

# Novel Dopamine-Modified Cellulose Acetate Ultrafiltration Membranes with Improved Separation and Antifouling Performances

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## Research Article

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2 **with improved separation and antifouling performances**

3

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6

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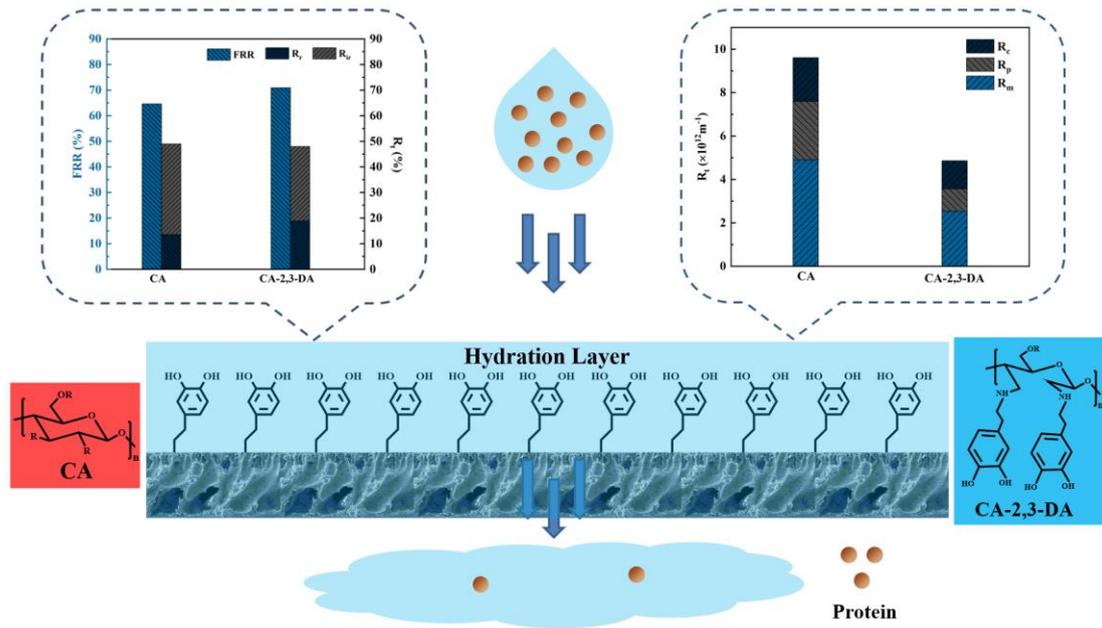
11 X. Ma and H. Guo contributed equally.

12

13 **Abstract** Cellulose derivatives are the earliest and most widely used membrane materials due to  
14 its many excellent characteristics, especially chemical activity and biodegradability. However, the  
15 hydrophobic properties of cellulose acetate (CA) limited its development to some extent. To  
16 improve the inherent hydrophobic and antifouling properties of the CA membrane, CA was  
17 successfully modified with dopamine (CA-2,3-DA) through selective oxidation and Schiff base  
18 reactions in this work, which was confirmed by <sup>1</sup>H NMR and FTIR measurements. And then, the  
19 CA-2,3-DA membrane with high water permeability and the excellent antifouling property was  
20 prepared by the phase inversion method. Compared with the primordial CA membrane, the  
21 CA-2,3-DA membrane maintained a higher rejection rate for BSA (92.5%) while greatly  
22 increasing the pure water flux (167.3 L/m<sup>2</sup>h), which could be overcome the trade-off relationship  
23 between selectivity and permeability of the traditional CA membrane to a certain extent.  
24 According to the three-cycles dynamic ultrafiltration and static protein adsorption experiments, the  
25 CA-2,3-DA membrane showed good long-term performance stability and superior antifouling  
26 performance, which was supported by the experiment results including filtration resistance, flux  
27 decline ratio and flux recovery ratio. It is expected that this approach can greatly expand the  
28 high-value utilization of modified natural organic polysaccharides in separation engineering.

29

30 **Graphical abstract**



31

32

33 **Keywords** Ultrafiltration membrane • Antifouling property • Dopamine • Cellulose acetate

34

35

36 **Introduction**

37 Membrane separation technology is composed of membrane distillation (MD), reverse osmosis  
38 (RO), nanofiltration (NF), ultrafiltration (UF), and microfiltration (MF), which has the  
39 characteristics of high separation efficiency, low energy consumption, and no pollution to the  
40 environment (Mokhena et al. 2017). In the context of global water resource shortage and  
41 deteriorating natural conditions, membrane separation technology as an efficient means of water  
42 treatment has attracted widespread attention. Among them, the molecular weight cutoff of  
43 ultrafiltration membrane can be controlled in 10<sup>3</sup>~10<sup>6</sup> Da, and the pore size can be adjusted in the  
44 range of 10~100 nm (Karami et al. 2020), which can effectively intercept proteins, viruses, dyes  
45 and other macromolecules, etc. In the current global outbreak of COVID-19, the unique  
46 advantages of ultrafiltration membranes are further highlighted. Due to its many advantages,  
47 ultrafiltration technology has been diffusely employed in effluent treatment, oil-water separation,  
48 biomedicine and the food industry (Park et al. 2017). The membrane material is the main factor to  
49 determine the membrane performance. Currently, polymer materials including cellulose and its

50 derivatives (Oprea and Voicu 2020), polysulfone (Liu and Kim 2011), polyolefins (Wang et al.  
51 2020) and fluorinated materials (Yu et al. 2021) are most widely used in the field of membrane  
52 separation technology. However, due to the inherent hydrophobic properties of these membrane  
53 materials, they are easily contaminated during ultrafiltration process (Li et al. 2015).

54 Membrane fouling augments the filtration resistance, and even clogs the membrane hole, thus  
55 reducing the filtration efficiency, shortening the service life, greatly increasing the operating cost  
56 of membrane modules (Wang and Liu 2021; Zhang et al. 2012). To some extent, it hinders the  
57 application and development of membrane technology. To improve antifouling performance,  
58 various methods such as additive blending (Zhu et al. 2015), surface coating (Yang et al. 2012)  
59 and chemical modification (Keating et al. 2016; Liu et al. 2017) have been studied. In addition to  
60 the above research strategies, dopamine as an exciting candidate material in the field of separation  
61 technology is also increasingly concerned. Dopamine is a small molecule containing both  
62 alkylamine and catechol groups (Cheng et al. 2020), which is often used as an additive to blend  
63 with polymer matrix to improve the hydrophilicity of various membranes. Tian et al. prepared  
64 polydopamine modified MoS<sub>2</sub> (MoS<sub>2</sub>@PDA) blend polyethersulfone ultrafiltration membrane.  
65 The membrane has excellent water permeability and selectivity, especially the rejection ratio of  
66 Janus Green B is as high as 99.88% (Tian et al. 2021). Mu et al. modified hydroxyapatite  
67 nanotubes via polydopamine and polyethylenimine co-deposition (HANTs@PDA/PEI), and added  
68 them to carboxylated polysulfone matrix to prepare ultrafiltration membrane. The results showed  
69 that compared with the unfilled membrane, the pure water flux of the hybrid membrane increased  
70 by 3.2 times, and the flux recovery ratio for BSA solutions reached 90.8% while achieving high  
71 flux (Mu et al. 2020). Parashuram et al. fabricated hybrid ultrafiltration membranes using different  
72 sulfonated functionalized polydopamine (SPDA) loading levels with polyethersulfone as polymer  
73 matrix, which significantly improved the antifouling performance of the membrane (Kallem et al.  
74 2021). In some ways, although additive blending modification has significant advantages, there is  
75 generally no chemical bond between additive and polymer matrix, which makes modifiers easy to  
76 migrate, deteriorating the membrane selectivity and long-term stability.

77 Dopamine shows great potential in surface modification of water purification membrane  
78 because it provides a facile route to hydrophilization of the membrane surfaces to improve its  
79 antifouling performance. Choi et al. fabricated multifunctional coating materials with biofouling

80 and oil-fouling-resistant and bactericidal properties using monomers containing mussel-inspired  
81 dopamine and plant-based cardanol groups (Choi et al. 2014). Chen et al. used polydopamine to  
82 graft activated GO nanosheets onto ultrafiltration membranes to enhance their antifouling  
83 properties (Chen et al. 2020). Li et al. reported a method for the modification of mussel-inspired  
84 polyvinylidene fluoride (PVDF) membranes by inkjet printing with dopamine and then under UV  
85 light irradiation. The optimized membrane exhibited superior oil/water separation efficiency and  
86 antifouling performances, and the oil rejection ratio is more than 99% (Li et al. 2021). The above  
87 methods of surface modification have a significant effect on improving membrane performance in  
88 a short time (Xie et al. 2021). However, due to the self-polymerization and migration of dopamine  
89 in the process of modification and use, it agglomerates on the surface of the membrane and thus  
90 leads to the stoppage of membrane pore channels. Meanwhile, the surface modification method  
91 has poor repeatability, and it is difficult to achieve large-scale industrial production. Therefore,  
92 there is an urgent need for a kind of membrane material that not only has long-term stable  
93 separation and antifouling performances but also can realize continuous large-scale production.

94 Cellulose is a natural polymer with the largest reserves in nature. The hydroxyl group in the  
95 molecule has strong reactivity and is easy to undergo chemical modification such as esterification  
96 (Rafieian et al. 2020) and amidation (Zhou et al. 2021) to prepare cellulose derivative for different  
97 applications. Among them, cellulose acetate (CA) obtained by acetylation part of a hydroxyl group  
98 on cellulose is a promising membrane material with good pore-forming performance, high  
99 selectivity and large water flux, etc (Silva et al. 2021). Also, because cellulose acetate is the  
100 product of incomplete esterification and contains a large number of active sites, it has broad room  
101 for further modification. Given the above-mentioned advantages of cellulose acetate and  
102 dopamine, this paper reported a novel material that CA was successfully modified with dopamine  
103 (CA-2,3-DA) through selective oxidation and Schiff base reactions. Then, CA-2,3-DA and CA  
104 were used as raw materials to prepare ultrafiltration membranes, and the CA membrane was the  
105 control group. The experimental results showed that the introduction of dopamine can  
106 significantly enhance comprehensive separation and antifouling performances of the membrane.  
107 CA-2,3-DA is expected to be widely adopted in various industrial purification and separation  
108 fields, thereby realizing the deep and high value-added utilization of cellulose derivative materials.

109

110 **Experimental Part**

111

112 **Materials**

113

114 Cellulose acetate (CA, 39 wt% acetyl), dopamine hydrochloride, polyvinylpyrrolidone (PVP 30K)  
115 and sodium periodate were all supplied by Aladdin Reagent, China. Phosphate buffer solution  
116 (PBS, pH=7.4, 0.1 mol/L) and bovine serum albumin (BSA) were purchased by Dingguo  
117 BioTechnology Co. Ltd. (China). Calcium chloride, sodium borohydride and N,N-dimethyl  
118 acetamide (DMAc), were used as received from Beijing Chemical Reagent, China.

119

120 **Preparation of dopamine-modified cellulose acetate (CA-2,3-DA)**

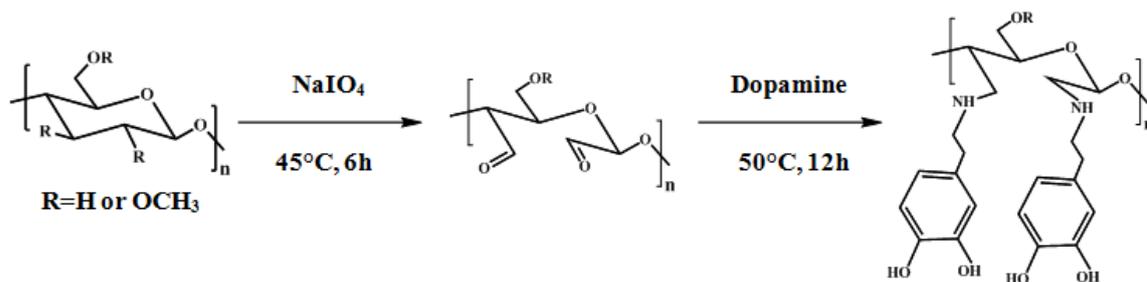
121

122 The preparation of dopamine-modified cellulose acetate involves two steps: selective oxidation  
123 and Schiff base reactions. The specific process is shown in [scheme 1](#).

124 Dialdehyde acetate cellulose (DAC): Under nitrogen atmosphere and light-proof conditions,  
125 15 g cellulose acetate was suspended in 300 mL deionized water. Then, 15 g of sodium periodate  
126 and 22.5 g of calcium chloride were added to the system and stirred at 45 °C . After 6 h, 75 mL of  
127 glycol was added to react with excess sodium periodate in the system. After the reaction was  
128 complete (about 0.5 h), the sublayer precipitation was separated and cleaned repeatedly with  
129 deionized water. Finally, vacuum drying was performed.

130 CA-2,3-DA: First, 3.0 g of DAC was dissolved in 30 mL DMAc. Then, 1.0 g of dopamine  
131 hydrochloride was slowly added to the solution, which reacted for 12 h at 50 °C. Then, 0.45 g of  
132 sodium borohydride was added to the system to continue the reaction for 3 hours. After the  
133 reaction, the products were washed thoroughly in distilled water and ethanol respectively and  
134 dried at 60 °C for 12h under vacuum to obtain the final CA-2,3-DA.

135



136

137 **Scheme 1.** Preparation route of CA-2,3-DA.

138

139 Preparation of ultrafiltration membrane

140

141 The polymer (CA or CA-2,3-DA, 15 wt%) and pore-forming agent PVP (3 wt%) were dissolved in  
 142 DMAc (82 wt%) to prepare the casting solution. When there were no bubbles in the system, used  
 143 a casting knife having a thickness of approximately 200  $\mu\text{m}$  to evenly spread the casting solution  
 144 on a clean glass plate. To evaporate the solvent, put it in the air for a period of time, and  
 145 transferred it into deionized water to allow the solvent, pore-forming agent and non-solvent to  
 146 diffuse in both directions. Two prepared membranes were rinsed several times by deionized water  
 147 to wash away the residual solvent and water-soluble pore-former, and then preserved in fresh  
 148 ultrapure water for further characterizations.

149

150 Characterization

151

152 Bruker Vertex 80V FTIR and Bruker 510  $^1\text{H}$  NMR spectrometer were applied to explore the  
 153 chemical structure changes of CA before and after modification. The thermal stability of CA and  
 154 CA-2,3-DA were analyzed by TGA (Perkin-Elmer Pyris 1) in the nitrogen atmosphere, and the  
 155 heating rate was 10  $^\circ\text{C}/\text{min}$ . SEM (JEOL JSM-7500F) was used to characterize the surface and  
 156 cross-section morphology of the ultrafiltration membrane. The sample section was obtained by the  
 157 liquid nitrogen freezing fracture method, and gold spraying was performance before imaging.

158 To obtain pure water contact angle (WCA) data, samples are measured by a contact angle  
 159 goniometer (KRUSS GMBH, Hamburg 100). Each sample was tested more than five times. Based  
 160 on the WCA data, the surface free energy can be calculated by the following formula:

$$\cos\theta = -1 + 2 \sqrt{\frac{\gamma_s}{\gamma_l}} e^{-\beta(\gamma_s - \gamma_l)^2} \quad (1)$$

161

162 Where  $\beta$  is a constant of 0.0001247,  $\theta$  stands for contact Angle.  $\gamma_l$  and  $\gamma_s$  are the surface free  
 163 energy of the feed and membrane, respectively.

164 By weighing the mass of the membrane in both dry and wet conditions, the total porosity of the  
 165 membrane is calculated according to the formula below:

$$\varepsilon = \frac{m_w - m_d}{\rho_w A l} \quad (2)$$

166

167 Where  $m_w$  and  $m_d$  are dry and wet weights of the membrane respectively (g),  $A$  and  $l$  are  
 168 the area (cm<sup>2</sup>) and thickness ( $\mu$ m) of membrane respectively, and  $\rho_w$  is the density of pure water  
 169 (g/cm<sup>3</sup>).

170 The Guerout-Elford-Ferry equation was applied to calculate the mean pore diameter of the  
 171 membrane (Guo et al., 2020):

$$r_m = \sqrt{\frac{(2.9 - 1.75\varepsilon) \times 8\eta l Q}{\varepsilon \times A \times \Delta P}} \quad (3)$$

172

173 Where  $\eta$  is the viscosity of water,  $Q$  is the penetration rate of pure water(m<sup>3</sup>/s), and  $\Delta P$  is the  
 174 operation pressure (0.1MPa).

175

176 Performance test of ultrafiltration membrane

177

178 *Static protein adsorption property tests*

179

180 First, the ultrafiltration membrane of a certain size was immersed in PBS, and ultrasound  
 181 treatment was performed for 10 minutes. Then, this ultrafiltration membrane was tested for  
 182 adsorption in BSA-PBS (1.0 g/L). At the end of the adsorption process, according to the  
 183 Lambert-Beer's law, the concentrations of the BSA-PBS solution before and after the adsorption  
 184 were measured with a UV-vis spectrophotometer (UV3600, Shimadzu) to obtain the total  
 185 adsorption amount of BSA on the membrane.

186

187 *Dynamic separation performance tests*

188

189 A three-cycle dynamic ultrafiltration experiment was performed in a dead-end filtration apparatus  
190 to study the separation and antifouling performances of the two kinds of membranes. To obtain  
191 stable permeation flux, each membrane was pressurized with deionized water at 0.15 MPa for 30  
192 min. Subsequently, ultrafiltration operation was conducted for 1 h with pure water as the feed  
193 solution at a pressure of 0.1 MPa. During this period, the quality of filtrate was recorded every 5  
194 min. The pure water flux ( $J_w$ , L/m<sup>2</sup>h) of the ultrafiltration membrane can be calculated according  
195 to the following formula:

$$J = \frac{V}{At} \quad (4)$$

196 Where  $A$  is the effective filtration area (m<sup>2</sup>), and  $V$  represents the penetration volume (L) of  
197 liquid produced by the membrane over the sampling time interval  $t$  (h). Subsequently, the  
198 BSA-PBS solution was used as the feed solution, and the ultrafiltration process was conducted for  
199 1 h at 0.1 MPa. During this period, the water flux of the protein solution ( $J_p$ , L/m<sup>2</sup>h) was measured  
200 every 5 min. Meanwhile, the protein rejection ratio ( $R$ ) of the ultrafiltration membrane can be  
201 calculated by the following formula:

$$R(\%) = \left(1 - \frac{C_p}{C_f}\right) \times 100\% \quad (5)$$

202 Among them,  $C_p$  and  $C_f$  represent the concentrations of permeate and feed solutions respectively.  
203 To evaluate membrane antifouling property, the concepts of flux recovery ratio ( $FRR$ ), total flux  
204 decline ratio ( $R_t$ ), reversible flux decline ratio ( $R_r$ ), and irreversible flux decline ratio ( $R_{ir}$ ) was  
205 introduced, which could be calculated by the following equations (Huang et al. 2018):

$$FRR(\%) = \left(\frac{J_{w,i}}{J_{w,i-1}}\right) \times 100 \quad (6)$$

$$R_t(\%) = \left(\frac{J_{w,i-1} - J_{p,i}}{J_{w,i-1}}\right) \times 100 \quad (7)$$

$$R_r(\%) = \left(\frac{J_{w,i} - J_{p,i}}{J_{w,i-1}}\right) \times 100 \quad (8)$$

$$R_{ir}(\%) = \left(\frac{J_{w,i-1} - J_{w,i}}{J_{w,i-1}}\right) \times 100 = R_t - R_r \quad (9)$$

211 In addition, Darcy's law (Guo et al. 2020) is the basic formula describing fluid flow through  
212 porous media, which can be used to explain the relationship between membrane flux and  
213

214 membrane fouling characteristics. The calculation equations are as follows (Wang et al. 2021):

$$R_t = R_m + R_f = R_m + R_c + R_p = \frac{\Delta P}{\eta \times J_{p,i}} \quad (10)$$

$$R_m = \frac{\Delta P}{\eta \times J_{w,i-1}} \quad (11)$$

$$R_m + R_p = \frac{\Delta P}{\eta \times J_{w,i}} \quad (12)$$

218 Where  $R_f$ ,  $R_t$  and  $R_m$  are the fouling resistance, total hydraulic resistance and membrane resistance,  
219 respectively. Where  $R_f$  can be divided into  $R_c$  and  $R_p$ .  $R_c$  represents the outer cake layer resistance  
220 on the membrane surface, which is related to the reversible fouling;  $R_p$  represents the pore  
221 blocking resistance in the membrane, which is due to the irreversible fouling.

222

223

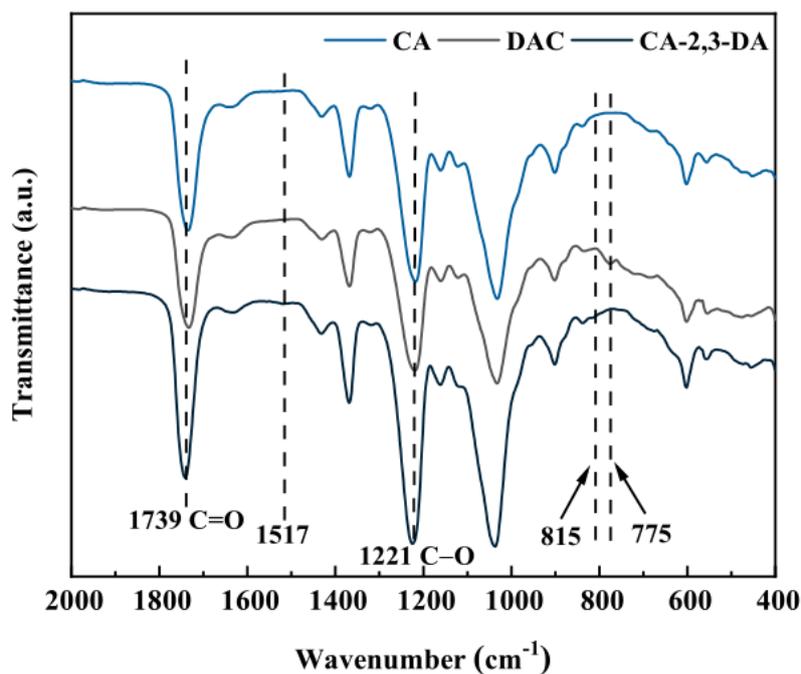
## 224 **Results and discussion**

225

226 Chemical structures of CA and CA-2,3-AD

227

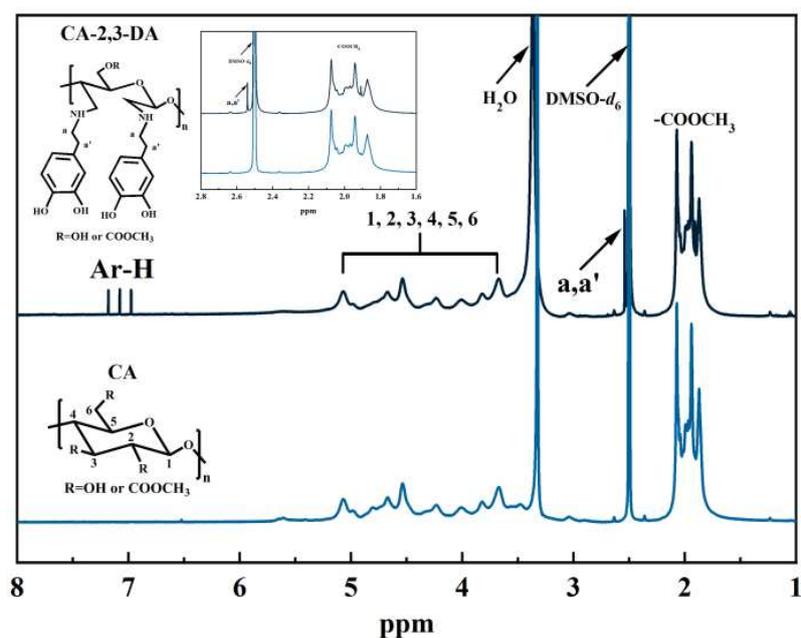
228 To have a clear understanding of the chemical structures of the prepared novel materials, FTIR  
229 was first used to characterize CA, DAC and CA-2,3-DA. As shown in Fig. 1, two characteristic  
230 absorption peaks were found at  $1739 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  (C=O) and  $1221 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  (C-O), which should be belonged  
231 to the ester group of cellulose acetate (Yu et al. 2019), so these absorption peaks existed in CA,  
232 DAC and CA-DA. Besides, as an intermediate product, DAC had an absorption peak belonging to  
233 hemiacetal at  $775 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  (Errokh et al. 2018), indicating that it has been successfully prepared. In the  
234 spectra of CA-2,3-DA, two characteristic peaks of the benzene ring appeared at  $1517$  and  $815 \text{ cm}^{-1}$   
235 (Guo et al. 2019; Li et al. 2019). This result indicated that dopamine had been successfully  
236 modified to CA.



237

238

**Fig. 1** FTIR spectra of CA, DAC, and CA-2,3-DA



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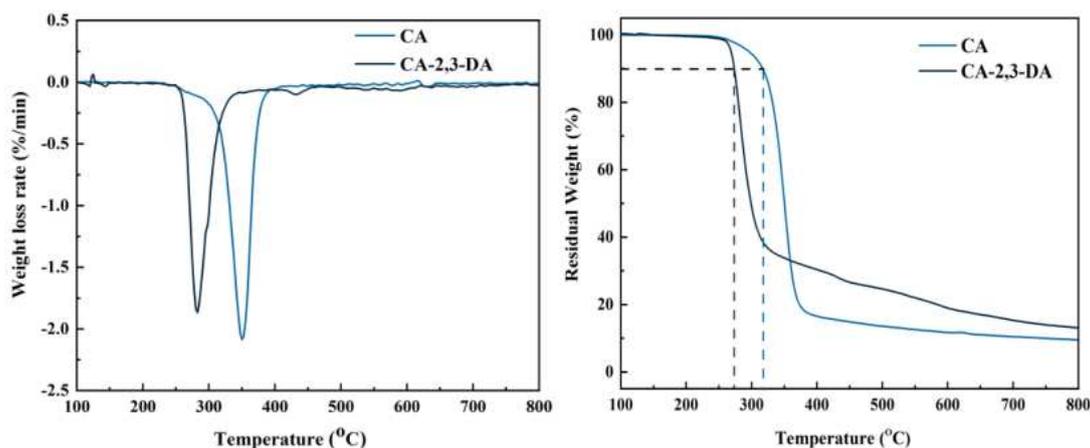
240

**Fig. 2**  $^1\text{H}$  NMR spectra of CA and CA-2,3-DA.

241  $^1\text{H}$  NMR measurement was used to further verify the chemical structure of CA-2,3-DA. As  
 242 shown in Fig. 2, compared with CA, the spectra of CA-2, 3-DA generated some new peaks at 7.10  
 243 and 2.53 ppm, which were the characteristic triplet peaks of the benzene ring and the methylene  
 244 peak in the dopamine structure, respectively (Khamrai et al. 2019; Zhong et al. 2019). Combined  
 245 with FTIR and  $^1\text{H}$  NMR characterizations, it was confirmed that CA was successfully modified by

246 dopamine.

247 Fig. 3 showed the TGA curves of CA and CA-2,3-DA. Compared with CA, the thermal  
248 decomposition temperature of CA-2,3-DA was significantly lower, which might be the  
249 degradation of polymer backbones caused by selective oxidation and decomposition of the side  
250 groups. Nevertheless, a decomposition temperature of around 250 °C is sufficient to meet the  
251 thermal stability requirements of ultrafiltration operation.



252

253 Fig. 3 TGA/DTG curves of CA and CA-2,3-DA.

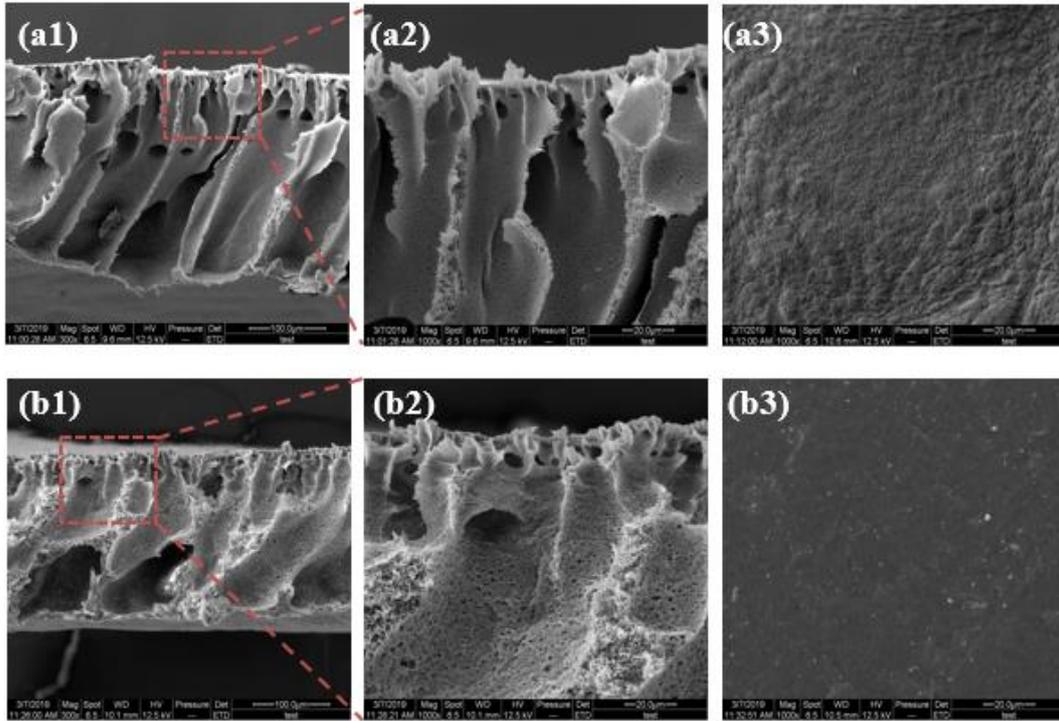
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255 Characterizations of ultrafiltration membranes

256

257 To compare the microstructures of the two types of ultrafiltration membranes, their cross-section  
258 and surface morphologies were observed by SEM. (Fig. 4). On the whole, both membranes possess  
259 dense surface layers and finger-like pore sublayers, which show the typical characteristics of  
260 asymmetric microstructure. Compared with the CA membrane, the CA-2,3-DA membrane had a  
261 larger average pore size and porosity (Table 1), and a large number of small pores were formed on  
262 the pore wall of the CA-2,3-DA membrane, which were favorable for increasing the permeability.  
263 In addition, the CA-2,3-DA membrane had a smoother surface, which could effectively reduce the  
264 adhesion and adsorption of pollutants. This result might be attributed to the fact that the  
265 introduction of the hydrophilic dopamine accelerated the phase inversion rate during membrane  
266 preparation process.

267



268

269 **Fig. 4** SEM images of the CA (a) and CA-2,3-DA (b) membranes: (1) the overall cross-section  
 270 morphology (magnification:300×), (2) the partial cross-section morphology (magnification: 1000×)  
 271 and (3) the surface morphology (magnification: 1000×).

272 **Table 1** Pore statistics, contact angles and surface energies of the CA and CA-2,3-DA membranes.

membrane	Porosity (%)	Mean pore size (nm)	Contact Angle (°)	Surface energy (mJ/m <sup>2</sup> )	BSA adsorption amount (μg/cm <sup>2</sup> )
CA	69.3	21.7	69.8	41.8	41.4
CA-2,3-DA	71.9	28.3	54.1	47.5	21.5

273 Hydrophilicity is a crucial index to measure the antifouling and permeability performance of  
 274 membrane materials. WCA is one of the most commonly used and reliable techniques to  
 275 characterize the hydrophilicity of solid surfaces. [Table 1](#) shows the WCA and surface energies of  
 276 the CA and CA-2,3-DA membranes. After modification with dopamine, the WCA of CA  
 277 membrane decreased from 69.8° to 54.1°.

278

279 Static protein adsorptions of ultrafiltration membranes

280

281 Using BSA as a model contaminant, according to the adsorption amount of protein per unit area on

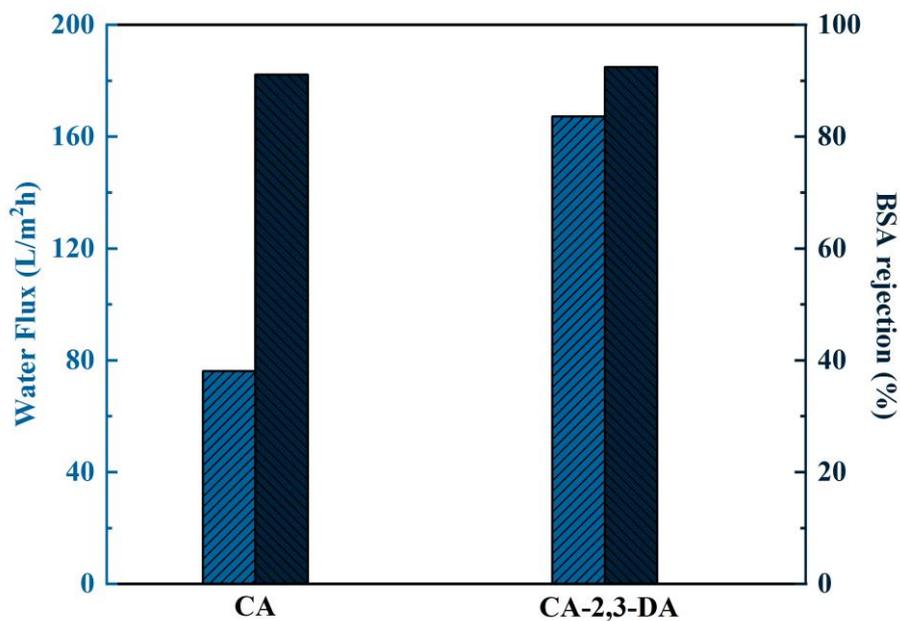
282 the membrane surface, the static antifouling performance of the ultrafiltration membrane can be  
283 measured. The experimental results are also summarized in [Table 1](#). The protein adsorption  
284 capacity of the primordial membrane was  $41.4 \mu\text{g}/\text{cm}^2$ , while that of the CA-2,3-DA membrane  
285 was significantly decreased to only  $21.5 \mu\text{g}/\text{cm}^2$ . Due to the lack of polar interaction between the  
286 CA membrane and water molecules, the hydrophobic interaction is the main contributor between  
287 the CA membrane and protein molecules, resulting in a mass of BSA adsorbed on the surface of  
288 the CA membrane. However, the BSA adsorption on the CA-2,3-DA membrane was less, due to  
289 the fact that the introduced dopamine can bind to water molecules and form a hydration layer on  
290 the membrane surface, thereby hindering the adsorption of proteins ([Khamrai et al. 2019](#)).

291

292 Separation performances of ultrafiltration membranes

293

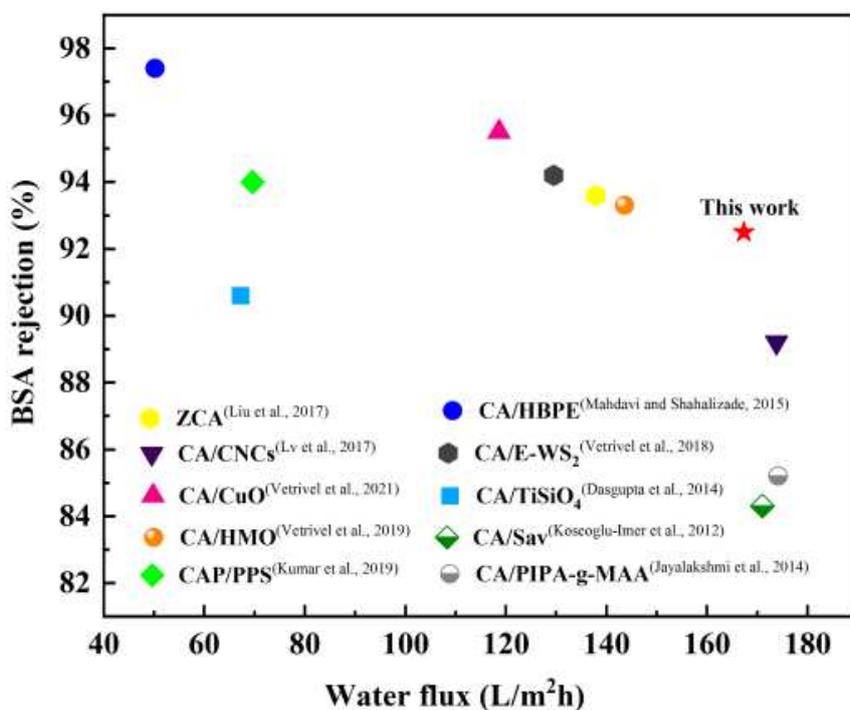
294 The separation performance of ultrafiltration membrane is mainly reflected in two aspects, the  
295 pure water flux and rejection ratio. [Fig.5](#) illustrates the experimental results of the CA and  
296 CA-2,3-DA membranes with distilled water and BSA solution as feed solutions. The water flux of  
297 the CA-2,3-DA membrane was  $167.3 \text{ L}/\text{m}^2\text{h}$ , which was about 2.2 times that of the CA membrane  
298 ( $76.1 \text{ L}/\text{m}^2\text{h}$ ). One possible explanation for the substantial increase in water flux is that the  
299 improved average pore size and of porosity the membrane, the optimized membrane  
300 microstructure morphology, and the improved membrane surface hydrophilicity jointly promote  
301 the penetration of water molecules. Meanwhile, concerning the BSA rejection ratio, both of them  
302 showed excellent performance. Compared with CA membrane, the BSA rejection ratio of  
303 CA-2,3-DA membrane increased slightly from 91.9 to 92.5%. In order to evaluate our work, we  
304 collected the recently reported the CA-based membranes for comparison, and the comparison  
305 results are shown in [Fig. 6](#). In contrast, the CA-2,3-DA membrane exhibited relatively excellent  
306 comprehensive separation performance. In general, the CA-2,3-DA membrane maintains a high  
307 BSA rejection ratio while having a high water flux, so to some extent we have overcome the  
308 long-term challenge of the trade-off relationship between selectivity and permeability in the  
309 traditional CA separation membranes.



310

311

Fig. 5 Ultrafiltration performances of the CA and CA-2,3-DA membranes.



312

313 **Fig. 6** Comparison of BSA rejections and water fluxes for the CA-based membranes reported in  
 314 the literatures with the CA-2,3-DA membrane used in this work. (Dasgupta et al. 2014;  
 315 Jayalakshmi et al. 2014; Koseoglu-Imer et al. 2012; Kumar et al. 2019; Liu et al. 2017; Lv et al.  
 316 2017; Mahdavi and Shahalizade 2015; Vetrivel et al. 2018, 2019, 2021)

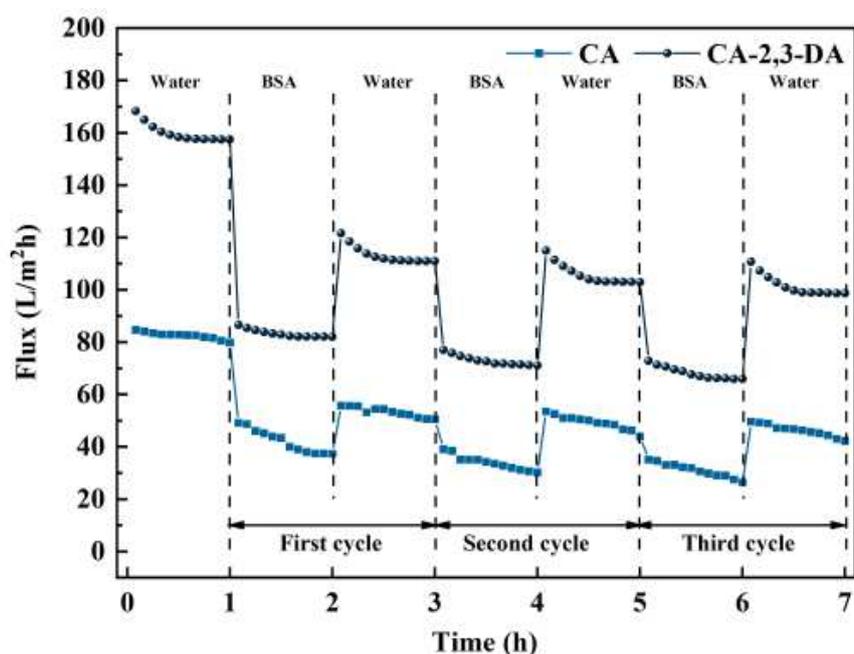
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319 Antifouling properties of ultrafiltration membranes

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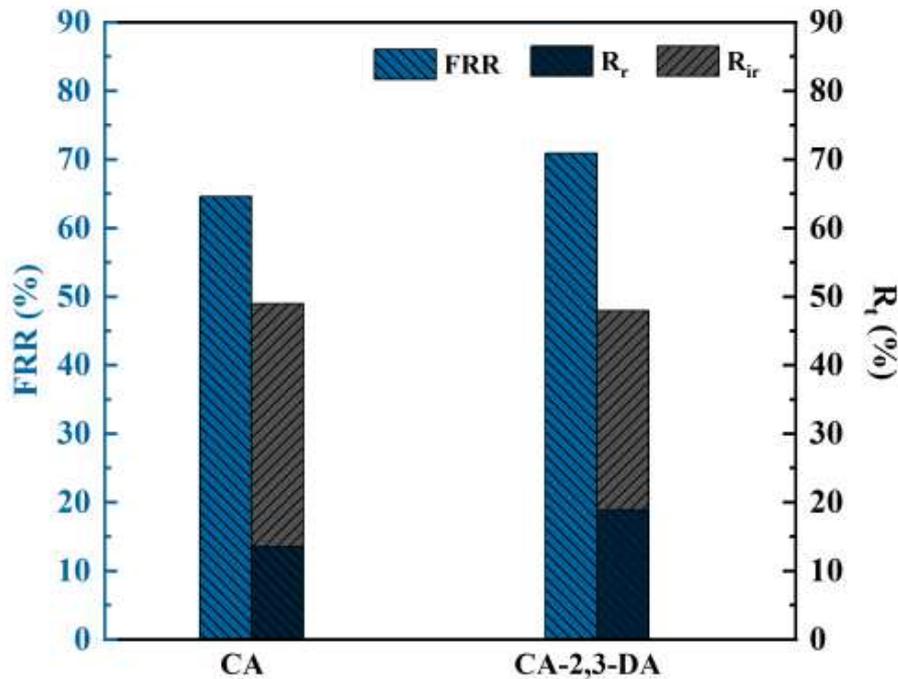
321 To evaluate the antifouling performance of the two membranes before and after modification, a  
322 three-cycle dynamic ultrafiltration experiment was performed, and the test results are shown in Fig.  
323 7. In the first cycle ends, the flux of both membranes showed a sharp decrease due to membrane  
324 fouling. After membrane cleaning, the CA-2,3-DA membrane showed a higher flux recovery ratio  
325 (70.9%) than the CA membrane (64.6%), indicating that the CA-2,3-DA membrane had greater  
326 potential in antifouling performance. Moreover, to comprehensively monitor membrane fouling,  
327 three fouling parameters such as irreversible ( $R_{ir}$ ), eversible ( $R_r$ ), and total ( $R_t$ ) flux decline ratios  
328 were calculated and depicted in Fig. 8. It was worth noting that compared with the CA membrane,  
329 the CA-2,3-DA membrane significantly increased  $R_r$  on the base of lower  $R_t$ . This indicated that  
330 the fouling layer on the CA-2,3-DA membrane surface was loose and could be removed more  
331 easily by physical washing. However, the surface contamination of the CA membrane was  
332 controlled by irreversible fouling and could only be mitigated by biological degradation or  
333 chemical washing. Consequently, the experimental results showed that the antifouling property of  
334 the CA membrane modified by dopamine had been significantly improved, which was  
335 advantageous to its application.



336

337 **Fig. 7** Time-dependent filtration fluxes of the CA and CA-2,3-DA membranes during three cycles

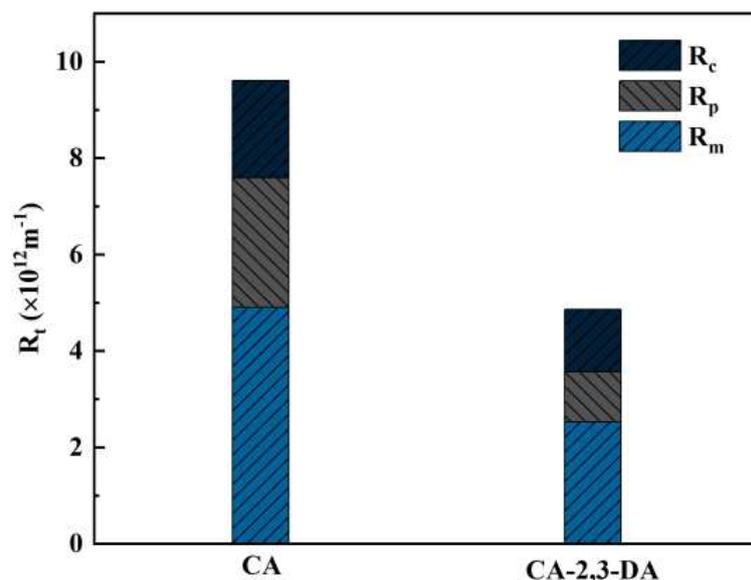
338 of the protein ultrafiltration experiment.



339

340 **Fig. 8** Summary of the flux recovery ratio ( $FRR$ ), total flux decline ratio ( $R_t = R_r + R_{ir}$ ), reversible  
341 flux decline ratio ( $R_r$ ) and irreversible flux decline ratio ( $R_{ir}$ ) of the CA and CA-2,3-DA  
342 membranes during the protein ultrafiltration experiments.

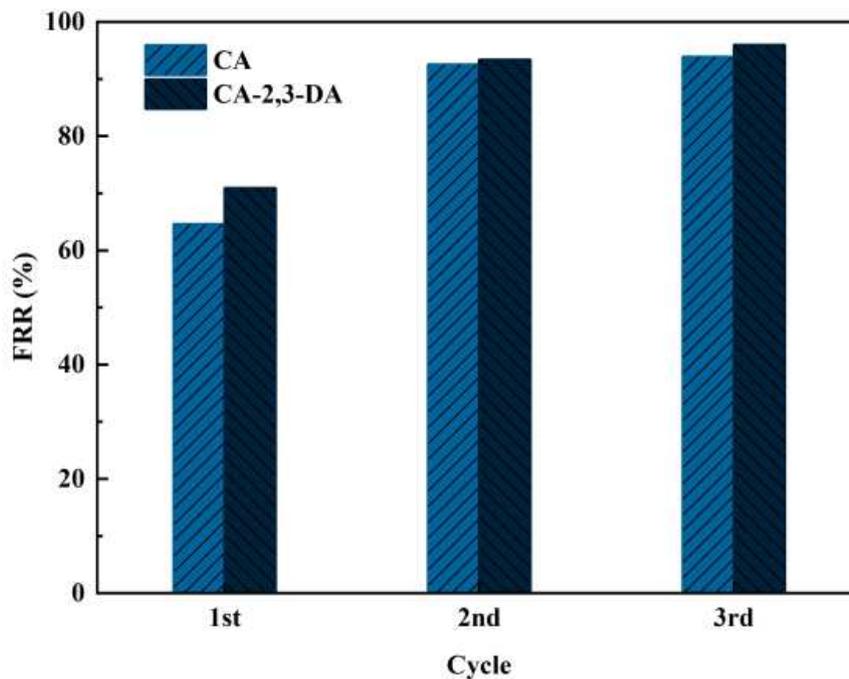
343 Through the calculation of filtration resistance, the antifouling performance of the membrane  
344 can be more objectively evaluated. As shown in Fig. 9, the  $R_t$  of the CA membrane was 2.1 times  
345 that of the CA-2,3-DA membrane, which was almost consistent with the relationship between the  
346 pure water fluxes of the two membranes mentioned above. The  $R_m$  value of the CA membrane was  
347 about 1.94 times that of the CA-2,3-DA membrane, which might be related to the intrinsic  
348 property, lower average pore size and porosity of the CA membrane. In addition, for  $R_f$  value, the  
349 CA membrane was 2.02 times of the CA-2,3-DA membrane, indicating that the degree of  
350 membrane fouling of the former was much higher than that of the latter. More importantly, for the  
351 CA-2,3-DA membranes, the  $R_c$  accounted for 55.4% of the  $R_f$ , which meant that membrane  
352 fouling was dominated by reversible fouling. The results showed that dopamine had a significant  
353 effect on improving the antifouling performance of CA membrane.



354

355 **Fig. 9** Summary of the total hydraulic resistance ( $R_t$ ), membrane resistance ( $R_m$ ), fouling  
 356 resistance ( $R_f = R_c + R_p$ ), cake layer resistance ( $R_c$ ) and pore-blocking resistance ( $R_p$ ) of the CA  
 357 and CA-2,3-DA membranes during cycles of the protein ultrafiltration experiment.

358 [Fig.10](#) shows the FRR of two prepared membranes after different cycles of the protein  
 359 ultrafiltration experiments. In the first cycle, both membranes showed relatively low *FRR* values,  
 360 64.58% for CA membrane and 70.90% for CA-2,3-DA membrane, which were caused by  
 361 membrane fouling. In the following two cycles, the *FRR* values of both membranes tended to  
 362 stabilize at a higher level, especially for the CA-2,3-DA membrane was as high as 96.0% in the  
 363 third cycle. Also, after three cycles of ultrafiltration experiments, the pure water and BSA fluxes of  
 364 the CA-2,3-DA membrane were as high as 101.6 L/m<sup>2</sup>h and 68.2 L/m<sup>2</sup>h, respectively, which were  
 365 more than 2 times higher than those of the CA membrane. The above experimental results proved  
 366 that the introduction of dopamine endowed CA membrane with outstanding long-term  
 367 performance stability and antifouling property, which was beneficial to prolong the service life  
 368 and cleaning cycle of the membrane.



369

370 **Fig. 10** The flux recovery ratios (*FRR*) of the CA and CA-2,3-DA membranes after various cycles  
 371 of the protein ultrafiltration experiment.

372

373

374 **Conclusions**

375

376 The application and development of ultrafiltration technology are largely restricted by membrane  
 377 fouling. Therefore, a scalable method for the production of antifouling membrane by the  
 378 traditional immersion precipitation phase inversion process was proposed, using a specially  
 379 designed and prepared dopamine-modified cellulose acetate (CA-2,3-DA) based on selective  
 380 oxidation and Schiff base reactions as the membrane material. In comparison to the pristine CA  
 381 membrane, the CA-2,3-DA membrane had much higher permeability with comparable selectivity.  
 382 In addition, the experimental results of three-cycle dynamic ultrafiltration and static protein  
 383 adsorption showed that CA-2,3-DA membrane had excellent antifouling performance and high  
 384 recyclability, which were supported from different angles by parameters such as the filtration  
 385 resistance, flux recovery ratio and flux decline ratio. In this study, a high-performance membrane  
 386 material was developed using green and degradable cellulose derivative materials, which greatly  
 387 expanded the high-value utilization of modified natural organic polysaccharides in separation

388 engineering and its important role in the sustainable development of human society.

389

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394

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546

547 **Declaration of interests**

548

549 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal  
550 relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

551

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