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Nano Impact Statement

To address the biofouling problem associated with thin film composite (TFC) forward osmosis (FO) membranes, we have developed novel surface coatings through covalent bonding of silver decorated graphene oxide (GO/Ag).

GO/Ag nanocomposite functionalization of TFC FO membranes provides an effective antimicrobial surface that has better characteristics than either GO or AgNPs independently. This enhanced effectiveness likely results from the synergistic effect of the capture-killing mechanism displayed by this system. In addition, the higher hydrophilicity of the resulting membranes, the low material cost, and the ease of preparation (dip coating method) result in an effective approach than other modification methods. Finally, using graphene oxide as a support for biocidal metal nanoparticles provides an opportunity for the regeneration of biocidals after release

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3	Surface Modification of Thin Film Composite Forward Osmosis Membrane
4	by Silver-Decorated Graphene-Oxide Nanosheets
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6	Environmental Science: Nano
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22 ABSTRACT

23 Forward osmosis (FO), as an emerging technology for seawater desalination and wastewater reuse, has been attracting significant interest because of its energy efficiency. However, 24 membrane fouling represents one of the major limitations for this technology, notably for thin 25 film composite (TFC) polyamide (PA) membranes, which are prone to chlorine attack. In this 26 study, silver nanoparticle (AgNP)-decorated graphene oxide (GO) nanosheets (as an effective 27 biocidal material) were covalently bonded to the PA surface to impart improved hydrophilicity 28 and antibacterial properties to the membrane. AgNPs were synthesized in situ by the wet 29 chemical reduction of silver nitrate onto the surface of GO nanosheets. The formation of the 30 composite was verified by UV-Vis spectroscopy, x-ray diffraction, and transmission electron 31 microscopy techniques. The synthesized GO/Ag nanocomposites were then covalently bonded 32 onto the TFC PA membrane surface using cysteamine through an amide forming condensation 33 reaction. ATR-FTIR and XPS results confirmed the covalent bonding of the nanocomposite onto 34 the TFC PA surface. Overall, the GO/Ag nanocomposite functionalized membranes exhibited 35 36 super-hydrophilic properties (contact angles below 25°) and significant bacterial (E. coli) inactivation (over 95% in static bacterial inactivation tests) without adversely affecting the 37 38 membrane transport properties.

39 INTRODUCTION

Forward osmosis (FO) has recently been considered to be a promising technological approach 40 for seawater desalination and water reuse because of the energy efficiency of the overall process 41 of water separation^{1, 2}. Although the FO process is less prone to fouling than reverse osmosis 42 (RO), membrane fouling (notably biofouling) remains one of the important limitations to 43 widespread application³. Thin film composite polyamide (PA) FO membranes are highly 44 susceptible to biofouling because of their intrinsic physicochemical surface properties⁴. Although 45 using oxidizing agents is a common method for controlling biofouling^{5, 6}, other alternative 46 47 methods must be considered because PA layers are sensitive to chemical oxidation and degrade in the presence of common disinfectants. 48

49 Membrane surface modification is one of the well investigated methods for preventing biofilm 50 formation⁷. Different methods of surface modification have been reported^{3, 8} including grafting macromolecules⁹⁻¹², preparing antifouling surfaces by functionalization¹³ with photocatalytic NPs such as $TiO_2^{14, 15}$ and carbon-based nanomaterials,^{16, 17} and using biocidal NPs such as silver (Ag) NPs either incorporated into the support layer^{18, 19} or attached to the surface of the TFC membranes²⁰. Problems associated with using biocidal NPs are their tendency toward agglomeration and detachment from the surface, releasing into the water. One of the best approaches to overcoming such problems is to use carbon-based nanocomposites (instead of using a single type of NPs)²¹.

Graphene oxide (GO), as a single-atomic-thick sheet consisting of hydrophilic oxygenated 58 functional groups in the form of carboxyl, hydroxyl, ether, and epoxy, has attracted interest in 59 different scientific areas^{22, 23}. Several intrinsic characteristics of GO nanosheets, such as their 60 smoothness, atomic-level thickness, high water slip length, and low cost of bulk production 61 through the chemical oxidation of graphite, establish potential new applications in water 62 purification²⁴⁻²⁶. Furthermore, specific efforts have investigated using GO to improve membrane 63 durability by preventing the attachment of hydrophobic foulants or by forming a protective layer 64 against chlorine attack²⁷. Because of its highly functionalized basal planes and edges, GO 65 presents special features when used as a support for noble metal nanoparticles such as gold (Au) 66 and silver (Ag). Au and Ag are widely used as sensors or catalysts²⁸ in electrical and 67 environmental applications. Ag-decorated GO nanocomposites have been established as a new 68 type of effective, easily synthesized, and cost effective biocidal materials in health and 69 environmental applications²⁹⁻³¹. GO nanosheets, employed to stabilize Ag nanoparticles and 70 enhance the contact between Ag and bacteria, result in a synergetic effect for these new 71 nanocomposites³². Although there are some studies suggesting special core-shell³³ or nanoscrolls 72 structure³⁰, based on different silver salt and chemical reductant or post-synthesizing procedure, 73 majority of GO/Ag nanocomposite morphologies provide a very well-distributed silver 74 75 decoration.

AgNPs are well studied for their enhancement of antifouling properties; for instance, Rahaman *et al.* used the combination of AgNPs with polymer brushes to prepare antifouling TFC RO membranes³⁴. Yin *et al.* covalently bonded AgNPs onto the surface of TFC RO membranes to reduce membrane biofouling²⁰, and Mauter *et al.* grafted AgNPs irreversibly onto the ultrafiltration (UF) membrane surface with a high silver release capacity³⁵. The two major

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problems in using AgNPs for the surface modification of membranes are the high tendency of 81 these NPs to agglomerate, leading to insufficient contact with bacteria, and the instability of the 82 NPs on the membrane surface³⁶⁻³⁸. However, only a handful of studies investigated incorporating 83 GO nanosheets on the membrane surface, either by electrostatic attraction or covalent bonds 84 between GO and TFC RO membranes. Choi et al. used a layer-by-layer assembly of GO 85 nanosheets on TFC RO membranes to protect these membranes against chemical degradation 86 87 resulting from chlorine attack. Perreault et al. covalently bonded GO to the surface of TFC RO membranes and reported an increase in the hydrophilicity and antibacterial properties (~65% 88 inactivation of bacteria) of the membranes³⁹. However, neither AgNP nor GO alone can exploit 89 their full potential in controlling membrane biofouling. Therefore, novel composite materials of 90 91 individual nanomaterials are required to fully develop their potential for biofouling mitigation. In this manuscript, we use composite GO nanosheets and AgNPs as a new and promising class of 92 biocidal materials for membrane surface modification. 93

In this study, silver-decorated GO nanosheets are used to functionalize PA TFC membranes. 94 95 Silver-decorated GO nanocomposites were prepared through wet chemical reduction and covalently bonded to the surface of TFC FO membranes. TFC membranes were first chemically 96 97 treated by cysteamine through a click chemistry reaction. Unreacted acyl chloride groups from the interfacially polymerized PA layer and amine groups of the cysteamine formed amide bonds. 98 99 The thiol groups of cysteamine then reacted with the as-prepared silver decorated GO nanosheets. The results of this study show the synergetic effect of the combination of GO 100 101 nanosheets and AgNPs in the inactivation of bacteria without any adverse effects on membrane 102 transport properties. This finding highlights a novel path for establishing a new class of biocidal 103 materials.

104 MATERIALS AND METHODS

105 Materials.

The following chemicals were used as received: silver nitrate (99.9999% on a trace metal basis,
Sigma-Aldrich), ethanol (Sigma-Aldrich), cysteamine (95%, Sigma-Aldrich), and sodium
borohydride (99.99%, Sigma-Aldrich). De-ionized (DI)-water was prepared in a Millipore Milli-

Q purification system. The TFC FO membranes were obtained from Hydration TechnologyInnovation, LLC and were soaked in a DI-water bath for 24 hours prior to modification.

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113 Synthesis and Characterization of AgNPs and GO/Ag Nanocomposites.

Graphene oxide (GO) nanosheets were purchased from Cheap Tubes Inc. (Grafton, VT, USA); 114 these nanosheets were synthesized by a modified Hummers method⁴⁰. The single layer sheets 115 were 0.7-1.2 nm thick and displayed a size distribution of 300-800 nm. The GO nanosheets were 116 decorated with silver (Ag) through an in situ reduction of silver nitrate on the surface. The GO 117 (50 mg) was dispersed in 100 mL of DI water through probe sonication (Branson 3510) for 1 h at 118 70% of the maximum power output. In total, 100 mL of silver nitrate solution (20 mM) was 119 prepared and added to the GO suspension. The resulting mixture was mixed at room temperature 120 121 for 30 min, and 10 mL of a sodium borohydride solution (5 mM) was added dropwise. Mixing continued for 5 h to complete the formation of AgNPs. Over time, the reaction mixture changed 122 from a dark brown to a gravish color. The resulting GO/Ag nanocomposite mixture was 123 centrifuged for 15 min at 12,500 rpm, rinsed with DI water three times and dried overnight in an 124 125 oven at 80°C. The formation of GO/Ag nanocomposites was evaluated by UV-Vis absorption spectroscopy (UV-Vis LAMDA650, Perkin Elmer), X-ray diffraction (XRD Philips PW1710), 126 127 thermal gravimetric analysis (TGA Q5000 V3.15 Build 263), and high-resolution transmission electron microscopy (HRTEM Tecnai G2 F20). Further characterization of the nanocomposite 128 129 was accomplished using Raman and attenuated total reflectance-Fourier transform infrared (ATR-FTIR) spectroscopy techniques. 130

131 Surface Modification and Characterization of TFC FO Membranes.

TFC FO membranes were purchased from Hydration Technology Innovation (HTI) and were functionalized with GO/Ag nanocomposites using a cysteamine solution (Scheme 1). Unreacted acyl halide groups on the surface of TFC polyamide membranes reacted with the amine functional group of cysteamine through a click chemistry reaction and formed strong amide bonds, providing the membrane surface with thiol functionality for subsequent covalent bonding

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137 of GO/Ag nanocomposites onto the membrane surface. TFC membranes were cut and placed on a glass plate and covered with a frame; only the active side was exposed to the cysteamine 138 solution. Frames were clamped with clips to prevent any leakage. The entire assembly was then 139 placed on an orbital shaker, rotating at 70 rpm at room temperature. Membranes were immersed 140 141 in a cysteamine ethanol solution (20 mM) for 30 min and were then removed, rinsed with DI water three times, and immersed in the as-prepared GO/Ag nanocomposite suspension for 12 h. 142 143 The resulting functionalized membranes were then washed with DI water three times and were refrigerated (4°C) until use. 144

The intrinsic membrane transport properties (e.g., water permeability and salt permeability) were evaluated in RO cross-flow cell based on standard methodology for evaluating membrane performance in osmotically driven membrane processes⁴¹. The permeation cell was designed to provide an effective surface area of 42.75 cm². The membrane was compacted overnight with DI water at 70 psi until a steady water permeate flux was reached. In the RO mode in the experiment, the water flux (J) and water permeability (A) of the membranes were evaluated using the following equations:

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$$J = \frac{\Delta V}{A_m \Delta t}$$
 (1)

153
$$A = \frac{J}{\Delta P} \qquad (2)$$

where A_m is the effective membrane surface area, ΔV is the collected permeate volume during Δt and ΔP is the applied pressure difference.

The salt rejection was determined by measuring the rejection of a 50 mM NaCl solution using a calibrated conductivity meter (Oakton Instruments, Vernon Hills, IL, USA). The salt rejection of the membranes was calculated using the following equation:

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$$R = \left(1 - \frac{c_p}{c_f}\right) \times 100\%$$
 (3)

where C_p and C_f are the salt concentrations in the permeate and feed solutions. The salt concentrations were determined by measuring the conductivity of the solution using a calibrated conductivity meter. The salt permeability coefficient (B) was calculated as follows:

163
$$\frac{1-R}{R} = \frac{B}{A(\Delta P - \Delta \pi)}$$
(4)

where A is the water permeability, ΔP is the transmembrane pressure, $\Delta \pi$ is the osmotic pressure of the feed solution and R is the salt rejection.

The membrane performance in the FO mode was also evaluated using a lab scale cross-flow cell 166 with the same dimensions as the RO cell. Both the feed (DI water) and draw solution (1 M NaCl) 167 were circulated at the same flow rate (0.2 L/min) and applied pressure. The temperature of the 168 feed and draw solution was maintained constant at 25°C. To precisely measure the water flux, a 169 digital analytical balance was employed to measure the weight change of the draw solution. The 170 salt reverse flux of the membranes was calculated by measuring the conductivity of the draw 171 solution before and after the FO process using a calibrated conductivity meter (Oakton 172 Instruments, Vernon Hills, IL). The FO water flux (JV) and reverse salt flux (JS) were calculated 173 174 as follows:

175
$$J_V = \frac{\Delta V}{A_m \Delta t} = \frac{\Delta m/\rho}{A_m \Delta t}$$
 (5)

176
$$J_S = \frac{\Delta(C_t V_t)}{A_m \Delta t}$$
(6)

177 Where Δm is the weight change of the draw solution, Am is the effective surface area, and C_t and 178 V_t are the salt concentration and volume of the feed solution after the process, respectively.

179 The elemental composition of the virgin and functionalized membranes was determined by X-ray 180 photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS, SK-Alpha). Samples were irradiated with a beam of monochromatic Al K_a X-rays with an energy of 1.350 keV. Changes in the functional groups of 181 the samples during the chemical reaction were studied using attenuated total reflectance-infrared 182 spectroscopy (Nicolet 6700 / Smart iTR), which was conducted using a germanium crystal on 183 184 desiccator-dried samples. The surface morphology of the membrane was observed by fieldemission scanning electron microscopy (FE-SEM; JEOL, JSM-7600 TFE) to verify the presence 185 of GO/Ag nanocomposite. Prior to imaging, the surface of the membranes was coated with a thin 186 layer (15 nm) of carbon; the carbon was sputtered onto the layers by carbon evaporation 187 188 (EDWARDS AUTO306). Roughness parameters of the membranes were determined using atomic force microscopy (AFM, Dimension 3100) in the tapping mode. 189

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The surface hydrophilicity and surface energy of the membranes were evaluated through contact angle measurements of DI water using the sessile drop method (VCA, video contact angle system, AST Products, Inc., Billerica, MA, USA). The right and left angles of the water drop were measured using the system software (VCA optima XE). At least three desiccator-dried samples and approximately five points for each sample were selected for contact angle measurements. The data were averaged between the samples. The relative wettability of the membranes was evaluated by calculating the membrane-liquid interfacial free energy^{42, 43} as

197 $-\Delta G_{ML} = \gamma_L (1 + (\cos \theta)/r)$ (7)

where θ is the average contact angle, γ_L is the pure water surface tension (72.8 mJ/m² at 25° C) and r is the roughness area ratio (ratio of the actual surface to the planar surface area for rough materials, r = 1+ SAD; SAD is the surface area difference parameter obtained from AFM measurements).

The streaming potential of the virgin and functionalized membranes, as an indicator of membrane surface charge, was measured using an electrokinetic analyzer (EKA Anton Paar) at various pH values with a 1 mM KCl electrolyte solution. The procedure and calculations followed the method described by Walker *et al.*⁴⁴.

206

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Scheme 1

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209 Antimicrobial Activity of GO/Ag Functionalized Membranes.

Bacterial inactivation was evaluated by determining and comparing the number of viable bacteria present on surfaces of virgin and functionalized membranes through a simple plate counting method. Briefly, *Escherichia coli* (PGEN-GFP (LVA) ampR) was grown overnight at 37° C in Luria-Bertani (LB) broth medium. The bacterial solution was diluted and cultured for 2 h to reach the log phase and was verified by an optical density measurement at 600 nm. The resulting bacterial solution was centrifuged and washed three times with 0.9% saline solution before being diluted to 10^{7} CFU mL⁻¹ in 0.9% saline solution. For the exposure phase, 1.5 cm⁻² membranes were punched and placed in a plastic holder with the active layer facing the bacterial solution. The holders were maintained at room temperature for 1 h. After 1 h of incubation, the excess solution was discarded, and the membranes were washed with a sterile saline solution. To remove attached bacteria from the membrane surface, the membrane coupons were bathsonicated for 7 min in a 10 mL isotonic solution. Finally, 100 μ L serial dilutions (representing over 6 orders of magnitude) of the bacterial solution were spread on LB agar plates with ampicillin and incubated overnight at 37°C. The number of colonies was then counted.

224 Silver Release Experiments.

The reservoir method was used to measure the silver ion loading and releasing from GO/Ag 225 functionalized membranes³⁵. For ion releasing measurements, both the functionalized and virgin 226 membrane samples were cut into 1 inch coupons and incubated in 20 mL of DI water for 24 h; 227 the samples were then acidified with 1% HNO₃. The silver loading was conducted with a similar 228 procedure, but the solution was acidified prior to incubation. Silver ion concentrations in the 229 230 samples were then measured by inductively coupled plasma mass spectroscopy (ICP-MS Perkin Elmer NexION 300X). The ion release experiments for both the control and functionalized 231 membrane were conducted for 6 days. 232

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234 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Successful Graphene Oxide/ Silver Nanocomposite Synthesis Confirmed by UV-Vis, TEM, TGA and XRD Analyses.

237 The GO/Ag nanocomposite was synthesized through the in situ reduction of silver nitrate onto GO nanosheets and was characterized by UV-Vis, XRD, TGA and TEM (Figure 1). The UV-Vis 238 spectra of GO, Ag nanoparticles, and GO/Ag suspension indicates the formation of a 239 nanocomposite (Figure 1(A)). GO exhibits two different characteristic bands at 230 nm, 240 corresponding to the electronic π - π^* transition of the C=C aromatic bond and a shadow shoulder 241 at 305 nm assigned to the n- π^* of C=O bonds. Additionally, AgNPs exhibit a band at 400 nm in 242 the absorption spectrum, which is attributed to a surface plasmon. The UV-Vis spectrum of 243 GO/Ag shows both characteristic GO and Ag bands and verifies the formation of GO/Ag 244 nanocomposites. The presence of AgNPs in the GO/Ag nanocomposite was also confirmed 245

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246 through XRD measurements. GO/Ag XRD patterns (Figure 1(B)) represent the prominent Bragg peaks at 20 values of 38.1°, 44.3°, 64.5°, and 77.5°, assigned to the (1 1 1), (2 0 0), (2 2 0) and (3 247 248 1 1) crystallographic planes of face-centered cubic (fcc) AgNPs, respectively. The peak at $2\theta =$ 10.1° of GO nanosheets (attributed to the stacking of the GO layer) was completely removed 249 250 because the anchoring of AgNPs on the surface of the GO sheets prevented the restacking of the layered structure of GO³¹. The formation of GO/Ag nanocomposite was also reflected in the 251 252 TGA (Figure 1C). Graphene oxide exhibits a two-step decomposition. The first drop appears at 220°C and is attributed to the decomposition of labile oxygen containing functional groups, and 253 the second drop occurs at 550°C and is attributed to the pyrolysis of the carbon skeleton of GO. 254 However, AgNPs do not show a decomposition step in the TGA. For the GO/Ag nanocomposite, 255 256 the combination of the two different behaviors is observed, and the mass ratio of GO and Ag can be estimated in the final composite. 257

The morphological features of the GO/Ag nanocomposite were investigated by HRTEM. TEM 258 259 images revealed a well-dispersed layer of spherical AgNPs decorating the surface of the GO 260 nanosheets (Figure 1D). The results indicate that GO plays a decisive role in the nucleation and growth of Ag nanoparticles, and the presence of GO and its functional groups act as a 261 262 morphological driver/controller for silver NPs, preparing for the formation of the spherical NPs. The oxygen containing functionalities on the GO surface provides reactive sites for the 263 264 nucleation and growth of AgNPs. However, the AgNPs synthesized without GO and without using any capping agent displayed an aggregated morphology (additional TEM images of GO, 265 Ag NPs and GO/Ag nanocomposites are provided in the Supporting Information in Figure S2). 266

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Figure 1.

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Graphene Oxide/ Silver Nanocomposites were Covalently Bonded to the Surface of the TFC Polyamide Membrane.

The enhanced stability of the functionalized GO/Ag nanocomposite on the membrane surface was obtained using a cysteamine linker with amine and thiol functional groups at each end. The

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274 amine group reacts with the un-reacted acyl chloride functional groups on the surface of the TFC membrane from interfacial polymerization. The presence of acyl chloride groups was verified by 275 276 an elemental analysis using an XPS method on the surface of a pristine membrane. Cl2p has a peak of approximately 198 eV (Figure S5, supporting information), and the area below that peak 277 is estimated to be approximately 1% Cl element by weight. XPS results for the cysteamine 278 treated membrane also indicated that all acyl chlorides were consumed during the reaction, the 279 280 Cl content of the surface became zero, and the new surface showed the presence of sulfur, which displays a peak at 162 eV (Figure S5, supporting information). The thiol groups on the 281 membrane surface would react with and anchor AgNPs⁴⁵. AFM images (Figures 2 (C) and (D)) 282 reveal that after GO/Ag nanocomposites bonded onto the TFC membrane surface, both the 283 surface roughness and surface morphology of the membrane significantly changed. The graphene 284 oxide nanosheets flattened the surface of the membrane; therefore, the overall roughness 285 decreased (Supporting information, Table S1). The SEM images further confirm the change in 286 the morphology of the GO/Ag functionalized membrane surface when compared to pristine 287 membranes (Figures 2 (A) and (B)). As shown in Figure 2B, the spherical AgNPs are distributed 288 predominantly on the surface of the GO nanosheets and less on the edge or within the valley-like 289 region of the TFC membrane surface. Higher contrast images of AgNPs and membrane surfaces 290 were obtained using backscattered electron microscopy (BCE); the images are provided in the 291 supporting information (Figure S1). The BCE images verified the presence and uniform 292 293 distribution of AgNPs on the surface of GO and TFC membranes. The size and shape of the AgNPs observed also agreed with the TEM observations (Figure 1). 294

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Figure 2.

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The progress of the reaction was also studied using the ATR-FTIR method. The ATR-FTIR spectra in Figure 3C (details in the supporting information Figure S3) show that after treating the TFC membranes with cysteamine, the intensity of the peak at 850 cm⁻¹ (C-Cl bond in the stretching mode) decreased, indicating the consumption of the acyl chloride group, and a new peak at 1020 cm⁻¹ appeared, which can be attributed to the formation of a new aliphatic amine C-

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N bond in the stretching mode. Additionally, the TFC membranes have two small peaks located at 1147 cm⁻¹ and 1585 cm⁻¹ that are assigned to the C-O-C stretching and the phenyl ring vibration of the polysulfone support layer, respectively. These results verify the binding of the GO/Ag nanocomposite onto the surface of the TFC membranes. A Raman spectroscopy analysis was conducted to characterize disordered carbonaceous materials such as GO nanosheets. In comparison with the virgin TFC FO membrane, which displays no characteristic peak in the Raman spectra, the GO/Ag is represented by two strong characteristic peaks at 1320 cm⁻¹ (D band) and 1570 cm⁻¹ (G band) with 532 nm laser excitation. The Raman spectroscopy results indicate the presence of the GO/Ag nanocomposites on the surface of the TFC FO membranes.

The physical stability of the GO/Ag nanocomposite bonded to the TFC membranes was 312 313 evaluated through an XPS analysis. To investigate the role of GO in stabilizing the silver NPs on the membrane surface, the membranes functionalized with AgNPs (synthesis procedure is 314 provided in supporting information) and GO/Ag nanocomposites were sonicated for 7 min, and 315 the silver content of each membrane (after sonication) was estimated in an XPS analysis. 316 Metallic Ag 3*d* peaks are centered at 373.9 and 367.9 eV, consistent with the reported values⁴⁶. 317 Although more Ag was loaded on the membranes decorated with Ag NPs than on GO/Ag 318 319 functionalized membranes, the Ag loss by physical stress was enhanced by using GO as a support for Ag NPs. In total, 50 percent of the Ag NPs were lost during sonication, whereas only 320 321 6 percent were lost from GO/Ag functionalized membranes (Figure S6, supporting information).

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Figure 3.

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326 Membrane Transport Properties were not Significantly Affected by GO/Ag

327 Functionalization.

The FO process is operated without applying any high transmembrane pressure. Therefore, any surface modification may influence the membrane permselectivity properties, unlike other pressure-driven membrane processes. The iIntrinsic transport properties of the membrane, *i.e.*, 331 pure water permeability (A) and salt permeability (B), were evaluated in a RO mode experiment. The water flux and reverse salt flux of a 1 M NaCl solution in the FO mode were also evaluated 332 333 to determine the effect of GO/Ag nanocomposite functionalization on the performance of the TFC FO membrane. Both the pure water permeability (A) and salt permeability coefficient (B) 334 335 of the functionalized TFC membrane did not significantly change from those of the control TFC membranes. The pure water permeability decreased by approximately 6%, and the salt 336 337 permeability coefficient increased by 13% (Figure 4A). Because the cysteamine treatment has no adverse effect on the membrane performance²⁰, the change in pure water permeability and salt 338 permeability coefficient can be attributed to the formation of a barrier layer of GO/Ag, which can 339 hinder water flux. The water flux of TFC membranes in the FO mode slightly decreased after 340 modification (2% decrease), and the value of the reverse salt flux increased by approximately 341 20% (Figure 4B). These changes may be attributed to the formation of an additional layer on the 342 surface of the membrane, which may act as a barrier and decrease the water flux. Moreover, the 343

GO nanosheets possess frictionless surfaces which can affect the formation of an internal boundary layer, changing shear stresses and thus affecting membrane transport properties (since there is no external pressure applied in FO process). Also the presence of silver nanoparticles on the membrane surface, which can release positively charged Ag ions, can change the charge distribution and charge interactions between feed solution and membrane surfaces interface. These two factors can affect the membrane transport properties in FO mode.

According to the contact angle measurements, Figures 4C and 4D show the water contact angle 350 of the membrane decreasing from 55° for the virgin TFC FO membrane to 24° for the 351 functionalized membrane, indicating that the GO/Ag functionalization provides a highly 352 hydrophilic surface. This change in hydrophilicity of the membrane with GO/Ag 353 functionalization is attributed to the presence of hydrophilic oxygen-containing functional groups 354 on the GO nanosheets. Additionally, the hydrophilicity is a critical factor for controlling the 355 fouling of the FO membranes. The surface zeta potential, the type of charge, and the density of 356 357 the exposed charge are the other crucial parameters that determine the fouling properties of the membrane. The observed zeta potential (Figure S4 in the supporting information) for a pristine 358 TFC PA membrane agreed with the protonation behavior of polyamide functional groups. At a 359 low pH, the unreacted amine groups remaining after the interfacial polymerization (characterized 360

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by a broad peak at 3500 cm⁻¹ in the ATR-FTIR spectra in Figure 3 (C)) were protonated, whereas 361 the carboxylic groups remained unchanged. As the pH increased to a value above the pK_a of the 362 carboxylic group, these groups were deprotonated, and the surface charge of the membrane 363 became negative and remained constant⁴⁷. By functionalizing the surface with GO/Ag 364 365 nanocomposites, the protonation of the unreacted amine groups occurred in a similar manner when the pristine TFC membrane was immersed in a low pH solution. At higher pH values, 366 367 however, numerous carboxylic groups were present on the surface of the GO nanosheets, and thus, deprotonation occurred to a higher extent than for pristine membranes. As a result, 368 functionalized membranes impart more negative charges. 369

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- 372

Figure 4.

373 The Functionalized Membrane Exhibited Strong Antimicrobial Activity.

As reported elsewhere. ⁴⁸ microbial inactivation occurs through a three-step mechanism. The 374 primary step is cell deposition onto the carbon-based nanomaterials. Similar to single-wall 375 376 carbon nanotubes, graphene oxide inactivates bacteria by direct cell contact and membrane damage⁴⁹ and through charge transfer and formation of reactive oxygen species ⁵⁰. Silver 377 nanoparticles also exhibit significant antimicrobial properties through different proposed 378 mechanisms such as the following: *i*) releasing Ag^+ ions, which strongly bind to thiol groups in 379 380 enzymes and proteins on the cellular surface and cause destabilization of the membrane and 381 cellular walls; *ii*) attaching to the surface of the bacteria and producing holes in the membrane and cellular wall, allowing the AgNPs to penetrate into the bacteria; or *iii*) producing reactive 382 oxygen species under oxidizing conditions that are capable of irreversibly damaging cellular 383 DNA replication⁵⁰. In the case of the GO/Ag nanocomposite, a synergetic phenomenon in 384 bacterial inactivation is observed, which is called the capture-killing mechanism⁴⁸. Graphene 385 oxide plays an important role as a support for the AgNPs and prevents the AgNPs from 386 agglomerating. The GO also dictates a spherical morphology to the AgNPs and thus provides a 387 larger active surface area, a shape that results in higher antimicrobial activity. In addition, the 388 graphene oxide displays the ability to capture bacteria on its surface^{48, 51}, which, for the GO/Ag 389

nanocomposite, results in a higher chance of bacterial inactivation by AgNPs. Additionally,

graphene oxide can rupture the membrane wall because of its sharp edges $^{49, 52}$.

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Using E. coli (GFP level 1) as a model organism, the antimicrobial activity of control and 392 functionalized TFC membranes was investigated in static bacterial inactivation tests. The results 393 show that even over a short period of contact (i.e., 1 h), the GO/Ag nanocomposite 394 functionalized membranes significantly reduced the number of viable E. coli cells by 96%, 395 which is higher than that of either independent graphene oxide or AgNP functionalized 396 membranes (Figure 5). To better understand the synergetic effects of the GO nanosheets and 397 AgNPs in GO/Ag nanocomposites, TFC functionalized membranes with AgNPs and GO were 398 prepared and examined in an antibacterial analysis. The results show significant differences in 399 bacterial inactivation of the three modified membranes. Silver NP modified membranes 400 displayed a 60% inactivation, whereas GO nanosheet functionalized membranes displayed an 401 approximately 40% bacterial inactivation. Silver decorated graphene oxide showed a remarkably 402 high inactivation (approximately 96%). These results can be attributed to a synergetic effect of 403 404 the combination of silver NPs and graphene oxide, which have different approaches to bacterial inactivation. GO/Ag nanocomposites can inactivate bacteria not only through silver ions being 405 released and penetrating into the cells⁵⁰ but also through the sharp edges of GO nanosheets 406 rupturing the membrane wall⁴⁹. The biocidal effect of cysteamine was also studied as a control 407 408 sample. In comparison with the TFC membrane, a negligible biocidal effect was observed resulting from the cysteamine. 409

410 Silver Ion Release Behavior was Different for Composite and only AgNP Modified 411 Membranes.

The silver ion loading and release behavior were analyzed by ICP-MS. To investigate the effect 412 413 of the GO support on the release of AgNPs, AgNP decorated TFC membranes were compared with a GO/Ag functionalized membrane. The reactant concentration of AgNPs during synthesis 414 415 was constant to allow for rational comparisons. The results show that the silver content for the AgNP decorated membranes (13.38 μ g/L) was approximately three times greater than that for 416 417 the GO/Ag decorated membrane (5 µg/L), agreeing with the XPS elemental composition. However, the release behavior of these two functionalized membranes was different. Whereas 418 419 silver ions are released moderately over time for the AgNP decorated membrane, the release of 420 silver ions from the GO/Ag decorated membrane occurred immediately in the first day and remained constant with time (Figure 5 (B)). However, the bacterial inactivation results indicate 421 422 that the GO/Ag decorated membranes were more effective compared with GO and AgNP functionalized membranes. These results indicate that the Ag decorated membranes can 423 424 inactivate bacteria by releasing ions; however, the GO/Ag functionalized membranes can release ions and rupture cells because of the sharp edges of the GO nanosheets, enhancing the bacterial 425 426 inactivation. The synergetic performances for the GO/Ag functionalized membrane can be attributed to the combined mechanisms of bacterial inactivation that have been engendered by 427 the GO nanosheets and silver NPs. Although the results of this paper are comparable to other 428 publications^{34, 35} with regards to the silver loading and releasing rate, the earlier defined 429 430 regeneration process should be incorporated for practical long-term real-world applications. Because the membrane is functionalized with GO, the regeneration process can be accomplished 431 easily through the in situ synthesis of AgNPs (information regarding the membrane preparation 432 is provided in the supporting information). 433

434

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Figure 5.

436 CONCLUSIONS.

GO/Ag nanocomposite functionalization of TFC FO membranes provides an effective 437 438 antimicrobial surface that has better characteristics than either GO or AgNPs independently. This enhanced effectiveness likely results from the synergistic effect of the capture-killing mechanism 439 440 displayed by this system. In addition, the higher hydrophilicity of the resulting membranes, the low material cost, and the ease of preparation (dip coating method) result in a more efficient and 441 442 effective approach than other modification methods. Finally, using graphene oxide as a support for biocidal metal nanoparticles provides an opportunity for the regeneration of biocidals after 443 444 release. However, additional studies must be conducted to examine the in-situ regeneration of the GO/Ag nanocomposite to fully exploit this potential. 445

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449 ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Supporting Information: FE-SEM and backscatter electron microscopy of (A) GO 450 451 functionalized TFC and (B) GO/Ag nanocomposite functionalized TFC. Elements with high atomic numbers backscatter electrons more strongly than lighter elements with low atomic 452 453 numbers and thus appear brighter on the image (Figure S.1). TEM images of (A) GO, (B) Ag NPs, and (C) GO/Ag nanocomposite (Figure S2). ATR-FTIR spectra of (A) a GO nanosheet and 454 455 GO/Ag nanocomposite and (B) a control TFC and GO/Ag nanocomposite functionalized TFC membrane (Figure S3). The zeta potential of the surface of the pristine and functionalized 456 457 membranes as a function of solution pH. Measurements were taken at room temperature (23°C) in a solution of 1 mM KCl by adjusting pH with the dropwise addition of HCl and NaOH (Figure 458 S.4). Surface roughness properties of pristine and GO/Ag functionalized TFC FO membranes 459 (Table S1). XPS results for (A) pristine membrane and (B) cysteamine treated TFC FO 460 461 membranes. Peaks at 198 eV for Cl2P and 162 for Sulfor S2P are shown in (A) and (B), respectively (Figure S5). Elemental composition of the membrane surface of pristine and 462 functionalized membranes before and after sonication (Table S2). The physical stability of the 463 silver NPs on the Ag NP decorated and GO/Ag functionalized membranes from XPS results. A 464 7-min bath sonication was applied to the membranes, and the percent of silver on the membrane 465 surface was estimated (Figure S6). 466

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566 FO membranes: (A) in situ AgNPs synthesized onto the GO nanosheets, (B) amide forming 567 reaction and thiol functionalization of the TFC FO membrane, and (C) covalent binding of the 568 GO/Ag nanocomposite to the TFC FO membrane surface.



Figure 1. Characterization of the GO/Ag nanocomposite. (A) UV-Vis spectra, (B) XRD patterns,
(C) thermogravimetric curves for Ag NPs, GO nanosheets, and GO/Ag nanocomposites, and (D)
HR-TEM images of the GO/Ag nanocomposite.



Figure 2. FESEM images of (A) the polyamide active layer of the TFC membrane and (B) the GO/Ag functionalized polyamide active layer of the TFC membrane. AFM images of (C) the TFC membrane and (D) the GO/Ag functionalized TFC membrane.



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Figure 3. Surface characterization of virgin and functionalized TFC FO membranes: (A) XPS analysis of the TFC (black), GO/Ag nanocomposite functionalized membranes before (red) and after (blue) sonication, (B) XPS analysis at a higher magnification, (C) ATR-FTIR spectra of the virgin and functionalized TFC membranes, and (D) Raman spectra of the control and functionalized TFC membranes.



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Figure 4. Membrane properties before and after modification. (A) The water permeability and
salt permeability of the TFC and GO/Ag functionalized TFC membranes (in the RO mode). (B)
The water flux and salt reverse flux (in the FO mode) of the TFC and GO/Ag functionalized TFC
membranes. (C) The water contact angle of the TFC and GO/Ag functionalized TFC membranes.
(D) Water droplets on the TFC and GO/Ag functionalized TFC membrane surfaces.



Figure 5. Colony-forming units (CFU) after *E. coli* cells had been in contact with the control and GO/Ag functionalized membranes for 1 h at room temperature: (A) CFU for the virgin and GO/Ag functionalized membranes, (B) the silver ion release rate from the GO/Ag functionalized membranes, (C) CFU for the virgin, GO, AgNPs, and GO/Ag functionalized TFC membranes, and (D) an SEM image of the inactivated bacteria on the GO/Ag functionalized TFC membrane.