, 121, 129</sup> For instance, a 343 desorption study using a quartz crystal microbalance with dissipation (QCM-D) show that a 344 tannic acid (TA)/Fe<sup>3+</sup> interlayer slowed down the release rate of PIP by nearly an order of 345 magnitude compared to the bare polysulfone substrate.<sup>121</sup> This controlled release of amine 346 347 monomers results in a more uniform and thinner polyamide rejection layer. The thinner 348 rejection layer together with other beneficial effects for the resulting TFNi (e.g., the gutter effect and the elimination of polyamide intrusion) led to an order of magnitude improvement 349 in water permeance compared to the control TFC NF membrane.<sup>121</sup> Likewise, Lee et al.<sup>68</sup> 350 observed a significantly smoother and thinner polyamide rejection layer of a TFNi RO 351 352 membrane using a polyelectrolytes-based interlayer. These authors further demonstrated reduced organic fouling of the TFNi membrane, possibly attributed to its much smoother 353 354 membrane surface.

355

356 *Enhanced confinement effect for interfacially-degassed nanobubbles*. Although some 357 studies reported reduced surface roughness for TFNi membranes,<sup>55, 68</sup> other researchers 358 observed the opposite trend of increased surface roughness.<sup>121, 150</sup> The latter can be explained 359 by the gas confinement effect during an interfacial polymerization reaction. According to the

nano-foaming theory, the byproducts (H<sup>+</sup> and heat) of interfacial polymerization reaction 360 converts bicarbonate in the high-pH amine solution into  $CO_2$  gas bubbles, i.e.,  $HCO_3^- + H^+$ 361  $\stackrel{\Delta}{\rightarrow}$  CO<sub>2</sub>↑ + H<sub>2</sub>O.<sup>91, 92, 148</sup> These nanosized gas bubbles, if sufficiently retained by the substrate 362 and subsequently encapsulated by the polyamide film, are responsible for the nanovoids 363 contained in rejection layers (particularly those formed by the MPD/TMC chemistry) and 364 their ridge-and-valley surface roughness.<sup>147, 149</sup> The inclusion of an interlayer can 365 366 significantly decrease the surface pore size, resulting in better confinement of the 367 nanobubbles (i.e., preventing the gas bubbles from escaping through the porous substrate during the interfacial polymerization reaction) and therefore rougher polyamide surfaces.<sup>150</sup> 368 369 According to the literature, the greater surface roughness created by better confinement 370 effects can significantly increase the effective filtration area and also possibly decrease the intrinsic thickness of the polyamide film, therefore leading to improved water permeance.<sup>142,</sup> 371 146, 147, 149, 154 372

373

374 The above mechanisms may compete with each other in some cases. For example, while the slower release of monomers tends to favor a smoother membrane surface,<sup>55, 68</sup> the greater 375 376 amine monomer uptake and enhanced confinement effect tend to promote a greater surface roughness through improved nano-foaming conditions.132, 149, 150 The resultant membrane 377 378 morphology is, therefore, an interplay of the various effects, with the nano-foaming effects more dominating for the MPD/TMC chemistry and the smoothing effect more dominating for 379 380 the PIP/TMC chemistry. Likewise, the better amine uptake can increase the crosslinking of the polyamide,<sup>57, 69, 153</sup> yet its slower release may cause an opposite effect.<sup>121, 163, 167</sup> These 381 382 competing effects need to be systematically investigated in future studies.

### **384** MATERIALS AND PREPARATION METHODS FOR TFNi MEMBRANES

385 Materials used for interlayers can be classified into nanoparticles, 1D nanotubes or nanowires, 2D nanosheets or nanoplates, as well as interfacial coatings (Table 1 and Figure 5). In 386 addition, the nanofillers used for interlayers can be porous or nonporous. Examples of 387 nanoparticles used in TFNi membranes include AgNPs,<sup>57</sup> TiO<sub>2</sub>,<sup>56, 115</sup> carbon quantum dots 388  $(CQDs)^{168, 169}$  and FeO<sup>170</sup>. These solid hydrophilic nanoparticles can induce the formation of 389 interfacial channels around the nanoparticles (Figure 5a).<sup>57, 81</sup> For example, Yang et al.<sup>57</sup> 390 391 observed selective nanochannels of approximately 2.5 nm in size, which are attributed to the 392 hydrolysis of TMC monomers by water molecules adsorbed on the nanoparticles during the interfacial polymerization reaction. These interfacial channels led to a tripled water 393 permeance together with the enhanced rejection of NaCl, boron, and a range of organic 394 395 molecules. In contrast, the use of solid hydrophobic nanoparticles (e.g., CuNPs) may cause a 396 reduction in permeance due to the lack of such interfacial channels. Porous nanoparticles are also frequently reported for TFNi membranes, such as zeolite,<sup>116</sup> MOFs (ZIF-8,<sup>63, 64, 171-173</sup> 397 ZIF-67,  $^{63}$  ZIF-93,  $^{174}$  UiO-66 $^{65, 175}$  and HKUST-1 $^{174}$ ), and covalent organic framework 398 (COF)<sup>129</sup>, whose interior channels may further enhance water permeance.<sup>81</sup> 399

400

401 Nanofillers with higher aspect ratios have also been widely reported for TFNi membranes. Examples including 1D nanomaterials (Figure 5b) such as carbon nanotubes (CNTs)<sup>58-60, 140,</sup> 402 <sup>141</sup> and their derivatives,<sup>58, 118, 128, 144, 176</sup> Cd(OH)<sub>2</sub> nanostrands/nanowires,<sup>55</sup> cellulose 403 nanocrystals,<sup>163</sup> and halloysite nanotube<sup>177</sup> and 2D nanomaterials (Figure 5c) such as 404 graphene oxide (GO)<sup>123, 159, 178</sup> and their derivatives<sup>61, 141</sup> and MXene<sup>124</sup>. In addition, highly 405 permeable interfacial coatings (Figure 5d) have been used, such as polydopamine<sup>67, 136, 137, 156,</sup> 406 <sup>179</sup> and its derivatives,<sup>69, 71</sup> polyethyleneimine (PEI) and its derivatives<sup>68, 69</sup> polyphenols,<sup>122</sup> 407 acid/Fe<sup>3+</sup> nanoscaffold,<sup>121</sup> polymer,<sup>180</sup> PDA/COFs,<sup>153</sup> tannic porous organic 408 MOFs/Noria/PEI<sup>70</sup> and gelatin<sup>167</sup>. Figure 6 compares the enhancement of water permeance 409 and water/salt selectivity for different types of materials. On average, NPs double the water 410 411 permeance but with relatively insignificant enhancement in selectivity. Interestingly, 1D

412 nanofillers are more effective in enhancing water permeance, which is probably associated 413 with the greater interfacial area as a result of their high length-to-width aspect ratio. 414 Compared to 1D materials, interlayers formed by 2D nanomaterials (e.g., lamellar layers of GO<sup>62</sup> or MXene<sup>124</sup> prepared with vacuum filtration) are on average less effective in 415 enhancing water permeance but more effective in improving selectivity, which is likely due to 416 the relatively tortuous transport path in such lamellar structures (Figure 5c).<sup>181, 182</sup> A possible 417 further improvement is the use of porous 2D nanosheets (e.g.,  $MoS_2^{183}$  and 2D  $MOFs^{66, 184}$ ) 418 419 as interlayer materials, whose defined nanopores may facilitate the fast transport of water 420 molecules while selectively retaining the target solutes. Future studies need to systematically 421 investigate the detailed roles of materials geometry (e.g., size, shape, and aspect ratio) and 422 porosity (e.g., porous 2D nanosheets) on the separation performance of TFNi membranes.

423

424 Among all the materials, interfacial coatings appear to be the most effective to achieve enhanced membrane separation (Figure 6). This trend may be explained by the 425 426 ultrapermeable and continuous nature of these interlayer coatings, which results in more efficient gutter effect (Figure 4) compared to discrete NPs, 1D, or 2D nanomaterials. In 427 428 addition, some interfacial coating materials are more effective in minimizing defects in the rejection layer and their specific chemistry may improve membrane integrity.<sup>67</sup> A good 429 example is polydopamine, whose catechol, amine and hydroxyl groups can form covalent 430 bonds with diamine monomers through Michael addition and/or Schiff base reaction.<sup>67, 185</sup> 431

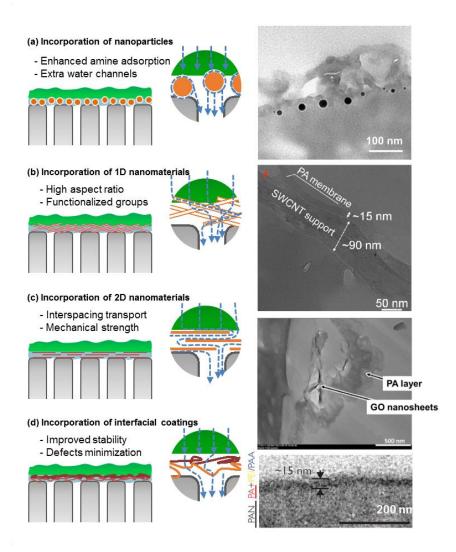
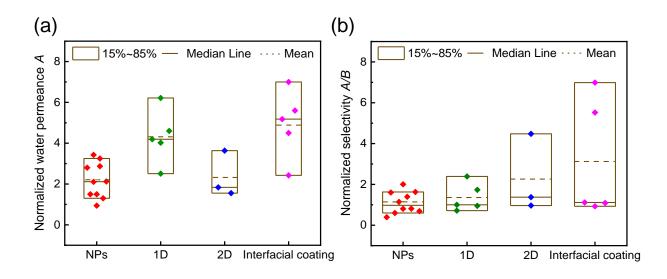


Figure 5. Schematic illustrations (left panel) and transmission electron micrographs (right
 panel) of TFNi membranes incorporated with (a) NPs, (b) 1D, (c) 2D nanomaterials and (d)
 interfacial coatings as interlayers. The TEM images are reprinted from references (NPs,<sup>57</sup>
 1D,<sup>59</sup> 2D<sup>178</sup> and interfacial coating-based<sup>68</sup>) with copyright permissions.





440 **Figure 6.** Statistical analysis of (a) normalized water permeance *A* and (b) normalized 441 selectivity *A/B* for TFNi membranes based on NPs,  $^{64, 65, 71, 115, 129, 171, 173, 186}$ , 1D,  $^{55, 58, 117, 118, 140}$ , 442 2D materials,  $^{62, 123, 124}$  and interfacial coating  $^{70, 121, 122, 132, 187}$ . The water permeance *A* and 443 selectivity *A/B* have been normalized by their respective control TFC without the interlayer. 444 The *A/B* values were based on simple salts (NaCl for RO membranes and Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> for NF 445 membranes).

447 The general fabrication routine for TFNi membranes is to first form a uniform layer of nanomaterials or interfacial coating prior to the interfacial polymerization reaction. A wide 448 range of available methods have been explored in the literature, such as *in situ* growth.<sup>71</sup> 449 evaporation,<sup>65</sup> vacuum filtration,<sup>129</sup> covalent bonding,<sup>69</sup> co-deposition,<sup>70</sup> dip coating,<sup>67</sup> spray 450 coating,<sup>173</sup> spin coating,<sup>166</sup> electrospraying coating<sup>188</sup> and brush coating<sup>59</sup> (see details in 451 Supporting Information S1). It is important to note that some fabrication methods may not be 452 cost-effective and could be difficult to scale up. For instance, the spin coating method<sup>166</sup> may 453 454 face the challenge of material loss and difficulties in mass production. Similarly, vacuum 455 filtration may face the constraints of small membrane area and the stability of the filtered 456 layer of nanomaterials. Interlayers based on nanoparticles or nanotubes, e.g., formed by *in situ* growth or vacuum filtration, may be subject to concerns of loss/leaching of nanomaterials 457 in addition to the high fabrication cost. In this regard, coating layers formed by conventional 458 459 dip coating can be more cost competitive and more readily integrated with existing membrane production lines, considering the fact that PVA surface coating has already been 460

routinely applied in the post-treatment of commercial RO membranes.<sup>189-191</sup> Coating layers
prepared by spraying (including electrospraying) could also be potentially scaled up, although
their commercial viability needs to be further assessed (e.g., through pilot scale production
lines).

#### 466 **ENVIRONMENTAL APPLICATIONS**

The high water permeance and better selectivity of TFNi membranes may enable them to be used for a wide range of applications to potentially achieve reduced energy consumption and/or improved product water quality (Table 3). This section summarizes some important applications scenarios and then analyzes the potential benefits and limitations of TFNi membranes for these applications.

472

## 473 Application Scenarios

474 Seawater and brackish water desalination. RO-based seawater (SWRO) desalination has been increasingly used in many coastal regions facing a shortage of freshwater supply.<sup>2, 5, 192</sup> 475 476 A typical seawater has a total dissolved solids (TDS) content in the range of 32-35 g/L, which 477 means that salt removal is the primary treatment objective. The high TDS and thus the 478 elevated osmotic pressure (on the order of 25 bar) dictates a high specific energy consumption (SEC) of approximately 2 kWh/m<sup>3</sup> for the first pass SWRO.<sup>193-196</sup> Boron is 479 another important contaminant to be removed during SWRO,<sup>197-200</sup> with the World Health 480 Organization and European Union guideline boron concentrations for drinking water of 2.4 481  $mg/L^{201}$  and 1.0 mg/L,<sup>202</sup> respectively. Due to its small molecular size and neutral charge at 482 typical environmental pHs (pKa of boron = 9.25), commercial SWRO membranes generally 483 have low to moderate boron rejection of 40-80%.<sup>199, 203, 204</sup> For this reason, many SWRO 484 485 plants implement a two-pass RO treatment, where the second-pass RO together with pH 486 adjustment is designed to ensure sufficient boron removal. This requirement of an additional 487 second-pass RO can significantly increase the overall cost, SEC and footprint of seawater 488 desalination. In addition to boron, the presence of bromide in desalinated water can be a concern in some cases due to the potential formation of bromide-containing 489 disinfection-byproducts (DBPs) upon chlorination.<sup>100, 205-209</sup> Some plants in Israel also 490 implement a second-pass RO to meet the stringent chloride requirement to prevent corrosion 491 of pumps/pipelines.<sup>210</sup> Similar to SWRO, RO-based brackish water (BWRO) desalination 492

493 aims primarily for TDS removal. Compared to SWRO, BWRO has much lower SEC thanks494 to its lower TDS and osmotic pressure.

495

Water reuse. Membrane-based water reuse of municipal wastewater was first practiced at the 496 497 Water Factory 21 in Southern California and has been gaining increasing popularity in recent decades due to its relatively low SEC compared to seawater desalination.<sup>7</sup> Since the TDS 498 499 content of typical municipal wastewater is much lower than that of seawater, the removal of TDS is generally a less critical challenge in the context of membrane-based water reuse.<sup>98, 211</sup> 500 501 In contrast, trace organic contaminants (TrOCs), such as DBPs, pharmaceutically active 502 compounds (PhACs), endocrine-disrupting compounds (EDCs), herbicides, pesticides, and antibiotics, are of greater concern due to their potential effects on human health.<sup>7, 98, 212, 213</sup> 503 Commercial TFC membranes, though well optimized for the rejection of TDS, often show 504 insufficient removal of some toxic TrOCs such as the small molecular-weight DBP 505 N-nitrosodimethylamine (NDMA) and many hydrophobic EDCs.<sup>7</sup> In addition, membrane 506 integrity and the removal of viruses are critical issues for potable water reuse.<sup>7, 142, 214, 215</sup> 507

508

509 *Drinking water treatment.* NF membranes can be applied for groundwater treatment for the 510 partial removal of hardness and TDS. Both RO and NF membranes have also been applied to 511 treat arsenic-contaminated groundwater.<sup>216, 217</sup> Increasing number of publications have also 512 investigated the use of RO and NF membranes for the removal of TrOCs, such as 513 polyfluorinated alkyl substances (PFASs), PhACs, DBPs, EDCs, antibiotics in surface and/or 514 ground water.<sup>98, 99, 212, 218-220</sup>

515

516 *Industrial wastewater treatment and reuse.* RO and NF membranes have been applied in a 517 variety of industrial wastewater treatment and/or reuse applications to target the removal of 518 hardness, dissolved organic matter, heavy metals, sulphate, nutrients, and other 519 industrial-specific hazardous chemicals.<sup>221-224</sup> Membrane selectivity plays a critical role in 520 these applications to ensure high treatment efficiency and reliability.

521

522 Resource recovery. Resource recovery presents additional opportunities for 523 high-performance RO and NF membranes. Notable examples include the recovery of high-value metals (e.g., lithium or palladium),<sup>225, 226</sup> dyes molecules,<sup>227-231</sup> and nutrients (e.g., 524 nitrogen and phosphorous)<sup>232, 233</sup>. Some of these applications may require high solute/solute 525 selectivity (e.g., Li<sup>+</sup>/Mg<sup>2+</sup> for the case of lithium extraction from brine<sup>225</sup>) in addition to high 526 water permeance and high water/solute selectivity.<sup>225, 234</sup> 527

	Target contaminants	Remarks	Refs
Seawater	TDS	High TDS of 32-35 g/L for seawater; high osmotic	2, 235, 236
desalination		pressure	
	Boron	Low boron removal (typically 40-80%) by	197, 200, 203
		commercial RO membranes. WHO guideline	237
		concentration of 2.4 mg/L for drinking water. Many	
		SWRO plants install a second RO treatment for boron	
		removal.	
	Bromide	Potential formation of toxic DBPs upon chlorination	209, 238-241
	Chloride	Potential corrosion issues. Resulted in a second-pass	210
		RO in some SWRO plants in Israel.	
Water reuse	TDS	Partial removal of TDS	7, 242, 243
	NDMA	A notorious DBP and a suspected carcinogen. Low	7, 244-246
		rejection by RO membranes $(20 - 80\%)$ . Notification	
		level of 10 ng/L in California.	
	Other TrOCs, such as	Many of TrOCs are toxic. Some are poorly removed	97, 98, 174, 212
	DBPs, PhACs, EDCs, and	by RO membranes (e.g., hydrophobic EDCs and some	247
	antibiotics	neutral hydrophilic compounds with small molecular	
		weights).	
	Viruses	Incomplete removal of viruses due to the presence of	214, 248-250
		defects in membranes and modules.	
Drinking water	Hardness (Ca <sup>2+</sup> and Mg <sup>2+</sup> )	Commercial NF membranes are often negatively	251-253
treatment		charged, which reduce the removal efficiency for $Ca^{2+}$	
		and Mg <sup>2+</sup>	
	Arsenic, selenium,	Toxic metals in some ground water. Low removal for	216, 217, 254
	uranium	neutrally charged As(III) by RO/NF membranes.	255

529 Table 3. Potential environmental applications of TFNi membranes.

	Perfluorochemicals (PFCs)	Toxic compounds with extremely high persistence.	218, 219,
		Examples include perfluorooctanoic acid (PFOA) and	256-258
		perfluorooctane sulfonate (PFOS).	
	Other heavy metals and	Toxic chemicals	98, 99, 212, 219,
	TrOCs		220, 259
Industrial	Hardness, sulphate, silica,	Prone to fouling and scaling. Requirement for specific	221, 260, 261
wastewater	colloids, and dissolved	solute/solute selectivity.	
treatment	organic carbon in cooling		
	tower blowdown water		
	and paper mills		
	Heavy metal ions (Cr, Ni,	Requirement for the removal of industry-specific	222, 262-266
	etc.) in mining,	heavy metals	
	electroplating, etc.		
Resource	Precious metal recoveries,	Often suffering from low ion-ion selectivity	225, 226, 234,
recovery	such as lithium (Li) or		267
	palladium (Pd)		
	Nutrients, such as nitrogen	Low removal of N in some cases	232, 233, 268
	(N) and phosphorous (P)		
	Dyes recovery in textile	Requirement for dye/salt selectivity in addition to	227-230, 269,
	wastewater	dye/water selective and high water permeance	270

## 531 Assessment of the Potential of TFNi membranes for reduced energy consumption

532 A frequently claimed benefit of "ultrapermeable" membranes in the existing literature is the 533 potential for reducing the SEC. Since TFNi membranes could provide up to an order of 534 magnitude improvement in water permeance, it is interesting to evaluate their potential 535 energy saving in different applications. Figure 7a presents the typical scenario of SWRO desalination (osmotic pressure of 25 bar for seawater, ~ 50% water recovery ratio (WRR) for 536 537 large scale SWRO plants or 30% for some smaller plants). Commercially available TFC and TFN SWRO membranes are used for benchmarking purpose. Despite the ultra-high water 538 permeance of TFNi membranes (e.g., > 10 Lm<sup>-2</sup>h<sup>-1</sup>bar<sup>-1</sup>), limited savings in SEC can be 539 achieved at a WRR of 50% (e.g., approximately 16.6% reduction in SEC for a TFNi 540 membrane of 15 Lm<sup>-2</sup>h<sup>-1</sup>bar<sup>-1 271</sup> vs. a TFC membrane of 1 Lm<sup>-2</sup>h<sup>-1</sup>bar<sup>-1</sup>). This marginal 541 reduction in SEC is largely due to the dominance of energy consumption by the high osmotic 542 pressure of seawater.<sup>193, 194, 272</sup> Similarly, Cohen-Tanugi et al.<sup>195</sup> suggested that a tripled water 543 permeance would only result in approximately 15% saving in SEC in the context of SWRO 544

desalination. Interestingly, at a lower WRR of 30% (applicable for some smaller-scale SWRO
desalination plants), a much more attractive energy saving is feasible (e.g., 46.1% reduction
in SEC for the same TFNi membrane), thanks to the lower osmotic pressure of the
desalination brine (35.7 bar at 30% WRR vs. 50 bar at 50% WRR).

549

550 The potential for energy saving is much more significant for applications involving 551 low-osmotic-pressure feed waters, for which the hydraulic resistance of the membrane plays 552 a dominant role in dictating the applied pressure and thus the SEC related to a given 553 membrane process. Here we consider a typical water reuse application with a feed water 554 osmotic pressure of ~ 0.5 bar and a WRR of 80% (Figure 7b). Compared to the commercial 555 BWRO membranes, the use of TFNi membranes can achieve > 80% reduction in SEC (e.g., 556 compared to the commercial LFC3 membrane). A similar reduction of SEC is expected for 557 other applications involving low-osmotic-pressure feed waters. Some studies suggested the 558 use of ultra-permeable membranes for saving the footprint of membrane plants, i.e., by 559 applying the same or similar applied pressure (without energy savings) but using less membrane area.<sup>195</sup> This strategy can potentially lead to significant savings in capital cost (e.g., 560 561 reduced membrane area, fewer pressure vessels, and reduced building size). Nevertheless, the 562 approach inevitably demands the application of higher water fluxes, which could promote more severe concentration polarization and fouling.<sup>273</sup> Therefore, future studies need to 563 564 systematically investigate the fouling issues for TFNi membranes.

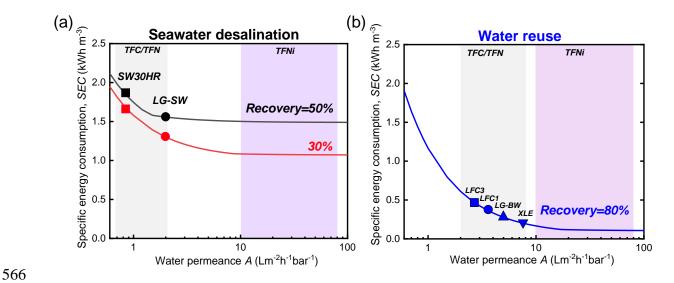


Figure 7. The relationship between specific energy consumption (SEC, KWh m<sup>-3</sup>) and 567 membrane water permeance  $(Lm^{-2}h^{-1}bar^{-1})$  in the context of (a) seawater desalination and (b) 568 water reuse. Commercial membranes used for benchmarking include a TFC membrane 569 570 SW30HR and a TFN membrane LG-SW for seawater desalination; and TFC membranes LFC3, LFC1, and XLE and a TFN membrane LG-BW for water reuse).48, 49, 274 Water 571 permeance results of TFNi membranes were adopted based on Figure 2. For SEC calculations 572 573 of seawater desalination, the osmotic pressure is set at 25 bar (TDS of approximately 32000 574 ppm). Two water recovery ratios (WRR) are evaluated, with WRR = 50% applicable for large-size SWRO plant and 30% for some smaller plants. For water reuse applications, the 575 576 osmotic pressure is set at 0.5 bar (TDS of approximately 600 ppm) with a WRR of 80%. The 577 detailed calculation of energy consumptions can be found in Supporting Information S2.

### 579 Assessment of the Potential of TFNi membranes for improved treatment efficiency

580 The selectivity of a membrane plays a critical role in its treatment efficiency, e.g., the rejection of contaminants in desalination, wastewater treatment, and water reuse or the 581 recovery ratio in resource recovery applications.<sup>6, 7, 193, 225, 259, 275, 276</sup> Existing literature on 582 TFNi membranes have been heavily focusing on the removal and selectivity respect to 583 common inorganic salts and ions such as NaCl, 57, 68 Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> (or SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>), 121, 151 Ca<sup>2+</sup>, 187, 277 and 584 Mg<sup>2+,71,122</sup> Compared to their TFC controls, TFNi membranes generally show improved 585 selectivity for these contaminants (Figure 2b and Figure 6b). The enhanced selectivity can be 586 attributed to (1) the increased crosslinking degree<sup>57, 69, 153</sup> and fewer defect regions<sup>57, 121, 122</sup> in 587 588 the polyamide layer and (2) the creation of selective transport channels including interior channels of the nanomaterials/coatings97,98 or the interfacial channels formed between the 589

nanofillers and polyamide<sup>57, 81</sup>). However, it is worthwhile to note that conventional TFC 590 membrane has already been highly optimized for salt removal.<sup>98, 247</sup> For example, fully 591 aromatic RO membranes based on the MPD/TMC chemistry can easily achieve high NaCl 592 rejections of > 99%.<sup>6, 190, 191</sup> Likewise, semi-aromatic NF membranes based on the PIP/TMC 593 chemistry show high rejection against divalent ions (e.g., >99% for Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>).<sup>37, 274, 278</sup> In 594 595 contrast, these membranes often show insufficient rejections of some important contaminants such as boron,<sup>197, 200, 203, 237</sup> heavy metals,<sup>216, 217, 255</sup> and TrOCs.<sup>97, 98, 174, 212, 247</sup> In this regard, it will 596 be highly valuable to investigate the effectiveness of TFNi for these important solutes. 597

598

599 Despite the critical importance of adequate removal of TrOCs for potable water reuse applications<sup>7, 259, 279, 280</sup> and boron for desalination applications<sup>197, 200, 203, 237</sup>, only handful 600 studies have investigated the applicability of TFNi membranes for this purpose.<sup>132</sup> In 601 principle, improved physicochemical properties of TFNi membranes (e.g., higher 602 crosslinking degree<sup>57, 69, 153</sup>, less defect regions<sup>121, 122</sup>, enhanced charge interaction,<sup>71, 158</sup> etc.) 603 and the presence of selective interior/interfacial channels would contribute to better removal 604 of these contaminants. For example, Yang et al.<sup>57</sup> demonstrated the use of hydrophilic AgNPs 605 606 for the creation of selective interfacial channels for the effective enhancement of water 607 permeance. The resulting TFNi membrane showed increased selectivity against boron thanks 608 to the higher cross-linking degree of its polyamide rejection layer. Greater improvements in selectivity were observed for NaCl and a hydrophobic EDC propylparaben due to enhanced 609 Donnan exclusion and suppressed hydrophobic interaction, respectively, in addition to the 610 size exclusion effect. The inclusion of porous materials<sup>96, 97, 281</sup> and coating layers<sup>98, 99, 247</sup> 611 612 with intrinsically high selectivity against target solutes are also of great potential. Furthermore, improving solute/solute selectivity<sup>276</sup> could be another sweet spot for the future 613 development of TFNi membranes, e.g., Cl<sup>-</sup>/SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> selectivity for the treatment of cooling 614 tower water and paper mills wastewater,<sup>221, 260, 261</sup> dye/salt selectivity in textile wastewater 615 treatment,<sup>227-230, 270</sup> Li<sup>+</sup>/Mg<sup>2+</sup> selectivity for lithium extraction from salt lake water.<sup>225</sup> 616

### 618 **CONCLUDING REMARKS AND FUTURE PERSPECTIVES**

619 This review provides the state of the art of TFNi membranes in terms of materials, 620 mechanisms, and separation performance. The relevant environmental applications are 621 assessed with respect to potential savings in energy consumptions and process efficiency on 622 the basis of membrane water permeance and selectivity. In general, TFNi membranes offer 623 great potential for simultaneous enhancements in both water permeance and solute selectivity. 624 Significant energy savings (e.g., up to 80%) is possible for feed waters with low osmotic 625 pressure (e.g., water reuse). In contrast, only marginal reduction in SEC is expected for SWRO since its SEC is largely dictated by the high osmotic pressure of seawater. The 626 existing literature seems to have mainly focused on the removal of simple salts, yet there is a 627 lack of systematic studies on other important contaminants that are critical for certain 628 629 environmental applications (Table 3). Future studies should extend TFNi membranes to a 630 wider selection of solutes and investigate their solute/water and solute/solute selectivity to 631 fully unleash their potential. Furthermore, although the review has focused primarily on RO 632 and NF processes, the mechanisms involved and application constraints are also relevant to other membrane processes such as FO.<sup>282, 283</sup> Compared to RO and NF, the applications of 633 634 TFNi membranes for FO process could offer additional benefits. For example, the inclusion of a hydrophilic interlayer could greatly reduce the structural parameter (S value) of the TFNi 635 FO membranes.<sup>117, 136</sup> This could be possibly explained by the elimination of PA inside 636 substrate pore that not only reduces the overall membrane hydraulic resistance but also 637 mitigates internal concentration polarization.<sup>117</sup> In addition, the significantly improved 638 selectivity of TFNi membranes (Figure 2), originated from reduced defects formation<sup>121, 122</sup> 639 and/or enhanced crosslinking degree<sup>57, 153</sup> of its polyamide rejection layer, could further 640 reduce the specific salt flux in the FO process.<sup>124</sup> As a result of these beneficial effects, TFNi 641 membranes can potentially offer nearly an order of magnitude improvement in FO water flux 642 together reduced reverse solute flux.<sup>117, 124</sup> 643

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645 In view of the greatly enhanced separation performance of TFNi membranes over their

conventional TFN counterparts and the fact that several TFN membranes have also been
successfully commercialized,<sup>47-49</sup> it is reasonable to expect the potential commercialization of
TFNi membranes in the near future. However, several critical issues need to be thoroughly
addressed, including costs, long-term membrane stability, and risks of nanomaterials leaching.
Based on these considerations, the dip coating method may be the most practical way for the
preparation of interlayers in view of its relatively low cost and its existing use in commercial
membrane production lines (e.g., PVA coating in RO post-treatment).<sup>189-191</sup>

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In view of the important gutter effect on the transport paths in TFNi membranes, more 654 modelling and experimental works are needed to systematically evaluate the effect of 655 interlayer properties (e.g., thickness, permeability, continues coatings vs. discrete nanofillers, 656 etc.) on both water permeance and selectivity. One interesting aspect for future research is to 657 explore the use of specific chemistry of interlayer materials for improving the selectivity 658 against target contaminants.<sup>98, 99, 247</sup> Furthermore, advanced membrane characterization 659 QCM-D<sup>57, 121</sup>, Rutherford backscattering spectrometry,<sup>284,</sup> 660 techniques (e.g., electrochemical impedance spectroscopy,<sup>286, 287</sup> positron annihilation lifetime spectroscopy,<sup>288,</sup> 661 <sup>289</sup>, 3D TEM tomography<sup>290, 291</sup> and etc.<sup>146, 154, 292, 293</sup>) are needed. Such advanced 662 characterization can provide better understanding of the effect of interlayers on the 663 physiochemical properties of polyamide layers, particularly with respect to the 664 orientation/pattern of nanofillers, their interactions with the rejection layer and substrate, their 665 effect on the transport behavior and the overall membrane integrity,<sup>7, 142, 214, 215</sup> which are 666 critical issues for many membrane applications. 667

668

Despite the great enhancement effect in membrane permeability and selectivity, there have been only a handful studies on the fouling and chlorine resistance of TFNi membranes. For some TFNi membranes, the slower/controlled release of amine monomers can result in smoother membrane surfaces (Table 2),<sup>55, 68</sup> which tends to mitigate membrane fouling.<sup>68</sup> Although TFNi membranes incorporating biocidal agents (e.g., AgNPs) can still achieve

some antimicrobial and antibiofouling properties via non-contact killing,<sup>71</sup> the embedding of 674 such materials underneath the polyamide would inhibit the direct killing mechanism that is 675 often utilized in surface-laden TFN membranes (e.g., by coating biocidal agents on a TFC 676 membrane surface<sup>134</sup>). Nevertheless, the additional coating layer in the latter case could 677 adversely affect membrane hydraulic resistance,<sup>10</sup> resulting in reduced water permeance.<sup>10,98</sup> 678 679 An interesting opportunity exists to achieve better antifouling performance for TFNi 680 membranes. The inclusion of an interlayer changes the water transport path in the polyamide layer towards a more uniform distribution (Figure 4b). This could potentially eliminate hot 681 spots of extremely high localized flux (e.g., directly over the substrate pores in Figure  $4a^{138}$ ) 682 and thereby reducing the membrane fouling tendency.<sup>294</sup> Some recent studies have also 683 demonstrated the possibility of interlayer materials for improving chlorine resistance, e.g., by 684 the inhibition of N-chlorination and ring-chlorination,<sup>14, 186</sup> resulting in improved membrane 685 chlorine resistance.<sup>186</sup> Future studies need to perform more systematic evaluation on the 686 fouling and chlorine resistance to enable a wide range of real applications.<sup>13, 295-297</sup> 687

### 688 ASSOCIATED CONTENT

- 689 The Supporting Information is available free of charge on the ACS Publications website at690 DOI:
- 691 S1. Summary of materials, fabrication methods and separation performances of TFNi
- 692 membranes; S2. Calculations of specific energy consumption
- 693

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- 701
- 702 **Notes**
- The authors declare no completing financial interest.

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