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Shielding effect enables ultrafast ion transfer through nanoporous membrane for highly energy-efficient electro dialysis

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Abstract

A key to sustainable management of hypersaline organic-rich wastewaters is to precisely fractionate organic components and inorganic salts (NaCl) as individual resources. Conventional nanofiltration and electro dialysis processes suffer from membrane fouling and compromise the fractionation efficacy. Here, we develop a thin-film composite nanoporous membrane (NPM) via co-deposition of dopamine and polyethyleneimine as a highly anion-conducting membrane (ACM). Experimental results and molecular dynamics simulations show that co-deposition of dopamine and polyethyleneimine effectively tailors the membrane surface properties, intensifying the charge shielding effect and enabling ultrafast anion transfer for highly efficient electro dialysis. The resulting NPM exhibits unprecedented electro dialytic fractionation of organics and NaCl (>99.3% desalination efficiency; >99.1% organics recovery) with negligible membrane fouling, dramatically outperforming state-of-the-art anion exchange membranes. Our study sheds light on facile design of high-performance ACMs and associated new mass transport mechanisms in electro dialytic separation, paving the way for sustainable management of complex waste streams.

Introduction

To advance net-zero carbon emission for a circular economy, current wastewater treatment processes urgently need a paradigm shift from conventional contaminant removal to resource

49 recovery, e.g., energy, nutrients, biomass and other high value-added by-products that are beyond
50 water reclamation by reverse osmosis (1-5). One grand challenge in wastewater treatment is the
51 management of hypersaline organic-rich waste streams produced in a wide range of industrial
52 sectors, such as textile processing, tanneries, food processing, the oil & gas industry, paper mills
53 and pharmaceutical manufacturing (6-9). Therefore, it is important to effectively fractionate organic
54 and inorganic salts (e.g., NaCl) using innovative and advanced separation technology to sustainably
55 recover precious resources from these hypersaline organic-rich waste streams (10).

56 Membrane-based separation technologies offer opportunities to effectively manage these
57 hypersaline organic-rich waste streams. For instance, nanofiltration is among the most widely used
58 pressure-driven membrane technologies to sieve organics with molecular weights of 200-1000 Da
59 and inorganic salts from the hypersaline organic-rich waste streams based on the synergistic effects
60 of size exclusion and electrostatic repulsion using the nanoporous thin-film composite (TFC)
61 membranes, which retain the organics but partially allow the transmission of inorganic salts (11-
62 16). However, the elevated osmotic pressure, membrane fouling, and cake-enhanced concentration
63 polarization experienced in the pressure-driven nanofiltration process induces significant
64 membrane flux decline, thereby minimizing the separation efficiency of the organic and inorganic
65 salts (17-19). Additionally, the pressure-driven nanofiltration-diafiltration procedure should be
66 implemented with high consumption of pure water to achieve the fractionation of organic and
67 inorganic salts, which inevitably suffers from a considerable loss of the target organics and thus
68 reduces the system productivity (10, 20).

69 As an alternative approach to nanofiltration, electrodialysis is proposed as a route for desalinating
70 the hypersaline organic-rich wastewaters, which allows cations and anions to be transferred through
71 cation exchange membranes (CEMs) and anion exchange membranes (AEMs) under a direct
72 current electric field (21-23). Nevertheless, most of the organic compounds with negative charges
73 in the hypersaline organic-rich wastewaters migrate to the AEMs via electrostatic attraction, which
74 escalates the membrane fouling during the electrodialysis process (24-26), significantly limiting the
75 transfer efficiency of the anions and jeopardizing the fractionation of the organic and inorganic
76 salts.

77 By integrating the technical merits of the pressure-driven nanofiltration (nanoporous membranes)
78 and the electrodialysis process (electro-driven process with low/zero pressure), we herein devised
79 a new electro-driven membrane system using TFC nanoporous polyamide (PA) membranes (with
80 a molecular weight cutoff (MWCO) of 200-1000 Da) as anion conducting membranes (ACMs) to
81 replace the AEMs used in conventional electrodialysis. This strategy both alleviates the membrane
82 fouling and accelerates the ion transfer. Due to the nanoporous structure of the membranes, the
83 anions can migrate through the nano-channels of the TFC PA membranes under a direct electric
84 field. However, nanoporous TFC PA membranes are highly negatively charged and can impede the
85 anion transfer to a great extent through electrostatic repulsion and thus deteriorate the desalination
86 efficiency under the current field. Therefore, it is vital to molecularly tailor the surface properties
87 of the nanoporous PA membranes for intensifying the charge shielding effect, thus enhancing the
88 anion transfer and solute selectivity while effectively separating the organics without fouling. To
89 modulate the membrane surface properties, a bio-inspired polydopamine (PDA)-based coating on
90 PA nanofiltration membrane is proposed as a novel strategy for constructing a multifunctional
91 surface for enhanced membrane performance (27, 28). However, there are limited examples of
92 PDA-coated nanoporous membranes (NPMs) in electro-driven membrane process with applications
93 limited to pressure-driven membrane filtration or superhydrophilic surface modifications (29, 30).

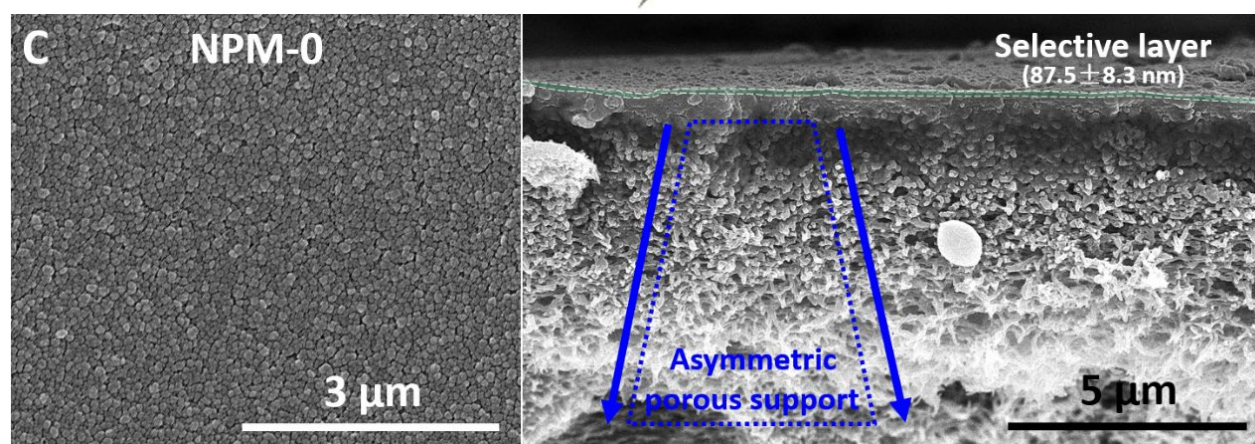
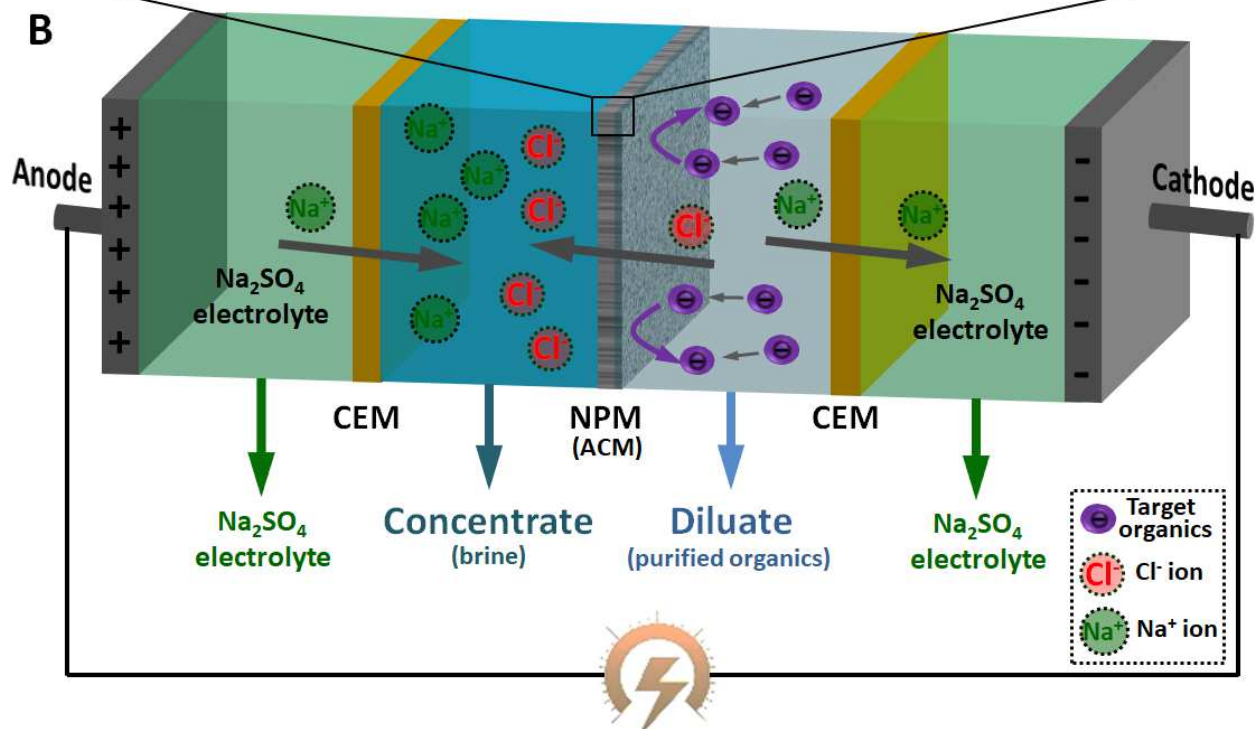
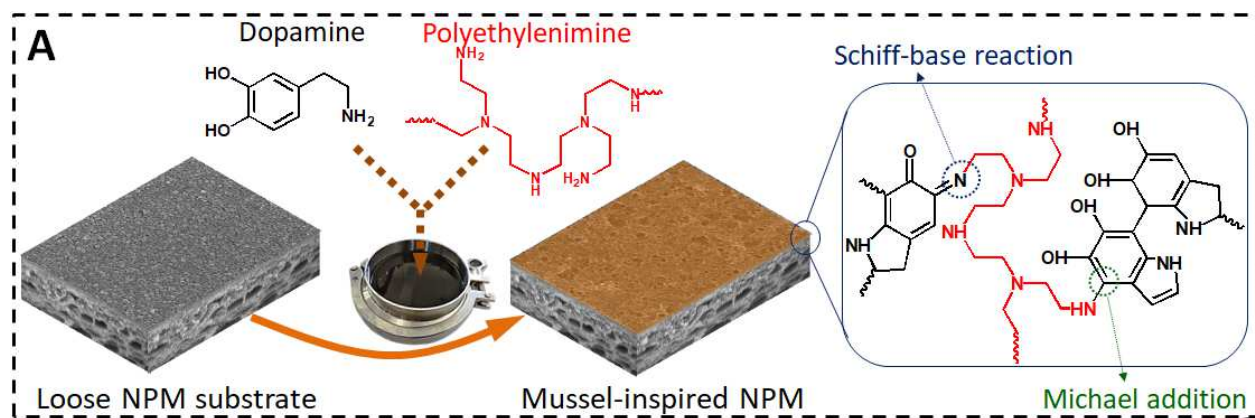
94 In this study, we present the design of surface-engineered, highly anion-conducting, anti-fouling
95 TFC NPMs featuring a facile co-deposition of dopamine and polyethyleneimine (PEI) for effective
96 electro-dialytic fractionation of the organic and inorganic salts from hypersaline organic-rich
97 wastewaters (**Fig. 1A** and **1B**). Co-deposition of dopamine and PEI effectively tunes the surface
98 properties of the PDA/PEI coated TFC NPMs as ACMs, which both enhances the solute selectivity
99 (as is evident from the experimental data) and manifests an ion shielding effect for ultrafast
100 electro-dialytic anion transfer as demonstrated by molecular dynamics (MD) simulation. The
101 optimal PDA/PEI coated TFC NPM exhibits over 99.3% desalination efficiency and more than
102 99.1% recovery of organics for highly effective electro-dialytic fractionation of various
103 organics/NaCl mixed solutions. Finally, we show that PDA/PEI coated TFC NPMs are
104 exceptionally stable to achieve impressive fractionation performance with negligible fouling
105 propensity in a 6-cycle electro-dialytic separation operation. This highlights the practicability of
106 surface-engineered TFC NPMs as advanced ACMs in one-step electro-driven fractionation of the
107 organic and inorganic salts from complex hypersaline organic-rich wastewaters for a sustainable
108 circular economy.

109 Results

110 Design and characterization of highly anion-conducting TFC NPMs

111 A loose poly(piperazine amide) thin-film composite (TFC) NPM with a MWCO of 682 ± 17 Da was
112 used as the substrate for fabrication of highly anion-conductive TFC NPMs via co-deposition of
113 dopamine and PEI at pH=8.5 (**Fig. 1A**). The coated TFC NPMs were exposed to the dopamine/PEI
114 solution at different durations, i.e., 6, 12, 18, 24, 30 and 36 h, and were denoted as NPM-1, NPM-
115 2, NPM-3, NPM-4, NPM-5, and NPM-6, respectively. Meanwhile, the loose TFC NPM substrate
116 was referred to as NPM-0 and was used as a control. The surface color of the coated TFC
117 membranes changed from a white pattern to a light-yellow pattern and finally to a brown pattern
118 (**Fig. S1**), demonstrating the successful and homogeneous polymerization of dopamine and PEI on
119 the membrane surfaces. This was further confirmed by scanning electron microscopy images (**Fig.**
120 **S2**). X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) analysis proved that the co-deposition of dopamine
121 and PEI on the loose NPM substrate was induced through Schiff base or/and Michael addition
122 reactions (**Fig. S3**). Such a PDA/PEI complex coating enables an increase in the thickness of
123 selective layer for the PDA/PEI coated NPMs from 87.5 ± 8.5 nm (NPM-0) to 135.0 ± 12.6 nm (NPM-
124 6), as demonstrated by atomic force microscopy (AFM) measurements (**Fig. S4** and **Fig. S5**).

125
126 Furthermore, the surface properties (i.e., hydrophilicity, surface charges, specific areal electric
127 resistance and pore size) of the PDA/PEI coated NPMs can be precisely tuned via co-deposition of
128 dopamine and PEI on the loose NPM substrate (**Fig. 1E-1H**). In particular, the surfaces of the coated
129 NPMs become more hydrophilic and less negatively charged (**Fig. 1E** and **1F**) due to the
130 intercalation of the PEI molecules with positive charges through co-polymerization with dopamine.
131 Such a PDA/PEI complex coating can minimize the specific areal electric resistance of the coated
132 NPMs through reduced surface negative charge density (**Fig. 1G**). As expected, the specific areal
133 electric resistance of the coated TFC NPMs was reduced from 10.47 ± 0.43 (NPM-0) to 5.69 ± 0.13
134 $\Omega \cdot \text{cm}^2$ (NPM-6) after a 36-h deposition of the PDA/PEI complex layer, which is beneficial for
135 enhanced ion conductivity under an electric field. Simultaneously, the pore size of the coated TFC
136 NPMs was significantly reduced since the PDA/PEI complex coating can sufficiently bridge the
137 cavity structure of the loose NPM substrate, which can enhance the retention of organics (as
138 reflected by the reduction in MWCO and effective mean pore size in **Fig. 1H**, **Fig. S6** and **Table**
139 **S3**). This change in surface properties endow the PDA/PEI coated TFC NPMs with enhanced
140 selectivity of the organics over inorganic salts (i.e., NaCl).



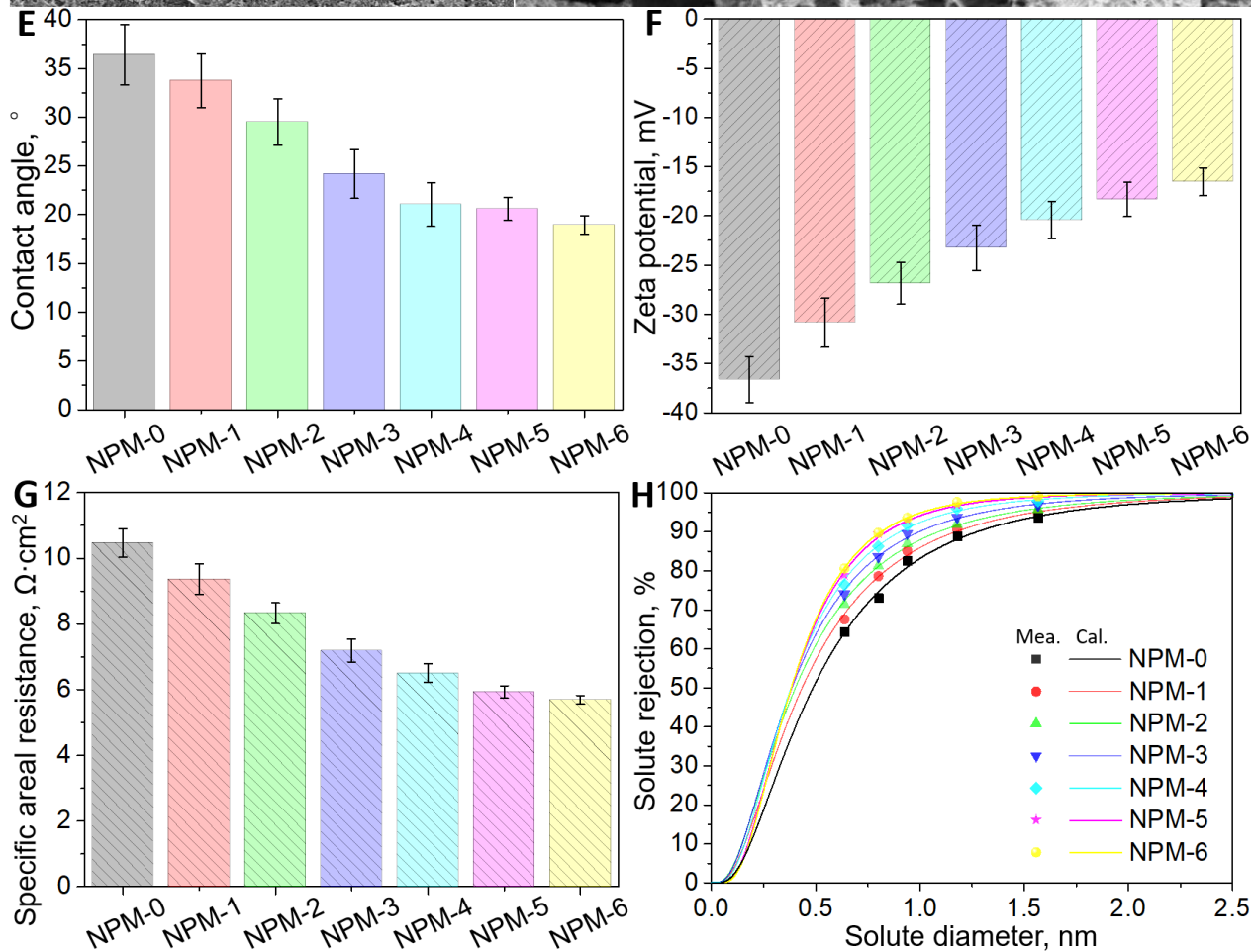
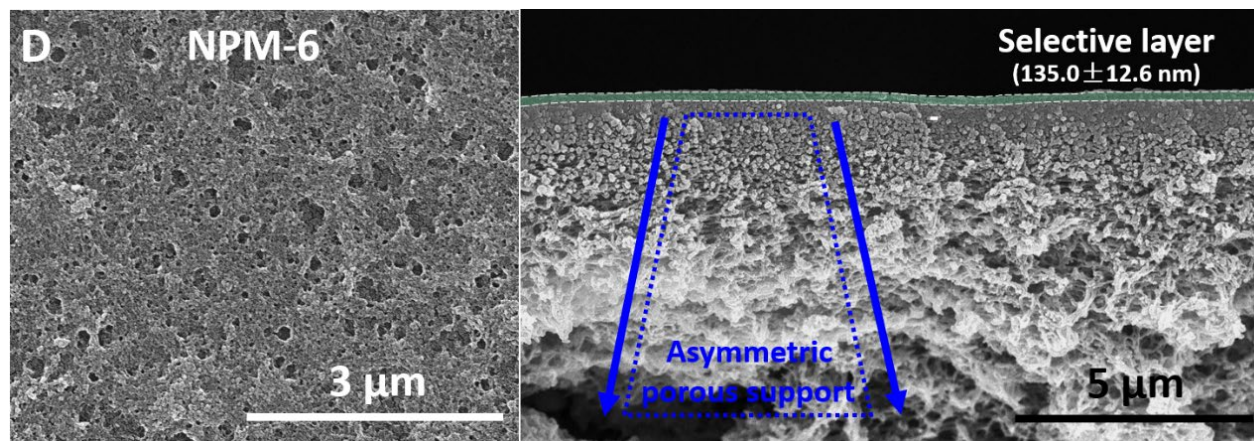


Fig. 1. Design and characterization of surface engineered TFC NPMs as ACMs for electro-dialytic fractionation of organics and NaCl. (A) Schematic diagram of dopamine-based bio-inspired coating of TFC NPM, (B) stack configuration of novel electro-driven separation process using the PDA/PEI coated NPMs as ACMs for one-step electro-dialytic fractionation of organics and NaCl, (C) surface and cross-sectional SEM images of the loose TFC NPM substrate, (D) surface and cross-sectional SEM images of the TFC NPM after 36-h PDA/PEI coating (NPM-6), (E) surface hydrophilicity of the TFC NPMs, (F) zeta potential of the TFC NPMs, (G) specific areal electric resistance of the TFC NPMs, (H) relationship between molecular weights of poly(ethylene glycol) polymers and their rejection for the TFC NPMs.

Pressure-driven separation performance of the coated TFC NPMs

Pressure-driven filtration was performed to illustrate the solute selectivity of the PDA/PEI coated NPMs between inorganic salts (i.e., NaCl) and organics. In this study, four antibiotics, including

159 ceftriaxone sodium, cefotaxime sodium, carbenicillin disodium, and ampicillin sodium, were
160 selected as the model organics. The rejection of antibiotics for the PDA/PEI coated NPMs increased
161 when the coating duration was extended (**Fig. S7A**), which is ascribed to the reduction in pore size
162 of the PDA/PEI coated NPMs, which enhances the organic rejection via a size exclusion effect. For
163 instance, the NPM-6 membrane exhibited rejection of $98.5 \pm 0.2\%$ to ampicillin sodium, markedly
164 outperforming the pristine loose NPM-0 substrate ($88.9 \pm 0.5\%$). Conversely, the rejection of NaCl
165 for the PDA/PEI coated NPMs unexpectedly decreased with increasing coating duration (**Fig. S7B**).
166 This could be attributed to the reduction in negative surface charge density of the coated NPMs
167 (reflected by the change in zeta potential in **Fig. 1F**), leading to a diminished electrostatic repulsion
168 for fast NaCl transmission (31-33).

169 Both organic and inorganic salts (i.e., NaCl) co-exist in real hypersaline organic-rich solutions. The
170 presence of inorganic salts would significantly affect the separation behavior of the TFC NPMs,
171 which enhances the shielding effect for reduced solute retention (7, 34). Specifically, the rejection
172 of organics for the pristine loose NPM substrate (i.e., NPM-0) significantly decreased with
173 increasing NaCl concentration, yielding a reduced selectivity between NaCl and antibiotics in the
174 antibiotic/NaCl mixed solutions as feed (**Fig. 2A**). After coating of the PDA/PEI complex layer,
175 the coated TFC NPMs exhibited increasing rejection toward the organics in the same
176 antibiotic/NaCl mixed solutions (**Fig. 2B** and **Fig. S8**). The deleterious impact of the presence of
177 NaCl on the rejection of organics was minimized for the PDA/PEI coated NPMs with a 36-h coating
178 duration (i.e., NPM-6). The rejection of all the antibiotics for the NPM-6 membrane was marginally
179 diminished with increasing NaCl concentrations since the size exclusion effect of the NPM-6
180 membrane was maximized with a remarkable reduction in its pore sizes. This enabled an impressive
181 increase in selectivity of NaCl and antibiotics for their potential effective fractionation (**Fig. 2C**).
182 For instance, the selectivity of NaCl and ampicillin sodium in the antibiotic/NaCl mixed solution
183 through the NPM-6 membrane reached 27.4, which was much higher than that (i.e., 5.0) of the
184 pristine loose NPM-0 substrate during the pressure-driven nanofiltration procedure (**Fig. 2C**).

185 Although the PDA/PEI-coated NPMs showed enhanced selectivity between NaCl and antibiotics,
186 a constant-volume nanofiltration-based diafiltration procedure using the NPM-6 membrane should
187 be implemented for fractionation of antibiotics and NaCl from the antibiotic/NaCl mixed solutions
188 (**Fig. 2D** and **Fig. S9**). The concentration of NaCl in all the antibiotic/NaCl mixed solutions
189 significantly decreased with increasing diavolume number during diafiltration. This is because the
190 low overall rejection of NaCl (<30%) for the NPM-6 membrane allowed fast penetration of NaCl
191 through the membrane (**Fig. S10A-S13A**). When the diavolume number increased to 5.9-6.0, the
192 concentration of NaCl in all the antibiotic/NaCl mixed solutions was reduced from $\sim 11.9 \text{ g}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ to
193 $\sim 0.08 \text{ g}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$, resulting in a desalination efficiency of 99.3%-99.4% (**Table S4**). On the other hand,
194 the NPM-6 membrane with smaller pore size can effectively retain the antibiotics even after
195 diafiltration of the antibiotic/NaCl mixed solutions. However, as the diavolume number increased,
196 the antibiotics were still able to penetrate through the NPM-6 membrane along with the
197 nanofiltration permeate. For antibiotics with a lower molecular weight (e.g., ampicillin sodium), a
198 moderate amount of the antibiotics was transported from the feed to the permeate, even though the
199 NPM-6 membrane exhibited rejections of >96% to the antibiotics. Consequently, the loss of
200 ceftriaxone sodium, cefotaxime sodium, carbenicillin disodium and ampicillin sodium from the
201 feed to the permeate side reached 4.18%, 6.27%, 8.98%, and 11.47% (**Fig. S10B-S13B**),
202 respectively. Therefore, the constant-volume nanofiltration-based diafiltration procedure driven by
203 pressure demonstrated insufficient recovery of antibiotics during the fractionation of antibiotics and
204 NaCl from the antibiotic/NaCl mixed solutions (**Table S4**).

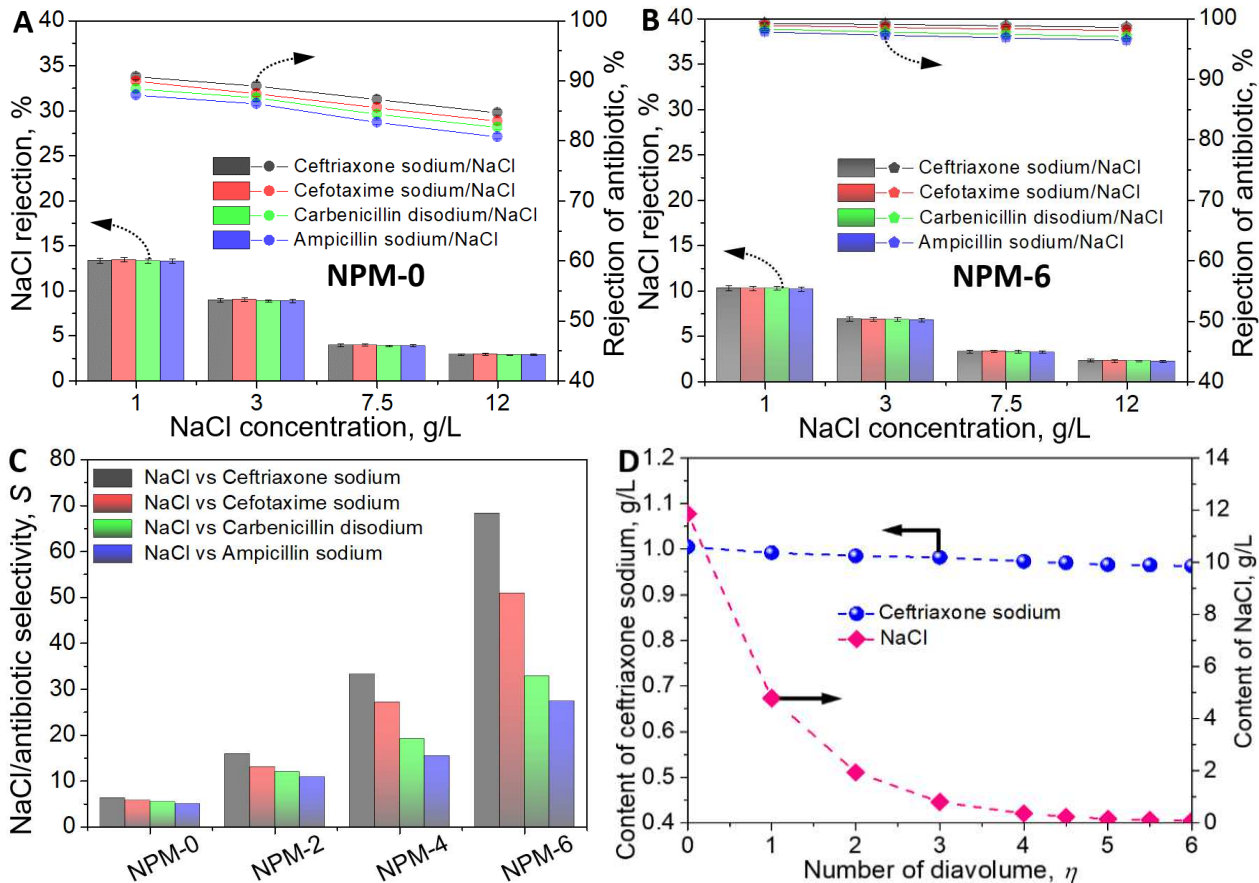


Fig. 2. (A, B) Rejection of antibiotics and NaCl for the NPM-0 and NPM-6 membranes, respectively, when filtering various antibiotic/NaCl mixed solutions, (C) selectivity between NaCl and antibiotic for the NPM-0, NPM-2, NPM-4 and NPM-6 membranes when filtering various antibiotic/NaCl mixed solutions with a NaCl concentration of $12 \text{ g}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$, (D) content of antibiotic and NaCl in the feed during the constant-volume nanofiltration-based diafiltration using the NPM-6 membrane for fractionation of antibiotics and NaCl from a ceftriaxone sodium/NaCl mixed solution.

Electro-driven separation performance of the coated TFC NPMs as ACMs

The PDA/PEI coated NPMs were used as ACMs to replace the AEMs in the conventional electrodriven separation performance (Fig. 3). During the electrodriven membrane-based separation, sufficient desalination of the pure NaCl solutions can be achieved using the PDA/PEI coated NPMs as ACMs (Fig. 3A). For instance, the NPM-6 membrane yielded a desalination efficiency of 99.5% for the pure NaCl solution with a minimal energy consumption of $5.86 \pm 0.10 \text{ kWh}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$ during 124 min of operation (Fig. 3B and 3C), which was comparable to commercial AEMs (Fig. S14B, S14D and S14E). This demonstrates the impressive anion transfer capacity of the PDA/PEI coated NPMs for desalination (Fig. 3D). The remarkable anion transfer enhancement of the PDA/PEI coated TFC NPMs was mainly attributed to two factors: (i) sufficient nano-channels and short ion diffusion pathways caused by the intrinsically thin selective layer of the PDA/PEI coated TFC NPMs that enable effective anion transfer under the electric field; (ii) the reduced negative charge density of the PDA/PEI coated TFC NPMs intensifies the shielding effect and thus lowers the energy barrier (i.e., electrostatic repulsion) between anions and the membrane surface for anion transfer. Although commercial AEMs with a non-porous structure generally have abundant positively-charged quaternary ammonium group sites, their thickness is in the hundreds of micrometers, which provides a longer ion diffusion pathway for anion transfer (Fig. S14C). Therefore, such an improvement in anion

conductivity of the PDA/PEI coated TFC NPMs provides an important conceptual framework for the facile design of cost-effective ACMs.

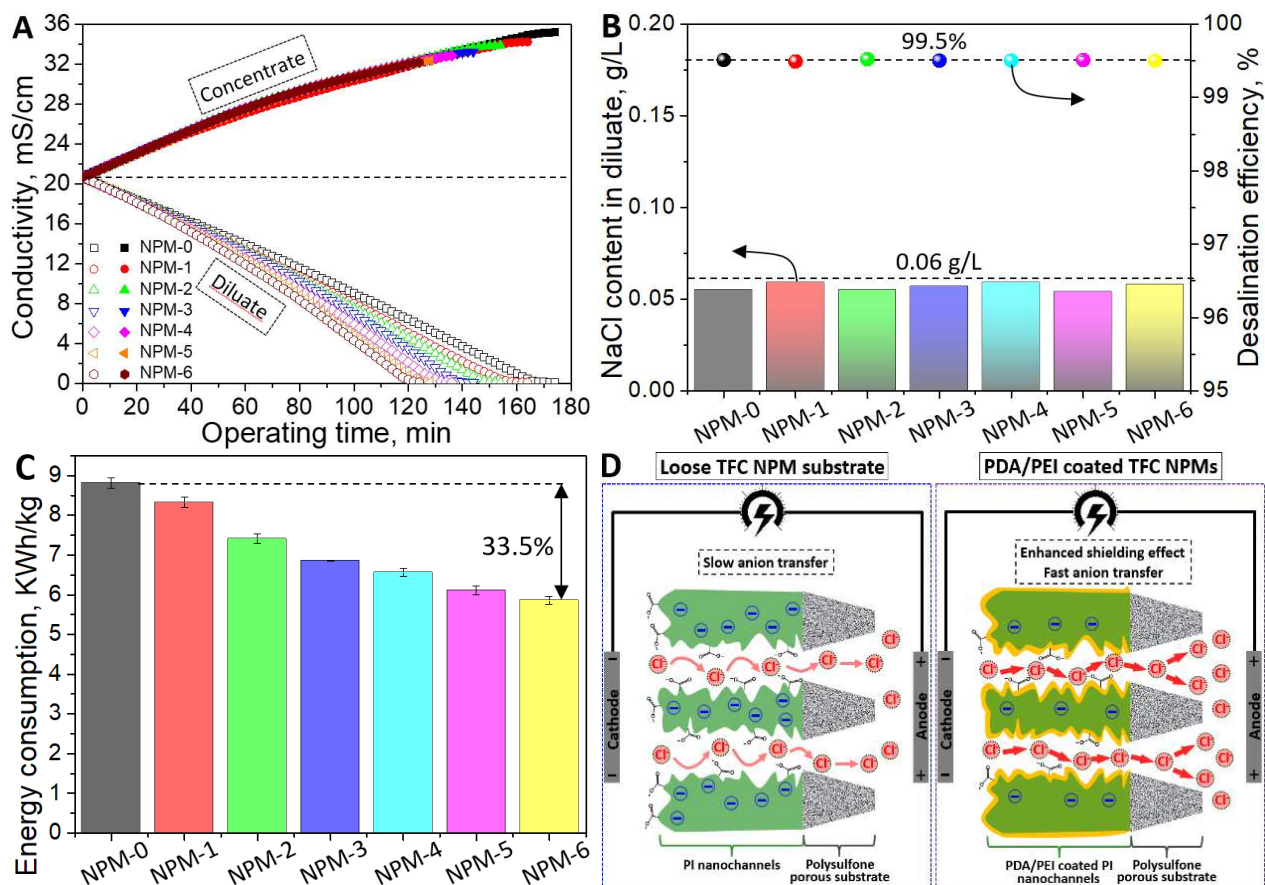


Fig. 3. Electrodialytic separation performance of the PDA/PEI-coated TFC NPMs in pure NaCl solution (about 12.0 g·L⁻¹) at a current of 0.5 A. (A) Evolution of conductivity in both concentrate and diluate, (B) NaCl concentration in the diluate and desalination efficiency, (C) energy consumption, (D) illustration of anion transfer pathway through the TFC NPMs during the electrodialytic separation.

In addition, we examined the fractionation efficacy of the PDA/PEI coated TFC NPMs (i.e., NPM-6) in the antibiotic/NaCl mixed solutions under an electric field. Sufficient anion transfer capacity imparted the NPM-6 membrane with a desalination efficiency of >99.3% for all the antibiotic/NaCl mixed solutions (Fig. 4A-4D). On the other hand, only a trace amount of organics (<10 ppm) passed to the concentrate side, suggesting sufficient fractionation of all the antibiotics (i.e., ceftriaxone sodium, cefotaxime sodium, carbenicillin disodium, and ampicillin sodium) and NaCl. Unprecedentedly high recovery efficiencies (>99.1%) of all the antibiotics were obtained from the antibiotic/NaCl mixed solutions (Table 1) during the electro-driven separation. Therefore, the PDA/PEI coated TFC NPMs with a thin nanoporous layer offer both nano-channels for effective, unperturbed anion transfer, and they substantially retain organics via an enhanced size exclusion effect, leading to a one-step fractionation of the organics and NaCl under an electric field. Furthermore, such an electro-driven separation process using the surface-engineered TFC NPMs (i.e., NPM-6) as ACMs markedly outperformed the pressure-driven diafiltration process using the NPM-6 membrane as a nanofiltration membrane (Table S4) for fractionation of the organics and NaCl in terms of organic recovery and water consumption.

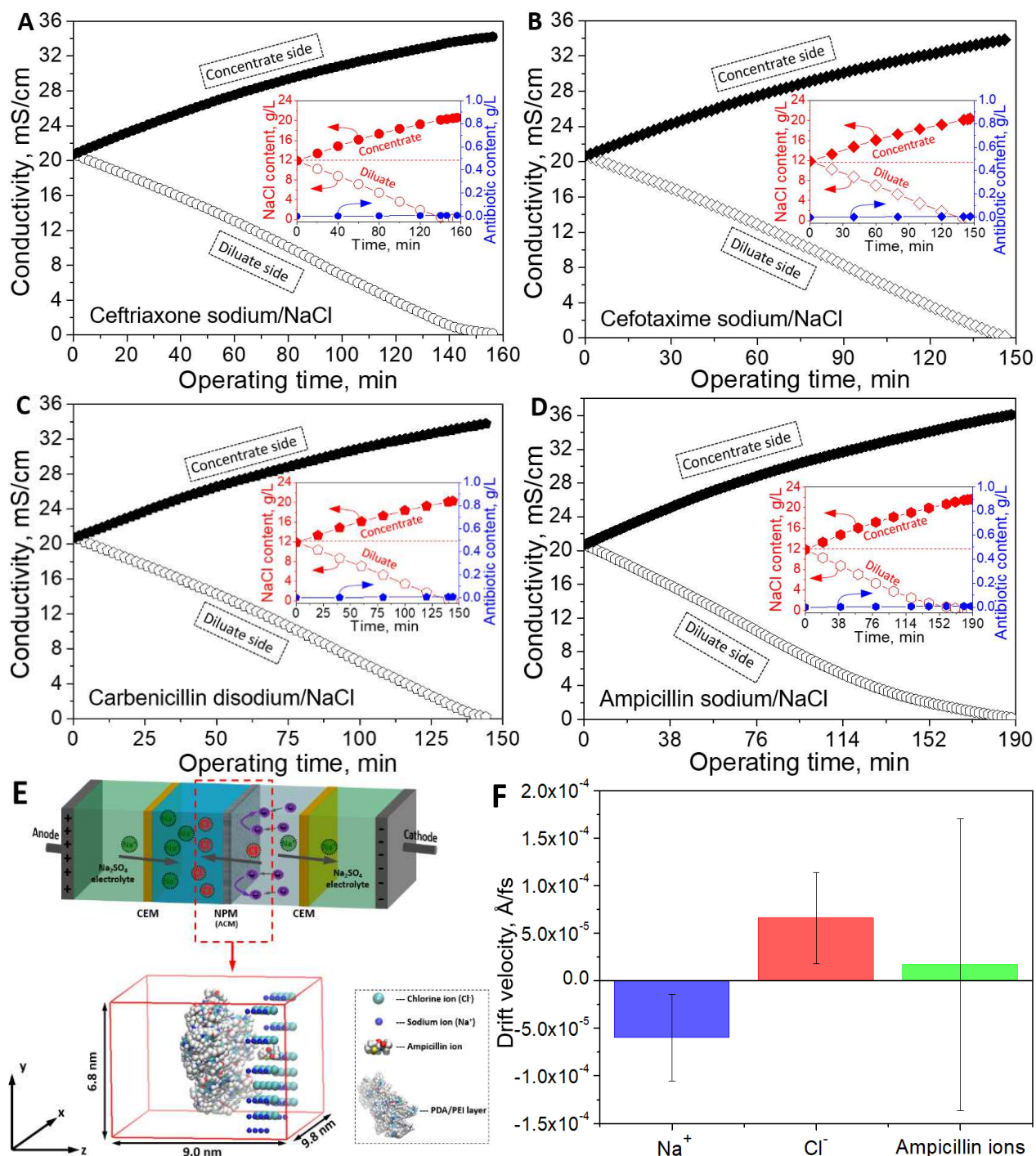


Fig. 4. (A-D) Evolution of conductivity in the concentrate and diluate during fractionation of antibiotic and NaCl in the ceftriaxone sodium/NaCl, cefotaxime sodium/NaCl, carbenicillin disodium/NaCl and ampicillin sodium/NaCl mixed solutions, respectively, by electro-driven process using the NPM-6 membrane at a current of 0.5 A (inset: content of NaCl in both concentrate and diluate and content of antibiotic in the concentrate), (E) details of the MD simulation domain (note that water molecules are not shown in the simulation domain for clarity), (F) drift velocity of Na⁺, Cl⁻ and ampicillin ions with samples collected at every 200-fs interval for the last 0.2 ns of the MD system run.

Table 1. Performance overview of electro-driven separation process using PDA/PEI coated NPM (i.e., NPM-6) for one-step fractionation of antibiotics and NaCl

Organics/NaCl mixtures	NaCl content in diluate, g·L ⁻¹	Desalination efficiency, %	Recovery of antibiotics, %
Ceftriaxone sodium/NaCl	0.076	99.36	99.28
Cefotaxime sodium/NaCl	0.08	99.33	99.26
Carbenicillin disodium/NaCl	0.083	99.30	99.21
Ampicillin sodium/NaCl	0.078	99.35	99.11

Fouling propensity of the coated TFC NPMs during electro-driven separation

To challenge long-term viability of the PDA/PEI-coated NPMs for fractionation of the antibiotic/NaCl mixed solutions, the fouling propensity of the NPM-6 membrane based on a six-cycle electro-driven separation operation was investigated (**Fig. 5**). Nearly identical performance in each cycle for fractionation of antibiotics (i.e., ceftriaxone sodium) and NaCl was observed in this six-cycle electro-driven separation operation, featuring the superior long-term stability of TFC NPM with a consistently high desalination efficiency over several cycles (about 99.3%) (**Fig. 5A** and **5B**). Such an extremely low fouling propensity of the NPM-6 membrane was further demonstrated by the modest increase in its specific areal electric resistance after a six-cycle electro-driven separation operation (**Fig. 5B**). In summary, the outstanding overall fractionation performance of the NPM-6 membrane can be explained by its relatively small pore size, which sufficiently retained the organics and impeded the penetration of the organics into the inner pore structure from the blockage of its nano-channels, eventually guaranteeing effective anion transfer and recovery of the organics (>99.2%) (**Fig. 5C** and **5D**). Moreover, the negatively-charged surface of the NPM-6 membrane aided in electrostatic repulsion of the organics to some extent, lowering the fouling propensity.

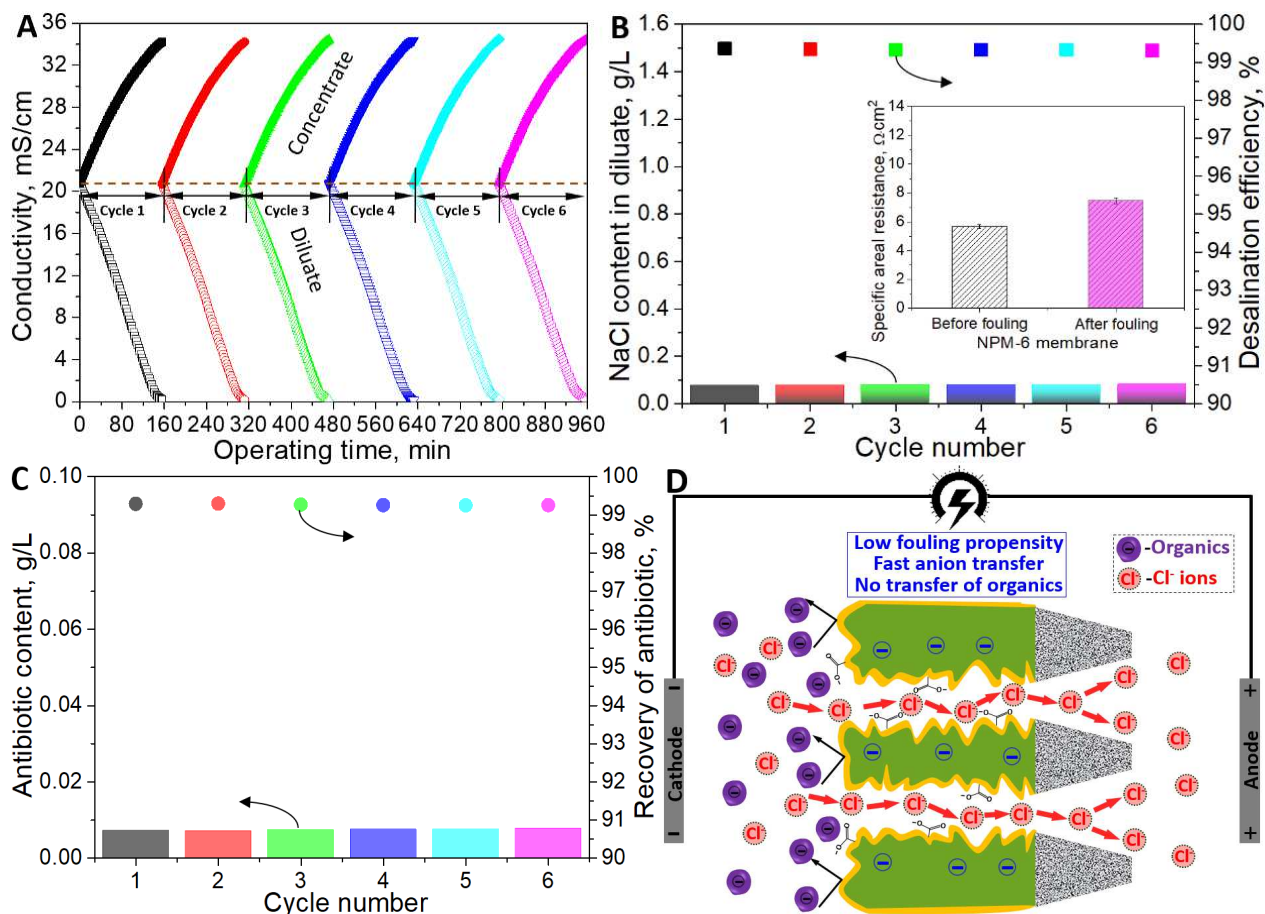


Fig. 5. Six-cycle electrodialytic separation process using the NPM-6 membrane as ACM for fractionation of the ceftriaxone sodium/NaCl mixed solution. (A) Evolution of conductivity in the concentrate and diluate, **(B)** content of NaCl in the diluate and its desalination efficiency (inset: specific areal electric resistance of NPM-6 before and after fouling), **(C)** content of ceftriaxone sodium in the concentrate and its recovery rate, **(D)** schematics of anion transfer of the NPM-6 membrane during electrodialytic fractionation of ceftriaxone sodium and NaCl.

Discussion

Unlike the AEMs with positively-charged group sites, the PDA/PEI coated TFC NPMs provide enhanced electrodialytic transfer of anions by intensifying the charge shielding effect. Furthermore, we performed MD simulations of ion transfer to further elucidate the mass transport mechanism of the PDA/PEI coated TFC NPMs in electrodiagnosis (**Fig. 4E-4F** and **Movies S1-S3**). When the electric field was applied across the PDA/PEI coated TFC NPMs, we observed that Cl⁻ ions move toward the anode through the PDA/PEI coated NPMs, while Na⁺ ions move toward the cathode (**Movies S1** and **S2**). Additionally, the calculated negative drift velocity of Cl⁻ ions and positive drift velocity of Na⁺ ions (**Fig. 4F**) demonstrate the moving direction of Cl⁻ and Na⁺ ions under the electric field. Although there is a weak electrostatic repulsion between the slight negatively-charged PDA/PEI complex layer and negatively-charged Cl⁻ ions, the applied electric field is sufficiently strong to overcome the electrostatic repulsion, allowing the Cl⁻ ions to pass through the PDA/PEI complex layer of the coated TFC NPMs. In contrast, ampicillin ions as model organics had a smaller drift velocity of $1.7E-5 \text{ \AA/fs}$ with a larger standard deviation (i.e., $1.5E-4 \text{ \AA/fs}$), implying that ampicillin ions move much more haphazardly and are not oriented toward a fixed pole (**Movie S3**). Therefore, the movement of the ampicillin ions is not significantly influenced by the strong electric field applied. Due to the size exclusion effect, the ampicillin ions can be effectively retained by the PDA/PEI coated NPMs and remain in the diluate side. Consequently, the ampicillin and Cl⁻ ions could be effectively separated. Therefore, the MD simulation further confirms the superiority of the

313 electro-dialytic separation process using the PDA/PEI coated TFC NPMs as ACMs for effective
314 fractionation of organics and NaCl.

315 Generally, the conventional electro-dialysis units equipped with AEMs are a platform technology
316 for desalination of hypersaline organic-rich solutions. However, the commercial AEMs (i.e., AEM-
317 1) suffered from serious membrane fouling for a six-cycle electro-dialytic separation operation
318 during the fractionation of the antibiotics (i.e., ceftriaxone sodium) and NaCl in the antibiotic/NaCl
319 mixed solution (**Fig. S15**). This was mainly attributed to the electrostatic attraction between
320 negatively charged organics (i.e., ceftriaxone ions) and positively-charged quaternary ammonium
321 group sites of the AEMs (**Fig. S15E**), which can both induce pore blockage of the AEMs and
322 substantially reduce the positive charge density of the AEMs (as reflected by remarkable boost in
323 specific areal electric resistance of AEM-1 membrane after fouling in **Fig. S15D**), which impedes
324 the anion transfer. The fouling of the commercial AEM-1 membrane required increased operation
325 duration to remove the inorganic salts (i.e., NaCl) from the feed (i.e., diluate) for each cycle with a
326 reduced desalination efficiency (**Fig. S15A**). Specifically, the desalination efficiency of the
327 commercial AEM-1 membrane declined from 98.01% to 97.50% in the ceftriaxone sodium/NaCl
328 mixed solution after the six-cycle electro-dialytic separation operation. Correspondingly, the content
329 of NaCl in the ceftriaxone sodium/NaCl mixed solution was maintained at a level of $>0.23 \text{ g}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ at
330 the six-cycle separation operation (**Fig. S15B**). On the other hand, negatively-charged ceftriaxone
331 ions inevitably transferred through the AEM-1 membrane to the concentrate side through
332 electrostatic attraction under the electric field, resulting in the high content of ceftriaxone sodium
333 ($>77 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$) in the concentrate side and low antibiotic recovery ($<92.3\%$) (**Fig. S15C**).

334 Therefore, utilization of bio-inspired PDA/PEI-coated TFC NPMs as ACMs in the electro-dialytic
335 separation process can facilitate the efficient one-step fractionation of the organic and inorganic
336 salts (i.e., NaCl) from hypersaline organic-rich solutions containing antibiotics, remarkably
337 outperforming the commercial AEMs. This proof-of-concept study sought to both effectively sieve
338 the organic and inorganic salts for resource recovery from various hypersaline organic-rich waste
339 streams and provide guidelines for facile design of bespoke, cost-effective and high-performance
340 ACMs to replace conventional high-fouling AEMs in the electro-driven separation applications for
341 sustainable management of a complex water matrix.

342 **Methods**

343 **Materials and chemicals**

344 A commercial loose poly(piperazine-amide) thin-film composite (TFC) nanoporous membrane
345 (NPM) (MWCO $682\pm 17 \text{ Da}$) was purchased from Guangdong Yinachuan Environmental
346 Technology Co., Ltd. (China) and was used as the substrate for fabrication of advanced anion
347 conducting membranes (ACMs). The commercial cation exchange membrane (i.e., CJMC-3) for
348 cation transfer in electro-dialysis was kindly supplied by ChemJoy Polymer Materials Co., Ltd.
349 (China). Four commercial anion exchange membranes (AEMs) were supplied by Guangdong
350 Yinachuan Environmental Technology Co., Ltd. (China), Shandong Tianwei Membrane
351 Technology Co., Ltd. (China), and Fumatech (Germany), which were designated as AEM-1, AEM-
352 2, AEM-3 and AEM-4, respectively. The properties of these commercial AEMs are shown in **Table**
353 **S1**.

354 Polyethylenimine (PEI, average molecular weight 600 Da , 99%) and tris(hydroxymethyl)
355 aminomethane (Tris, $>99\%$) were supplied by Shanghai Aladdin Biochemical Technology Co., Ltd.
356 (China). Dopamine hydrochloride ($>98\%$) was supplied from Sigma-Aldrich. These chemicals
357 were used as received for surface coating of the loose nanoporous membrane (NPM). Four
358 antibiotics, i.e., ceftriaxone sodium (molecular weight (MW) 598.5 Da , $>98\%$), cefotaxime sodium

359 (MW 477.5 Da, 99.5%), carbenicillin disodium (MW 422.4 Da, USP grade), and ampicillin sodium
360 (MW 371.4 Da, USP grade) were purchased from Shanghai Aladdin Biochemical Technology Co.,
361 Ltd. (China). NaCl (>99.0%) was supplied from Sigma-Aldrich. Chemicals were used as received
362 without any purification.

363 **Mussel-inspired coating of TFC NPMs**

364 The mussel-inspired coating on the loose TFC NPM substrate was performed by co-deposition of
365 dopamine and PEI as illustrated in **Fig. 1A**. The loose NPM substrate coupon was first loaded in
366 the custom-made round mold, which allowed the membrane surface to stand with its side up.
367 Subsequently, dopamine hydrochloride (2.0 g·L⁻¹) and PEI (2.0 g·L⁻¹) were homogeneously
368 dissolved in a Tris buffer solution (50 mmol·L⁻¹, pH=8.5) by vigorous stirring. Then, the as-
369 prepared dopamine/PEI mixed solution was immediately poured into the mold for mussel-inspired
370 surface coating onto the loose TFC NPM substrate. The co-deposition coating duration was fixed
371 at 0, 6, 12, 18, 24, 30, and 36 h, respectively. The resulting membranes at variable coating durations
372 were denoted as NPM-0 (pristine), NPM-1, NPM-2, NPM-3, NPM-4, NPM-5, and NPM-6,
373 respectively.

374 **Membrane characterization**

375 The surface and cross-sectional morphologies of the membranes were visualized by SEM
376 (NOVA NanoSEM 230; NOVA NanoSEM 450). The surface chemical composition of the
377 membranes was recorded by XPS with Axis Supra+ spectrometer (Kratos Analytical). The
378 selective layer thickness of the membranes was determined by AFM (Agilent 5500, USA), as
379 described in detail in the Supplementary Materials.

380 The surface hydrophilicity of the membranes was measured using an optical surface analyzer
381 (OSA200, Ningbo Scientific Instruments Company, China). The surface charge of the membranes
382 was evaluated using an electrokinetic analyzer (SurPASS, Anton Paar GmbH) in a 10.0 mmol·L⁻¹
383 NaCl electrolyte solution at pH 6.7 in terms of zeta potential. Specific areal electric resistance of
384 the membranes was detected by a custom-designed four-compartment resistance analysis cell
385 (ChemJoy Polymer Material Co., Ltd., China) in a 0.5 mol·L⁻¹ NaCl solution, as illustrated in more
386 detail in the Supplementary Materials. The pore size and MWCO of the membranes was measured
387 by separation of 0.2 g·L⁻¹ poly(ethylene glycol) solutions with various molecular weights, as
388 detailed in the Supplementary Materials.

389 **Pressure-driven separation performance tests**

390 The pressure-driven separation of the coated TFC NPMs was performed using a custom-made
391 cross-flow filtration unit at 4 bar and 25±1°C to evaluate their selectivity between the organics and
392 the inorganic salt (i.e., NaCl) (35). Initially, the TFC NPM coupon (effective area of 22.9 cm²) was
393 pre-pressurized by filtering the pure water at 6 bar to achieve a steady permeate flux. Subsequently,
394 filtration of individual pure NaCl solutions with varying concentrations (i.e., 1.0, 3.0, 7.5, and 12.0
395 g·L⁻¹) or antibiotic solutions (i.e., 1.0 g·L⁻¹ ceftriaxone sodium, cefotaxime sodium, carbenicillin
396 disodium, or ampicillin sodium) was conducted. Finally, separation of the antibiotic/NaCl mixed
397 solutions with different NaCl concentrations (e.g., up to 12.0 g·L⁻¹) was conducted to evaluate the
398 selectivity between the antibiotics and NaCl of the TFC NPMs. The rejection (*R*) of the solutes was
399 calculated using Eq. 1:

$$400 \quad R = \frac{C_f - C_p}{C_f} \quad (1)$$

where C_p and C_f are the concentration of antibiotics or NaCl present in the permeate and feed, respectively. The concentration of antibiotics was measured using a UV-vis spectrophotometer (GenesysTM 10S UV-vis spectrophotometer, Thermo Scientific) (36-39).

The selectivity (S) between Cl^- and the antibiotics for the TFC NPMs was calculated using Eq. 2 (40):

$$S = \frac{1 - R_{NaCl}}{1 - R_{organics}} \quad (2)$$

where R_{NaCl} and $R_{organics}$ are the rejection of NaCl and antibiotics for the TFC NPMs when filtering the antibiotic/NaCl mixed solutions, respectively.

To fractionate the organics (i.e., antibiotics) and NaCl by a pressure-driven separation process, a constant-volume nanofiltration-based diafiltration using a TFC NPM (i.e., NPM-6) was conducted by a custom-designed cross-flow filtration system at 4 bar and $25 \pm 1^\circ C$ (35). Specifically, a 300 mL organics/NaCl mixed solution ($1.0 \text{ g} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$ organics and $\sim 12 \text{ g} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$ NaCl) was used as feed. Pure water with various diavolume values (η , defined as the volume ratio between pure water added and the feed during diafiltration) was added into the feed at an identical rate with the permeate to keep the feed volume unchanged.

The solute rejection (R_s) of the TFC NPMs during the constant-volume nanofiltration-based diafiltration procedure was determined by Eq. 1.

The recovery rate (α) of the organics during the constant-volume nanofiltration-based diafiltration was calculated using Eq. 3:

$$\alpha = \frac{C_{\text{final, organics}}}{C_{\text{initial, organics}}} \quad (3)$$

where $C_{\text{initial, organics}}$ and $C_{\text{final, organics}}$ represent the initial and final concentration of the antibiotic in the feed, respectively.

The desalination efficiency (β) of the constant-volume nanofiltration-based diafiltration was calculated using Eq. 4:

$$\beta = 1 - \frac{C_{\text{final, NaCl}}}{C_{\text{initial, NaCl}}} \quad (4)$$

where $C_{\text{initial, NaCl}}$ and $C_{\text{final, NaCl}}$ represent the initial and final concentration of NaCl in the feed, respectively.

Electrodialytic separation performance tests

The electro-driven separation performance of the PDA/PEI coated TFC NPMs as ACMs were evaluated in a custom-designed electrodialysis cell (ChemJoy Polymer Material Co., Ltd., China), where the AEMs were replaced for anion transfer to fractionate the organics/NaCl mixed solutions (Fig. 1B). The electrodialysis cell consisted of a cathode, an anode, and a membrane stack (Fig. S14A), where three pieces of the CEM coupons and two pieces of the TFC NPMs (effective area of 19.4 cm^2 for each membrane coupon) were alternatively inserted. A $0.3 \text{ mol} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$ Na_2SO_4 solution was used as an electrolyte in both cathode and anode chambers.

Initially, 300 mL pure NaCl solution (about 12 g·L⁻¹) was used as the feed (diluate) in the electrodialytic separation at an applied current of 0.5 A to investigate the anion transfer capacity of the PDA/PEI coated TFC NPMs for desalination of pure NaCl solutions. The intermediate NaCl solution in the concentrate compartment had an identical salt concentration with the feed (diluate). To compare membrane performances of the surface-engineered TFC NPMs, four commercial AEMs (i.e., AEM-1, AEM-2, AEM-3 and AEM-4) were applied as ACMs in the designed electrodialytic separation cell for desalination of pure NaCl solutions. When the conductivity of the feed decreased to 0.16 mS·cm⁻¹, the electrodialytic separation operation was stopped immediately.

The energy consumption (E) and desalination efficiency (γ) of the electrodialytic separation process was determined by Eq. 5 and Eq. 6, respectively:

$$E = \int \frac{U \cdot I \cdot dt}{(C_{\text{initial, NaCl}}^e - C_{\text{final, NaCl}}^e) \cdot V \cdot M} \quad (5)$$

$$\gamma = 1 - \frac{C_{\text{final, NaCl}}^e}{C_{\text{initial, NaCl}}^e} \quad (6)$$

where U is the applied voltage, I is the applied current, M is the molar mass of NaCl, and V is the volume of the feed solution. $C_{\text{initial, NaCl}}^e$ and $C_{\text{final, NaCl}}^e$ represent the initial and final concentration of NaCl in the feed (diluate), respectively.

Subsequently, 300 mL antibiotic/NaCl (i.e., ceftriaxone sodium/NaCl, cefotaxime sodium/NaCl, carbenicillin disodium/NaCl or ampicillin sodium/NaCl) mixed solutions (1.0 g·L⁻¹ antibiotic and ~ 12 g·L⁻¹ NaCl) were further used as feed in the electrodialytic separation process using the PDA/PEI coated TFC NPMs (i.e., NPM-6) as ACMs for fractionation of antibiotics and NaCl at a current of 0.5 A. During the desalination/fractionation of the antibiotic/NaCl mixed solutions, the electrodialytic separation process was terminated as the conductivity of the feed dropped below 0.2 mS·cm⁻¹.

Finally, the fouling propensity of the PDA/PEI coated TFC NPMs was further investigated with a six-cycle electrodialytic membrane separation operation using the ceftriaxone sodium/NaCl mixed solution as feed to verify the stability of the surface-engineered TFC NPMs (i.e., NPM-6) as ACMs for practical one-step fractionation of organics and NaCl. Additionally, the electro dialysis process equipped with the commercial AEMs (i.e., AEM-1) was conducted using the ceftriaxone sodium/NaCl mixed solution as feed in the six-cycle electrodialytic separation process under the same testing conditions, highlighting the superiority of the surface engineered TFC NPMs for fractionation of antibiotics and NaCl.

The desalination efficiency (γ) during the electrodialytic separation process for fractionation of antibiotics and NaCl was determined using Eq. 6.

The recovery rate (δ) of the antibiotics during the electrodialytic separation process for fractionation of antibiotics and NaCl was calculated using Eq. 7:

$$\delta = 1 - \frac{C_{\text{final, organics}}^e}{C_{\text{initial, organics}}^e} \quad (7)$$

471 where $C_{\text{initial, organics}}^{\text{e}}$ is the initial concentration of the antibiotics in the feed and $C_{\text{final, organics}}^{\text{e}}$ is the
472 final concentration of the antibiotics in the concentrate compartment.

473 **Molecular dynamics simulation**

474 To explore the mass transport mechanism of the PDA/PEI coated TFC NPMs in electrodialysis, we
475 simulated the transfer behavior of different ions (i.e., Cl^- , Na^+ and ampicillin ions) under an applied
476 electric field through MD. A more detailed description of the MD simulations can be found in the
477 Supplementary Materials.

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587 J.L., W.Y., M.X. and Y.M.L. conceived the idea and designed the research. J.L., W.Y., S.X., J.D.,
588 R.L., X.C., and Z.Y. prepared the PDA/PEI coated TFC NPMs and performed the pressure-driven
589 and electro-driven separation experiments. E.Y.M.A., W.T., D.D.H. and T.Y.N. performed the MD
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