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Concentrating ammonium in wastewater by forward osmosis using surface modified nanofiltration membrane

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Water Impact Statement

Municipal wastewater contains a high concentration of nitrogen in the form of ammonium, which pollutes the environment if not properly removed before discharging. However, the engineering processes for nitrogen removal are energy intensitive. Recovery of ammonium from domestic wastewaters can covert the waste into resources. This study reports concentrating ammonium in the wastewater using a surface modified nanofiltration membrane operating in forward osmosis mode. Ammonium rejection by the modified membranes was greater than 99% for the synthetic ammonium solution.

1	Concentrating ammonium in wastewater by forward osmosis using surface modified
2	nanofiltration membrane
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17	

18 Abstract

19 Municipal wastewater contains a high concentration of nitrogen in the form of ammonium, 20 which pollutes the environment if not properly removed before discharge. However, the energy 21 intensive processes necessary to convert the biologically available forms of nitrogen into the 22 unfixed elemental form (N_2) during wastewater treatment contradict the costly industrial efforts 23 to achieve the opposite (i.e. Haber process) for production of nitrogen fertilizers for agricultural 24 uses. Recovery of ammonium from domestic wastewater should be a priority for wastewater 25 treatment plants to covert the waste into resources. This study reports developing a surface 26 modified nanofiltration membrane operating in forward osmosis mode for concentrating 27 ammonium in wastewater. Surface modification was accomplished using 28 dicyclohexylcarbodiimide (DCC) as a cross-linking agent to graft polyethylenimine (PEI) on the polyamide (PA) thin film composite (TFC) membrane. Changes in membrane surface chemical 29 30 structure and zeta potential demonstrated the successful incorporation of PEI. The modified 31 membranes had similar surface roughness to the virgin membrane but improved hydrophilicity. 32 Filtration tests using synthetic ammonium solutions demonstrated improved water flux and reduced reverse solutes (Mg²⁺ and Cl⁻ ions) flux in some of the modified membranes. All PEI 33 34 grafted membranes had improved ammonium rejection for synthetic ammonium solutions as 35 well as a secondary return activated sludge sample from a wastewater treatment plant. 36 Ammonium rejection by the modified membranes was greater than 99% for the synthetic 37 ammonium solution. The rejection rate declined to 89.3% for treating real wastewater but was 38 much improved in comparison to 75.5% rejection by the virgin membrane. PEI-modified 39 membranes present a potential technology for the collection and reuse of ammonium from 40 wastewater sources.

41 **1. Introduction**

62

42 Domestic and industrial wastewaters contain large amounts of nitrogenous compounds, including ammonia.¹⁻⁶ In fact, up to 40-50% of the total nitrogen in a municipal wastewater treatment 43 plant is in the form of ammonium ion (NH4⁺).⁷ Discharge of these nitrogenous compounds into 44 the environment can cause eutrophication of the surface waters⁸ and toxic effects on aquatic life 45 even in very low concentrations.⁹ To protect aquatic ecosystems and human health, the U.S. 46 47 Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) mandates nitrogen removal before wastewater can be discharged to the environment.¹⁰ 48 49 Biological treatments that include aerobic nitrification and anaerobic denitrification processes¹¹ are the most commonly used approaches to treat wastewater for ammonium removal 50 51 in wastewater treatment plants (WWTPs). Both processes are costly in terms of energy, 52 maintenance, and operation during wastewater treatment. For example, nitrification requires over four times more oxygen than is needed for organic carbon removal in wastewater.¹² Recently, a 53 54 novel process was discovered in which ammonium is converted to dinitrogen gas under anoxic 55 conditions with nitrite as the electron acceptor. This process, named Anammox (anaerobic 56 ammonium oxidation), reduces the energy intensity of treatment by short-circuits the nitrification step.^{13, 14} However, the need to convert the biologically available forms of nitrogen into nitrogen 57 58 gas remains, which contradicts costly industrial efforts for production of nitrogen fertilizers for 59 agricultural uses. 60 Therefore, recover the ammonium from domestic wastewater should be a priority for 61 wastewater treatment plants to covert the waste into resources. So far, there are no cost-effective

63 such as air stripping, electrodialysis, struvite precipitation and membrane technologies like

methods available to achieve this. Most existing methods that can be used to recover ammonium,

64	reverse osmosis (RO), require the ammonium concentration about 20 times higher than that in
65	domestic wastewater (40–60 mg/L of NH_4 –N). Therefore, none of the current methods are
66	economical for ammonium recovery. Here, we propose using a forward osmosis (FO) process to
67	concentrate the ammonium in the wastewater for down stream recovery.
68	FO follows the natural osmosis gradient for solvent diffusion through membrane from
69	feed solution (FS) with higher water chemical potential to draw solution (DS) with lower water
70	chemical potential. ¹⁵⁻¹⁹ FO has been proposed for treating complex water matrices due to its low
71	fouling propensity and low energy requirements. ^{20, 21} However, past research has found relatively
72	low rejection of ammonium (48.1±10.5% rejection) in a pilot-scale FO system, despite its high
73	efficiency in separation of organic matter and phosphorus. ²¹ This is largely due to the small
74	molecular weight of ammonium ions, similar to that of water molecules, which are permitted by
75	diffusion through the membrane. To increase ammonium rejection by FO, membrane properties
76	have to be improved.

77 Considerable efforts have been made in exploring appropriate FO membranes on ready-78 made membranes. Chemical modification has become an important method in novel FO membrane exploration in recent years.^{18, 22} One strategy for improving ammonium rejection is to 79 80 create a positively charged, highly hydrophilic membrane surface that repeals the positively 81 charged ammonium ions, while maintaining a greater affinity for the diffusion of water 82 molecules through membrane. Membrane surface modification has been widely used to improve membrane properties for various purposes.²³⁻²⁷ Many efforts have been made to develop new 83 membranes with positively charged surfaces.^{18, 28-32} Among many physical- and chemical-based 84 85 surface treatment methods, polyethylenimine (PEI) has shown promise as the aqueous reactant 86 with polyamine (PA), which forms amine-rich polyaminde layer on thin film composite (TFC)

membrane surfaces through interfacial polymerization.^{28, 33} Another approach is the use of 87 88 carbodiimide-induced grafting with PEI to dramatically improve the hydrophilicty of the 89 membrane surface, which not only provides a positively charged surface to repel positively 90 charged ions, but also has excellent antifouling properties due to the membrane hydrophilicity.³³, 34 91 92 Here, we report surface modification of PA TFC membranes with nanofiltration (NF) 93 properties. Compared to the typical RO-like FO membranes that are used for brackish water or 94 seawater desalination applications, the NF-like FO membranes have great potential for organic wastewater treatment due to their higher water flux.^{35, 36} Abdullah et al. (2018)³⁷ demonstrated 95 96 high water flux and minimum reverse solute flux using TFC NF membrane (NF90 and NF270, 97 Dow FilmTech) in FO mode in treating palm oil mill effluent with divalent salts as the draw 98 solution. In this study, MgCl₂ was used as the draw solution to evaluate ammonium rejection of 99 the modified TFC NF membrane in FO mode in synthetic ammonium solution and in return 100 activated sludge (RAS) from a wastewater treatment plant. The separation performance of the 101 modified membranes was investigated with regards to permeability, selectivity toward 102 ammonium ions, as well as the surface physicochemical properties. 103

104 **2. Materials and Methods**

105 **2.1. Membrane modification**

106 A PA TFC NF membrane (NFS, molecular weight cutoff of 100-250 Da) from Snyder Filtration,

107 Inc. was used as the virgin membrane for surface modification. The membrane has approximate

108 molecular weight cutoff of 100-250Da, minimal MgSO₄ rejection of 99.5% and average NaCl

109 rejection of 50-55% under 760 kPa operation pressure (Snyder Filtration

110 http://synderfiltration.com/nanofiltration/nfs-membrane/). Branched PEI solution with a 111 molecular weight (MW) of 70,000 (30 w/v% solution in water), N,N'-dicyclohexylcarbodiimide 112 (DCC), dimethylsulfoxide (DMSO), ammonium chloride, and magnesium chloride were 113 purchased from Fisher Scientific Inc. and were used without further purification. The proposed 114 mechanism for the membrane surface modification is shown in Figure 1. DCC is used to react 115 with carboxyl groups on the membrane surface to form a reactive o-acylisourea intermediate, 116 which is then displaced by nucleophilic attack from primary amino groups of PEI in the reaction 117 medium. The primary amine forms an amide bond with the carboxyl group, and an insoluble 118 dicyclohexyl urea (DCU) by-product is generated that can be separated.



120 Figure 1. Schematic of the membrane surface modification mechanism and process

121

119

In preparation for membrane surface modification, DCC (2.9 mmol) was dissolved in DMSO (10 part DMSO and 1 part DI water) as the activation solution. PEI was then added to the activation solution in various concentrations to form the final grafting solution. Six concentrations of PEI, 0.2, 0.6, 1, 1.5, 3, or 4.5% (w/v), was tested for PEI incorporation to PA. Since the NFS membrane's polyester support and microporous polysulfone interlayer are

sensitive to DMSO, the membrane piece was fixed in a 6 cm \times 18 cm plate-frame cassette to

128	ensure the reactant solutions only had contact with the PA active layer. A 60 mL grafting
129	solution was poured onto the membrane surface for reaction at room temperature (22°C) for 15
130	hours. At the end of incubation, membranes were washed several times with DI water to remove
131	any unreacted chemicals and finally stored in DI water at 4°C until use. No penetration of
132	DMSO to the support layer or damage of the support layer was observed during the reaction
133	period. The modified membranes were named based on the concentration of PEI in the grafting
134	reaction, for example, reaction with 0.2% PEI is denoted as 0.2% PEI-NFS. The unmodified
135	Synder's NFS membrane was denoted as the virgin NFS.
136	It is important to mention that before adoption of NFS membrane for surface
137	modification, we compared NFS membrane and DOW SW30XLE RO membrane (Dow
138	Filmtec TM , Midland, MI) for operation in the FO mode. This preliminary study showed that
139	under the same osmotic gradient, NFS has averaging 2.7 times greater water flux than
140	SW30XLE in the FO operation (data not shown). This result agrees with previous work
141	demonstrating the NF-like FO membrane to produce higher water flux. ^{36, 37} A HTI FO membrane
142	(HTI-ES, Albany, USA) was also initially used for comparison but was terminated due to
143	discontinuing of the product by the manufacturer and the poor ammonia rejection. ²⁰ NFS was
144	used as the sole membrane for surface modification to demonstrate that surface electrostatic
145	repulsion plays a major role of ammonium ion rejection instead of the membrane pore size.
146	2.2. Membrane surface characterization
147	2.2.1. Raman spectroscopy measurement

The membrane surface chemical structure and composition of NFS membrane before and after
modification were determined by a Rennishaw InVia Raman microscope in the region of 200–

150 3,600 cm⁻¹ to confirm the grafting of PEI onto the membrane surface. The Raman spectra of the

151 virgin NFS membrane and the PEI (liquid solution) were also acquired to identify the PEI signal 152 peaks on the modified NFS membrane surfaces. The analysis for PEI solution was performed at 153 room temperature with a 532 nm laser as the radiation source under a 10% power of the nominal 154 laser intensity and an integration time of 10 s; whereas the analysis for virgin and modified NFS 155 membranes was conducted with a 785 nm laser. The baseline was corrected for all spectrums 156 using WIRE 3.4 software (Reinshaw). The maximum amount of PEI grafted onto the membrane 157 surfaces was determined based on significant differences in the expected PEI signal peak counts. 2.2.2. Surface roughness, charge and hydrophilicity measurements 158 159 The morphology and surface roughness analyses were carried out by 3D Laser Scanning 160 Confocal Microscope (VK-X250, KEYENCE Corporation, USA) at room temperature with scanning area of $10 \times 10 \ \mu\text{m}^2$. All the reported surface roughness values are an average obtained 161 162 from three different positions on each membrane. 163 A SurPASS streaming potential analyzer (Anton Paar, Graz, Austria) with an adjustable

164 gap cell was used to measure electrokinetic properties of membrane surface. Membranes were 165 cut and immobilized on the sample supports (20 mm × 10 mm) within the cell, and the gap was 166 adjusted to approximately 100 μ m. The zeta potential (ζ) of each membrane was calculated 167 from the streaming potential using the Fairbrother-Mastin approach as follows:

168
$$\zeta = \frac{dU}{dp} \times \frac{\eta}{\varepsilon \times \varepsilon_0} \times \frac{1}{R} \times k_{high} \times R_{high}$$
(1)

169 where, $\frac{dU}{dp}$ is the streaming potential coefficient, η is the viscosity of the electrolyte solution, 170 $\varepsilon \times \varepsilon_0$ is the dielectric coefficient of the electrolyte solution, *R* is the electrical resistance inside the 171 streaming channel, k_{high} is the electrolyte conductivity and R_{high} is the resistance inside the

streaming channel at high ionic strength.³⁸ The zeta potential was measured in 1 mM KCl at 172 173 room temperature over a pH range of 3 - 9 through titration with 0.5 N NaOH. 174 The hydrophilicity of membrane surfaces was tested using a Goniometer (OPTIXCAM 175 SUMMIT K2, Rame-Hart, Inc., USA) equipped with a video camera. DI water (1 μ L) was 176 placed in six random locations on each membrane sample at room temperature and an image was 177 acquired of the water droplet. The left and right contact angles were measured using Toup View 178 Image software. For each sample, six measurements were averaged to get a reliable value. 179 **2.3.** Membrane filtration properties 180 2.3.1. FO operational conditions 181 A cross flow FO cell (Sterlitech CF042D-FO Cell, USA) was used to test the FO filtration 182 properties in batch mode (Figure 2). The FO cell had an effective membrane area of 42 cm^2 . In 183 FO application mode, the active membrane surface was in contact with the feed solution (FS) 184 and the support layer (back layer) was in contact with draw solution (DS). Both solutions (0.25 L 185 for DS and 0.5 L for FS) were pumped in the counter-current direction by peristaltic pumps at 186 flow rate of 60 mL/min at room temperature unless indicated otherwise. The flow rate is within 187 the laminar region of the Reynolds number to balance the need for pumping energy conservation and stable permeate flux.¹⁷ For ammonium rejection experiments, 50 ppm NH₄⁺ in the form of 188 189 NH₄Cl in DI was used as FS. In all experiments, 1 M magnesium chloride (MgCl₂) aqueous 190 solution was used as DS at the beginning of the batch study. Each experiment ran for 28 h, 191 during which time water flux was determined using a digital balance for changes in water 192 volume in the FS and DS tanks. The slow progressive dilution of DS by permeate flux occurred 193 over the experimental period but did not significantly influence the comparison of properties 194 between modified and un-modified membranes.

195



196 Figure 2. Schematic of the laboratory-scale forward osmosis (FO) system set up.

The reverse solutes (Mg²⁺ and Cl⁻) flux from DS to FS was determined by the initial and 197 198 final volume of FS and the ion concentrations measured by ion chromatography (IC, 940 199 Professional IC Vario, Metrohm, USA). For ammonium rejection, ammonium concentrations of 200 initial FS before the FO process and final DS after the FO process were measured using IC. In addition, the AmVerTM Salicylate Test 'N TubeTM method was also applied for low range (0-2.50 201 202 mg/L NH₃-N, Hach method 10023) and high range (Hach method 10031, 0-50 mg/L NH₃-N) 203 ammonia nitrogen using a DR/890 portable colorimeter to calculate the ammonium rejection. 204 In addition to using 50 ppm NH₄⁺ synthetic solution as FS, a return activated sludge 205 (RAS) from the secondary clarifier of a local wastewater treatment plant was used as FS to 206 evaluate the membrane application to a real environmental sample. The water fluxes, reverse solutes (Mg²⁺ and Cl⁻ ions) fluxes, and ammonium rejection by the virgin NFS membrane and 207 208 the 1.5% PEI-NFS membrane were compared using 1 M MgCl₂ solution as DS and a cross flow 209 rate of 60 mL/min at 25 °C.

210 **2.3.2. Filtration property calculations**

211 The water flux across the FO membrane was calculated using the following equation $^{39-41}$:

212
$$J_{w} = \frac{\Delta V}{A_{m} \Delta t} = \frac{\Delta m}{\rho A_{m} \Delta t}$$
(2)

where, J_w is the water flux (L/m².h or LMH), ΔV (L) is the volume change of DS over time interval Δt (h), A_m (m²) is the effective membrane area, ρ is the density of the DS (g/L), and Δm (g) is the weight change of the DS. The reverse solutes flux takes place from DS in the reverse direction of the water flux and is calculated with the following equation³⁹:

$$217 \qquad J_s = \frac{C_t V_t - C_0 V_0}{A_m \Delta t} \tag{3}$$

218 where, J_s is the reverse solute flux (g/m².h or gMH), C_0 (g/L) and V_0 (L) are the initial

 $219 \quad \ \text{concentration of solutes and initial volume of the FS, respectively. } C_t \left(g/L\right) \text{ and } V_t \left(L\right) \text{ are the}$

solutes concentration and the volume of the FS measured at time of t, respectively.

221 The ammonium rejection percent (\mathbb{R} %) by the membrane was calculated using the 222 following equation^{20, 32}:

223
$$R(\%) = \left(1 - \frac{C_p}{C_f}\right) \times 100$$
(4)

where, C_p and C_f are the ammonium concentration permeated through membrane from FS to DS and initial ammonium concentration in FS before FO process, respectively.

226

227 **3. Results and discussion**

228 **3.1. Characterization of membranes**

229 **3.1.1. Raman spectroscopy analysis**

230 Changes of chemical groups on surface modified NFS membranes compared to the virgin NFS

- 231 membrane are shown in Figure 3. Raman spectra of PEI solution have characteristic peaks at
- 232 1460, 2873, 2956, and 3309 cm⁻¹. The bands at 1460 and 3309 cm⁻¹ correspond to CH_2

233	deformation vibration and N-H vibration, respectively; whereas the bands at 2873 and 2956 cm ⁻¹
234	are assigned to the C-H vibration. ⁴² Raman spectra of the virgin NFS membrane has major
235	spectral peaks located at Raman shifts of 792, 1076, 1111, 1150, 1589, and 1611 cm ⁻¹ , which are
236	likely associated with the polyamide functional groups. ⁴³ Specifically, the bands at 792, 1589,
237	and 1611 cm ⁻¹ are associated with the asymmetric C-N-C stretch of tertiary amides, aromatic in-
238	plane ring bending vibration, and aromatic amide groups, respectively; whereas, the bands at
239	1076, 1111, and 1150 cm ⁻¹ are assigned to the C-N stretching vibrations of both the piperazine
240	rings and the amide groups. ³⁹
241	Compared with the virgin NFS membrane, all the PEI modified NFS membranes have
241 242	Compared with the virgin NFS membrane, all the PEI modified NFS membranes have peaks formation at approximately1460, 2870 and 2950 cm ⁻¹ (Figure 3a, b), which are consistent
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242 243 244	peaks formation at approximately1460, 2870 and 2950 cm ⁻¹ (Figure 3a, b), which are consistent with peaks belonging to PEI in its natural state (liquid solution). This result indicates that PEI was successfully grafted onto the NFS membrane. In addition, as shown in Figure 3c, the counts
242243244245	peaks formation at approximately1460, 2870 and 2950 cm ⁻¹ (Figure 3a, b), which are consistent with peaks belonging to PEI in its natural state (liquid solution). This result indicates that PEI was successfully grafted onto the NFS membrane. In addition, as shown in Figure 3c, the counts or intensity of 2873 and 2956 cm ⁻¹ peaks change with the variation of PEI concentration in



249

250 Figure 3. Raman spectra of PEI solution, virgin NFS membrane, and PEI grafted NFS

251 membranes (a), and an overlay image that compares Raman shift of 2,600 - 3,200 cm⁻¹ (b). The

252 PEI signal peak area on membrane surface is quantified in (c). Arrows on (a) indicate the new

253 peaks identified on membrane surface that correspond to PEI peaks.

254

255 **3.1.2. Membranes surface roughness**

256 Five surface roughness measurements, including arithmetic mean height (Sa), maximum height

257 of the surface (Sz), texture aspect ratio (Str), arithmetic mean peak curvature (Spc), and

- 258 developed interfacial area ratio (Sdr), were used to compare the virgin NFS membrane and PEI
- 259 grafted NFS membranes (Figure 4). The results confirm that both the virgin NFS membrane and
- 260 PEI grafted NFS membranes have relatively uniform surfaces. Sz values are slightly higher by

PEI grafting on the surface of PA membrane. Sdr and Spc are also greater for 4.5% PEI-NFS membrane (p<0.05) but are not significantly different for other PEI grafted NFS membranes in comparison with the virgin membrane (p>0.05). This result suggests 4.5% PEI-NFS membrane likely become rougher than the virgin membrane. But there is no significant difference in other roughness measurements of the modified membranes when compared with the unmodified membrane.



Figure 4. The surface roughness measurement (arithmetic mean height (Sa), maximum height of the surface (Sz), texture aspect ratio (Str), arithmetic mean peak curvature (Spc), and developed interfacial area ratio (Sdr) of the virgin NFS membrane and PEI grafted NFS membranes.

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267

272 **3.1.3. Membranes surface charge**

273 The zeta potential measurements of the virgin NFS membrane and PEI grafted NFS membranes

as a function of pH are shown in Figure 5. The isoelectric point (IEP) for each membrane is

indicated by the horizontal line crossing zero zeta potential. The virgin NFS membrane has an
IEP of 3.75. After the PEI grafting, the IEP for the PEI grafted NFS membranes are shifted to
higher values due to increases in positively charged amine groups attached to the surface. These
positive charge groups can be useful for improving ammonium rejection under a range of
environmental conditions. The changes in surface charge on the membrane is best explained by
amine protonation at pH values below the IEP, while increasing pH beyond the IEP results in
deprotonation of carboxyl groups and a negative surface charge as shown by previous



283

282

literatures.33, 35, 44

Figure 5. Zeta potential of the virgin NFS membrane and PEI grafted NFS membranes as a function of pH.

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In all pH ranges, the zeta potential values of the PEI grafted NFS membranes are higher than that of the virgin NFS membrane. This indicates that the PEI grafted NFS membranes have more positively charged molecules in comparison with the virgin membrane. At pH value <5.5, all modified membranes displayed net positive charge on surface. At the pH>5.5, the additional
amine groups on membrane surface may translate into higher electrostatic repulsion of
ammonium in comparison with the virgin NFS membrane. **3.1.4. Membranes water contact angle**The hydrophilicity of the membrane can affect its flux and antifouling ability.^{32, 33} Comparisons
of membrane surface hydrophilicity using water contact angle of the virgin and modified NFS
membranes (Figure 6) indicate that water contact angle of the virgin NFS membrane is 49.79°,

which is greater than all the PEI grafted NFS membranes. An average value for all PEI grafted

298 member is 45.25°, in which 0.6% PEI-NFS membrane has the lowest contact angel of 43.51° and

299 4.5% PE-NFS membrane has the contact angle of 48.71°. Lower water contact angles illustrate

300 that more water molecules can penetrate into the membrane surface and thus greater

301 hydrophilicity of the membrane surface. Both the chemical composition and the surface

302 geometrical structure govern the wettability of a solid surface.^{33, 45} Therefore, the introduction of

303 exposed polar groups (amine groups) on the membrane surface likely improved surface

304 hydrophilicity after the PEI grafting.³³ These results are in agreement with the Raman

305 spectroscopy data and zeta potential results, confirming the grafting of PEI on the PA NFS

306 membrane surface. On the other hand, the higher water contact angel observed on 4.5% PEI-NFS

307 membrane may be explained by the increased roughness of the membrane surface as shown by

308 the surface roughness measurements in spite of the addition of polar groups on membrane

309 surface.



Figure 6. Water contact angle of the virgin NFS membrane and PEI grafted NFS membranes

313 **3.2. Membranes filtration performance**

314 The ideal FO membrane should have no reverse solute flux and a high water flux. Reverse solute flux can cause internal concentration polarization (ICP) and membrane fouling.^{39, 46} Solute flux 315 316 also decreases the osmotic pressure difference across FO membranes.¹⁸ Comparisons of the membrane filtration performance for the water fluxes and reverse solutes (Mg²⁺ and Cl⁻ ions) 317 318 fluxes of the virgin NFS membrane and the PEI grafted NFS membranes are shown in Figure 7. 319 The water flux of the virgin NFS membrane was $\sim 0.70 \text{ L/m}^2$.h at the cross flow rate of 60 320 mL/min. Three of six PEI modified membrane showed improved water fluxes but overall the water fluxes of the PEI modified NFS membranes ranged between 0.37 and 1.32 L/m².h. The 321 322 variation of water flux may be caused by two conflicting factors associated with PEI grafting. 323 First, the improvement of membrane surface hydrophilicity by PEI incorporation can facilitate 324 water molecules' penetration into membranes that leads to the increase of membrane water flux. 325 Second, the addition of PEI on PA can block membrane pores and increase trans-membrane 326 resistance of water molecules, which results in a reduction of water flux. Thus, the final variation of water flux can depend on which of these two factors dominates.^{32, 33, 47} 327

328



Figure 7. Water fluxes and reverse solutes (Mg^{2+} and Cl^{-} ions) fluxes of the virgin NFS membrane and the PEI grafted NFS membranes.

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333 The best water flux is found in 3% PEI-NFS membrane, which has the improved surface 334 smoothness (Figure 4), increased positive charges (Figure 5) and enhanced hydrophilicity 335 (Figure 6). The 1.5% PEI grafted membrane has the second best water flux, smoothness and 336 hyrophilicity. Therefore, 1.5% to 3% of PEI may be the ideal condition for membrane surface 337 modification. It was also noted that the water flux rate observed in this study is slightly lower than a previous study reported by Cornelissen et al.⁴⁸ using a similar type of membrane. 338 339 However, that study was carried out in a much faster cross flow rate (nearly 100 times higher) 340 and using a higher concentration of drawn solution.

As shown in Figure 7, the reverse solutes $(Mg^{2+} \text{ and } Cl^{-} \text{ ions})$ fluxes of the virgin NFS membrane are higher than those of the PEI grafted NFS membranes. This result suggests the PEI-NFS membranes have improved properties for reducing reverse solute flux. In addition, the reverse solutes $(Mg^{2+} \text{ and } Cl^{-} \text{ ions})$ fluxes were reduced in general with increasing PEI concentration from 0.2% to 4.5% (Figure 7). Lower reverse solute fluxes can avoid the osmotic pressure decrease caused by reverse solute diffusion and decline in water flux.¹⁸ Furthermore, the nanopore size plays a key role in reverse solute flux. The Cl⁻ ion reverse diffusion from DS to FS 348 is approximately three times higher than that of Mg^{2+} ion due to different membrane selectivity

to monovalent vs. divalent ions (Figure 7).

350	The ratio of water flux, J_w , to reverse solutes (Mg ²⁺ and Cl ⁻ ions) flux, J_s , in the FO
351	process (called the reverse solute flux selectivity) is commonly used to quantify the FO
352	performances. ⁴⁹ Table 1 compares the reverse solutes (Mg ²⁺ and Cl ⁻ ions) flux selectivity of the
353	virgin NFS membrane and the PEI grafted NFS membranes at experimental conditions of 1 M
354	MgCl ₂ solution as DS, flow rate of 60 mL/min, and room temperature (25 $^{\circ}$ C). These results
355	confirm that the PEI grafted NFS membranes have improved reverse flux selectivity in
356	comparison with virgin membrane in most cases.

Table 1. Comparison of the reverse solutes (Mg²⁺ and Cl⁻ ions) flux selectivity of the virgin NFS
 membrane and the PEI grafted NFS membranes

Membrane sample	The reverse solute $(Mg^{2+} ion)$	The reverse solutes (Cl ⁻ ion)
	flux selectivity (L/g)	flux selectivity (L/g)
Virgin NFS	0.266	0.0667
0.2% PEI NFS	0.392	0.1173
0.6% PEI NFS	0.214	0.0691
1% PEI NFS	0.179	0.0648
1.5% PEI NFS	0.498	0.1758
3% PEI NFS	0.658	0.2257
4.5% PEI NFS	0.464	0.1726

359

When comparing ammonium rejection of PEI grafted membranes with virgin NFS membrane using pure NH4Cl solution, the results showed that the virgin NFS membrane has relatively high ammonium rejection rate (~97%) when operating in the FO mode in comparison with previous reports of ammonium rejection in FO operation using TFC embedded polyester screen supported HTI-ES membrane (35.8%).²⁰ Grafting of PEI on NFS membrane further improved the ammonium rejection by additional 2-3% for the synthetic ammonium solution without exception.

367	To test the applicability of PEI-NFS membranes for concentrating ammonium in real
368	wastewater, 1.5% PEI-NFS membrane was compared with virgin NFS membrane using RAS
369	from secondary clarifier of a local wastewater treatment plant. The measured characteristics of
370	RAS are given in Table 2. Ammonium rejections by the virgin NFS membrane was decreased to
371	75.5% for treating the RAS but the PEI-NFS faired better with an average of 89.3% ammonium
372	rejection. This increase in ammonium rejection may be explained by repulsion due to the
373	increased positively charged molecules on membrane surface from the PEI grafting. The reverse
374	solute fluxes of 1.5% PEI NFS membrane (2.43 g/m ² .h for Mg^{2+} ions and 10.04 g/m ² .h for Cl ⁻
375	ions) were also much lower than those of the virgin NFS membrane (3.19 g/m ² .h for Mg^{2+} ions
376	and 15.72 g/m ² .h for Cl ⁻ ions). However, water flux of the virgin NFS membrane (0.58 L/m ² .h)
377	was slightly higher than that of the 1.5% PEI NFS membrane (0.34 L/m^2 .h). Membrane fouling
378	was suspected but was not confirmed.
	

380

379 Table 2. The characteristics of RAS from secondary clarifier of a local wastewater treatment -1----+

lant
Value
1295 mg/L
4306 mg/L
65.231 mg/L
56.005 mg/L
144.343 mg/L

381

382 The availability of appropriate FO membranes is crucial to the development of FO 383 technology. Problems, such as high reverse solute diffusion and high concentration polarization (CP) are frequently encountered in FO processes.¹⁸ Meanwhile, although FO has a lower 384 385 membrane fouling propensity than the pressure-driven membrane processes, fouling is still the 386 most severe problem adversely influencing FO performance. Many novel FO membranes 387 obtained through the surface modifications on ready-made membranes have been developed in

388	recent years (see review by Xu et al. ¹⁸). The work presented here adds to the body of work in	
389	attempt to develop a FO membrane that has high water flux, low reverse solute flux and high	
390	ammonia rejection. The modified membrane is far from ideal for ammonia concentration. We	
391	have not addressed the membrane fouling, which is a universal challenge in all membrane	
392	processes. The presence of positive charged groups on membrane surface may attract negatively	
393	charged molecules in wastewaters, which exacerbate the fouling propensity. Future work to	
394	further improve the surface hydrophilicity may further improve the membrane antifouling	
395	properties. The work presented here offers a potential new application of FO in converting	
396	ammonia from waste to resources.	
397		
398	4. Conclusions	
399	• We have successfully grafted PEI as functional groups on PA TFC NF membranes using	
400	DCC intermediate, as demonstrated by Raman spectroscopy.	
401	• Most of modified membrane maintained the uniform surfaces with minimal changes in	
402	surface roughness in comparison with the virgin membrane.	
403	• The PEI grafted NFS membranes have higher IEP than virgin membrane due to increases	
404	in amine groups attached to the membrane surface.	
405	• Most of the PEI grafted NFS membranes had lower water contact angles in comparison	
406	with the virgin NFS membrane, indicating hydrophilicity.	
407	• The water flux of PEI modified membranes varied among different concentrations of PEI	
408	incorporation, with some having greater water flux than the virgin NFS membrane, while	
409	the fluxes were reduced for others.	

410	•	The reverse fluxes of the PEI-NFS membrane for Mg ²⁺ and Cl ⁻ ions were reduced in
411		comparison with the virgin membrane.
412	٠	With consideration of the water fluxes, reverse solutes (Mg ²⁺ and Cl ⁻ ions) fluxes and
413		ammonium rejection, the 1.5% and 3% PEI NFS are considered the best overall
414		performer.
415	•	Improvement of ammonium rejection and the reverse solutes (Mg ²⁺ and Cl ⁻ ions) fluxes
416		by 1.5% PEI-NSF was also demonstrated using RAS of a local wastewater treatment
417		plant .
418		
419		

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Table of contents entry: