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# Polydopamine/Hydroxyapatite Nanowires-based Bilayered Membrane for Photothermal-driven Membrane Distillation

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## Abstract

In developing countries and resource-limited regions, where no power infrastructure or waste heat from industrial plants is available, photothermal-driven membrane distillation (PMD) has been recognized as an attractive and sustainable technology for freshwater generation. PMD enables easy water collection, inherent fouling resistance, low-pressure operation, and high-salinity water treatment. Hydroxyapatite (HA) nanowires with excellent mechanical flexibility owing to their high aspect ratio, low thermal conductivity, easy surface modification and scalable production offer great potential for highly efficient membrane distillation. Herein, we demonstrate that the environmental-benign HA nanowires-based bilayered film offers the highest photothermal efficiency (62%) and water flux ( $0.89 \text{ kg}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$ ) with 1-sun irradiation ( $1 \text{ kW}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}$ ), among the exiting PMD systems without auxiliary heating or multilayer heat recovery reported so far. The hierarchical porous structure formed by the remarkably flexible and intertwined HA nanowires allows low resistance to vapor transport, which is critical for high water flux. Simultaneously, the low thermal conductivity of the thermal insulator layer comprised of HA nanowires prevents conductive heat transfer across membrane, which significantly enhances the thermal efficiency of the membrane. The completely biocompatible, scalable, and thermally-engineered bilayered film demonstrated here achieves highly efficient PMD.

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## 30 Introduction

31 Although 71% of earth surface is covered with water, more than 97% of it is saltwater, and  
32 freshwater is limited to only about 2.5%.<sup>1</sup> The water crisis has been exacerbated due to  
33 environmental pollution, increased agriculture needs, socio-economic development, and  
34 population growth.<sup>2, 3</sup> Among various desalination technologies, membrane distillation (MD) has  
35 gained wide attention due to its ability to treat highly saline water utilizing waste heat from  
36 industrial processes.<sup>4-9</sup> The MD process can be carried out at a lower pressure compared to  
37 reverse osmosis (RO) and at a lower temperature than conventional thermal distillation  
38 technology.<sup>10-12</sup> In MD system, the hot feed saline water and cold distillate are present on opposite  
39 sides of a porous hydrophobic membrane.<sup>13</sup> Driven by the vapor-pressure gradient caused by the  
40 temperature difference, the steam, generated at the interface of membrane and hot feed water,  
41 transports across the membrane to the cold distillate side, where condensation occurs.<sup>14</sup> However,  
42 the implementation of conventional MD is hindered in remote regions and disaster-struck  
43 communities where low-grade thermal energy from industrial plants and electricity are not readily  
44 available.

45 To address this problem, photothermal-driven membrane distillation (PMD), where MD is  
46 integrated with photothermal materials that can effectively convert light to thermal energy, is being  
47 proposed.<sup>15-18</sup> In particular, harnessing the abundant sunlight as a source of thermal energy offers  
48 great potential to propel it to developing countries and rural communities. Another merit for PMD  
49 is the high thermal efficiency compared to the conventional MD process.<sup>19-21</sup> For conventional  
50 MD, the conductive heat transfer across the membrane leads to temperature polarization,  
51 eventually impairing desalination efficiency.<sup>22, 23</sup> Localized surface heating can be achieved on  
52 photothermal membranes,<sup>24</sup> which remarkably alleviates the temperature polarization and results  
53 in higher thermal efficiency.

54 Most of the photothermal membranes reported to date employ synthetic polymers, such  
55 as polypropylene (PP),<sup>25</sup> polytetrafluoroethylene (PTFE)<sup>26, 27</sup> and polyvinylidene fluoride  
56 (PVDF),<sup>28-31</sup> as substrates, which are non-biocompatible and non-biodegradable. The disposal of  
57 these materials poses a great threat to the environment and ecosystems.<sup>32</sup> Preparation of these  
58 membranes *via* precursor polymer powders generally involves toxic organic solvents.<sup>15, 33, 34</sup>  
59 Moreover, incorporation of solar absorbers on surface of these synthetic polymers is not  
60 straightforward. To assist the loading of the solar absorbers, the inert surfaces of polymer  
61 substrates have been coated with binder materials with sticky functional groups.<sup>23</sup> These  
62 concerns associated with utilizing synthetic polymer-based membranes highlight the need to

63 transition to environmentally-benign membrane materials and to develop simple and green  
64 processes for PMD.

65 As a major inorganic mineral in bone and tooth of vertebrates, hydroxyapatite ( $\text{Ca}_{10}$   
66  $(\text{PO}_4)_6(\text{OH})_2$ , HA) is well-known for its biocompatibility, biodegradability, and abundance.<sup>35, 36</sup> HA  
67 nanowires with a high aspect ratio of length to diameter ( $> 100$ ) exhibit remarkable mechanical  
68 flexibility,<sup>37</sup> and they can be assembled into a flexible film by simple vacuum filtration. The film  
69 possesses an interconnected porous network and allows facile transfer of vapor across the film.<sup>38</sup>  
70 Owing to their low thermal conductivity, HA nanowires-based films have been employed as  
71 thermal insulators in solar steam generators to enhance localized surface heating.<sup>39</sup> Moreover,  
72 the hydrophilicity/hydrophobicity of the HA nanowires can be readily tuned by harnessing  
73 hydrogen bonding *via* hydroxyl groups or electrostatic interaction *via* charged moieties (*e.g.*,  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$   
74 ions), which enable facile surface modification.<sup>40, 41</sup> For those reasons, we posit that the  
75 biocompatibility, mechanical flexibility, low thermal conductivity, easy processability, and facile  
76 surface modification of HA nanowires make them as a promising material platform to realize high-  
77 performance photothermal membranes for PMD.

78 Herein, we introduce a highly efficient bilayered photothermal membrane based on HA  
79 nanowires with low resistance for vapor transport and high resistance for heat transfer. For this  
80 bilayered structure, the top layer comprises polydopamine (PDA)-coated HA (HA@PDA)  
81 nanowires to effectively convert solar energy to heat and a bottom layer comprises chitosan (CS)-  
82 bonded HA nanowires (HA-CS) as a thermal insulator (Figure 1). The CS in the bottom layer  
83 serves as a bio-degradable molecular glue. The hierarchical structure formed by the highly flexible  
84 and intertwined HA nanowires provides a network of channels for facile vapor transport. In  
85 addition, the easy surface modification and large surface area of HA nanowires allow dense  
86 coating of PDA that is a highly biocompatible and biodegradable solar absorber.<sup>42-44</sup> More  
87 importantly, the HA nanowires with low thermal conductivity can significantly reduce the  
88 conductive heat transfer across the membranes and increase the thermal efficiency in PMD.  
89 Although bilayered structures have been applied in PMD, the importance of a thermal insulator  
90 has not been well studied. Our work represents the first detailed study elucidating the role of  
91 thermal insulation layer in achieving high photothermal efficiency in PMD. This completely  
92 environmentally-friendly bilayered photothermal film exhibits outstanding light absorption, heat  
93 insulation, stability, and porosity, leading to high thermal efficiency in PMD. This work illuminates  
94 the great potential of HA nanowires in constructing a high-performance and environmentally-  
95 friendly photothermal membrane *via* a simple and green processing method.

## 96 Results and Discussion

97 The PDA/HA nanowires bilayered film was fabricated by sequential vacuum filtration of HA-CS  
98 and HA@PDA nanowires (Figure 1). The fabrication process is fast and scalable compared to  
99 freeze-drying and physical/chemical vapor deposition. HA nanowires were synthesized by a  
100 previously reported calcium oleate precursor *via* hydrothermal method, and large-scale synthesis  
101 (with a volume up to 100 L) could be achieved using a large stainless-steel autoclave.<sup>41</sup> HA  
102 nanowires with diameter of around 20 nm and high aspect ratio (>100) exhibited remarkable  
103 flexibility (Figure 2A, B). After dispersing in water, a stable wool-like suspension was observed  
104 (inset of Figure 2A). CS, a biopolymer that enables strong interfacial interaction (*e.g.*, hydrogen  
105 bonding and electrostatic interaction) with the nanowires, is added to improve the mechanical  
106 stability for the HA-CS film.<sup>37</sup>

107 To fabricate the HA-CS film (thermal insulation layer), the mixture of HA nanowires  
108 suspension with 10% (w/w) CS was vacuum filtered. The as-prepared pristine HA-CS film was  
109 white (Figure 2D) and the intertwined nanowires formed an interconnected porous network  
110 (Figure 2E). The pore size of HA-CS film was analyzed by flow capillary porometry and the mean  
111 diameter for pores was found to be around 200 nm (Figure 3A). Thermogravimetric analysis (TGA)  
112 showed that the loading of CS was around 4% (w/w) for the pristine HA-CS film (Figure 3B), which  
113 was found to be an optimal loading amount for a stable HA-CS film. In contrast, the film fabricated  
114 using a mixture of HA nanowires suspension with 5% (w/w) CS could not be successfully peeled  
115 from the filter membrane as they broke and disintegrated during the peeling process, suggesting  
116 that the HA nanowires are not firmly bound together (Figure S1). Higher loading of CS is also  
117 detrimental to the PMD performance as it compromises the porosity of the film. Therefore, the  
118 optimal loading of CS, which serves as the binding material, is important to ensure mechanical  
119 stability of the film and high PMD performance.

120 In this work, photothermally-active PDA was used as the solar absorber, because of its  
121 excellent biocompatibility, biodegradability, broadband light absorption and high light-to-heat  
122 conversion efficiency.<sup>16, 45</sup> To obtain PDA coating, HA nanowires were dispersed in the 10 mM  
123 Tris-HCl solution (pH = 8.5) followed by the addition of dopamine. PDA was formed *via* oxidative  
124 self-polymerization of dopamine and the reaction was stopped after 24 hours. The coating  
125 resulted in a color change of HA nanowires suspension from white (inset of Figure 2A) to dark  
126 brown (inset of Figure 2F). Transmission electron microscope (TEM) images revealed the ultrathin  
127 PDA coating on the HA nanowires surface, and the surface became significantly rougher (Figure  
128 2G) than the pristine HA nanowires (Figure 2B). The successful coating was confirmed by the

129 PDA nanotubes obtained after dissolving the HA nanowire cores by HCl, and the thickness for  
130 the PDA shell was found to be around 15 nm (Figure S2A). The isoelectric point ( $\text{pH}_{\text{iep}}$ ) of pristine  
131 HA nanowires was around 2.3, whereas that of HA@PDA suspension was around 4, which is  
132 similar to pure PDA and PDA coated surfaces,<sup>46, 47</sup> indicating the successful coating of PDA on  
133 HA nanowires (Figure S2B).

134 To validate the importance of incorporating HA-CS layer as a thermal insulator in PMD, a  
135 HA@PDA film with same thickness, consisting of only a solar absorber layer without a thermal  
136 insulating layer (HA-CS layer), was fabricated as a comparison. The HA@PDA film was obtained  
137 by vacuum filtering the HA@PDA nanowires. In stark contrast with the white color of pristine HA-  
138 CS film (Figure 2C), the HA@PDA film was dark brown (Figure 2H). The interconnected pores  
139 were also observed for the HA@PDA film, with mean diameter of 230 nm (Figure 3A). Based on  
140 TGA analysis, the weight percentage for PDA in the HA@PDA film was around 20% (Figure 3B),  
141 which was achieved by 24-hours oxidative self-polymerization of dopamine on HA nanowires. It  
142 is important to note that the PDA loading efficiency achieved here is much higher than reported  
143 in the case of hydrophilic PVDF film (9.7%) after seven polymerization cycles (each cycle for 24  
144 hours).<sup>16</sup> The difference is ascribed to the much larger surface area of HA nanowires compared  
145 to the porous PVDF membrane. HA nanowires were dispersed in the dopamine solution and  
146 provided a significantly larger surface for *in situ* PDA coating compared to PVDF membrane.  
147 Considering that adequate PDA loading is critical for effective light absorption and solar energy  
148 harvesting, HA nanowires offer a unique advantage as templates for PDA loading.

149 To obtain the bilayered HA-CS/HA@PDA film, HA@PDA nanowires were vacuum-filtered  
150 on the surface of HA-CS film (Figure 1). The color of upper layer (Figure 2K) and bottom layer  
151 (Figure 2L) of the as-prepared hybrid film was the same as HA@PDA film and HA-CS film,  
152 respectively, which confirmed the bilayered structure. Owing to the mechanical flexibility of the  
153 HA nanowires, HA-CS film, HA@PDA film, and the bilayered films could be easily bent without  
154 inducing brittle fracture (Figure 2D, I, M). A nacre-like multilayered structure was observed in the  
155 cross-section of bilayered film (Figure 2N-O) and HA@PDA film (Figure S3A-B), resulting from  
156 the physical and chemical interactions between the nanowires (e.g., physical entanglements,  
157 hydration forces, van der Waals interaction, hydrogen bonding and electrostatic interaction).<sup>40</sup>  
158 These available pores and interlayer spacings in the films will provide sufficient channels for  
159 effective vapor transport during the PMD operation.

160 Considering that the heat transfer resistance of the membrane plays a key role in the  
161 thermal efficiency of MD, we investigated the thermal conductivity of HA@PDA film and HA-CS

162 film, which constitute the top and bottom layers of the hybrid film, respectively. The measurements  
163 were conducted according to our previously reported method.<sup>48</sup> The film was sandwiched  
164 between two glass slides, with the top glass slide in contact with ice and the bottom one in contact  
165 with a hot plate, which was employed as heat source to establish heat flow (the temperature was  
166 increased from 70 °C to 120 °C with an interval of 10 °C). The temperature gradient along cross-  
167 section film was monitored by an infrared camera (insets of Figure 3C-D). The thermal  
168 conductivity for HA-CS film was measured to be  $0.048 \text{ W}\cdot\text{K}^{-1}\cdot\text{m}^{-1}$  (Figure 3C), which is comparable  
169 to the widely used thermal insulator materials for interfacial heating systems, such as polystyrene  
170 foam ( $0.040 \text{ W}\cdot\text{K}^{-1}\cdot\text{m}^{-1}$ ).<sup>49</sup> On the other hand, the HA@PDA film exhibited a thermal conductivity  
171 of  $0.147 \text{ W}\cdot\text{K}^{-1}\cdot\text{m}^{-1}$  (Figure 3D), which is three times higher than the HA-CS film. The low thermal  
172 conductivity of HA-CS film makes it as an excellent thermal insulator. Under light illumination, the  
173 thermal energy is generated in HA@PDA layer at the top and the HA-CS film at the bottom  
174 reduces the conductive heat transfer across the membrane. Therefore, the enhanced heat  
175 localization enabled by including the thermal insulator can significantly reduce the temperature  
176 polarization, which offers a higher driving force for vapor transport across the membrane and  
177 greatly improves the thermal efficiency of the photothermal membrane.

178 The hydrophobicity of membrane is critical for MD process.<sup>8, 50-52</sup> For hydrophobic  
179 microporous membranes, only vapor can to diffuse across the membrane, whereas mass transfer  
180 of liquid phase is prevented. Although as-prepared HA nanowires are highly hydrophilic, their  
181 facile surface modification allows easy hydrophobization. The films were subjected to  
182 fluorosilanization using (tridecafluoro-1,1,2,2-tetrahydrooctyl)-trichlorosilane (FTCS) to obtain a  
183 hydrophobic surface.<sup>53</sup> SEM images confirmed that the porous network was not affected by FTCS  
184 treatment (Figure S5), and contact angle measurement indicated the successful hydrophobic  
185 modification. The original surfaces of HA-CS film (Figure S4A), HA@PDA film (Figure S4B) and  
186 bilayered films (Figure S4C-D) were hydrophilic with water contact angles of 0°, following  
187 hydrophobization, the contact angles were 120°, 130°, and 126°, respectively (insets of Figure  
188 S5).

189 To investigate the light absorption of and HA@PDA/HA-CS film, the optical transmittance  
190 and reflectance of HA-CS, HA@PDA and HA@PDA/HA-CS film after FTCS treatment are  
191 measured and compared (with the film thickness  $\sim 70 \mu\text{m}$ ) (Figure 4A-B). The pristine HA-CS film  
192 exhibited high transmittance ( $\sim 33.3\%$ ) and reflectance ( $\sim 46.2\%$ ) in the visible region, implying  
193 relatively small light extinction ( $\sim 20.5\%$ ). On the other hand, the HA@PDA film exhibited  
194 extremely low light transmittance ( $\sim 0\%$ ) and reflectance ( $\sim 2.5\%$ ), which translated into a large

195 extinction (~97.5%). The difference in optical properties is associated with the presence of PDA,  
196 which is known to exhibit broadband light absorption. In addition, the interconnected porous  
197 structure of the film causes the multiple reflection within the film, enabling high light absorption.<sup>54</sup>  
198 Owing to the presence the HA@PDA layer at the top, the bilayered film also displayed very low  
199 light transmittance (~0%) and reflectance (~2.3%), which corresponds to a high light extinction  
200 (~97.7%). The bilayer structure of the membrane does not affect the optical properties. Hence,  
201 the large optical absorption and excellent light-to-heat conversion efficiency enabled by PDA  
202 makes the bilayered film a promising membrane for PMD.

203 Now, we turn our attention to the photothermal conversion efficiency of these films, which  
204 critically determines their thermal efficiency for PMD operation. The surface temperature of films  
205 in open air was measured using an infrared camera, under simulated solar light illumination at a  
206 power density of  $1 \text{ kW}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}$  (1 sun) and  $9 \text{ kW}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}$  (9 sun) (Figure 4C). After light irradiation for 120  
207 seconds, the surface temperature for pristine HA-CS film increased from  $\sim 25 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$  to  $\sim 28 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$  at 1-  
208 sun irradiation and to  $\sim 32 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$  at 9-sun irradiation, while the temperature increased to  $\sim 43 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$  at 1-  
209 sun and to  $\sim 238 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$  at 9-sun illumination for HA@PDA film (Figure 4D-E). In the presence of the  
210 HA-CS as a thermal insulator layer, the surface temperature of bilayered film increased to  $\sim 46 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$   
211 at 1-sun irradiation and  $\sim 245 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$  at 9-sun irradiation. The higher surface temperatures for the  
212 bilayered structures, compared to the pure HA@PDA film in the open air, highlights the  
213 importance of integrating a thermal insulating layer into the photothermal membrane, which  
214 effectively mitigates the heat dissipation and enhances the localized heating at the surface.

215 The PMD performance of HA@PDA/HA-CS bilayered film was evaluated in a specially  
216 designed direct contact membrane distillation (DCMD) module (Figure S6), with a HA@PDA film  
217 with the same thickness as a control for comparison (Figure 5A). The PMD setup was maintained  
218 to be same as our reported test condition.<sup>16</sup> Simulated seawater, 0.5 M NaCl solution at ambient  
219 temperature ( $20 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ ), was used as the feed water. Because the feed water flow rate can affect the  
220 water collection as we showed in our previous work,<sup>16</sup> the flow rate was fixed at  $3.6 \text{ ml}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$ ,  
221 based on our previous work. The distillate at room temperature with a flow rate of  $16.2 \text{ ml}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$   
222 was circulated on the opposite side of the membrane, and the generated freshwater was  
223 quantified by measuring the weight increase of the distillate as a function of irradiation time (Figure  
224 5C) (all tests were conducted for 60 minutes). The water flux for HA@PDA film was  $0.65 \text{ kg}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$   
225 and  $6.16 \text{ kg}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$  under 1-sun and 9-sun illumination, respectively. On the other hand, for the  
226 HA@PDA/HA-CS bilayered film, the water flux was found to be  $0.89 \text{ kg}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$  and  $8.28 \text{ kg}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$   
227 under 1-sun and 9-sun irradiation, respectively. These results indicated that the presence of a



228 thermal insulation layer led to ~27% and ~34% higher water flux compared to the HA@PDA film  
229 under 1-sun and 9-sun illumination, respectively.

230 The thermal efficiency of photothermal membrane is determined by the ratio of heat flux  
231 required to generate distillate flux to the total irradiated solar flux,  $\eta = \frac{\dot{m}h_{vap}}{I}$ , where  $\dot{m}$  represents  
232 the distillate flux of water,  $h_{vap}$  refers to the total evaporation enthalpy change, and  $I$  is the total  
233 incident solar flux. Given the water evaporation enthalpy of 2454 kJ•kg<sup>-1</sup> (~ 0.68 kW•kg<sup>-1</sup>•h),<sup>23, 55</sup>  
234 the water flux was 0.65 kg•m<sup>-2</sup>•h<sup>-1</sup> for HA@PDA film under 1 sun illumination, so the minimum  
235 heat flux needed to sustain this distillate flux is 0.45 kW•m<sup>-2</sup> for HA@PDA film. The total incident  
236 solar flux is 1 kW•m<sup>-2</sup>, so the corresponding thermal efficiency of HA@PDA film is 45%. The  
237 distillate flux of HA@PDA film was 6.16 kg•m<sup>-2</sup>•h<sup>-1</sup> under 9-sun illumination, so the required  
238 minimum heat flux is 4.20 kW•m<sup>-2</sup> and the calculated thermal efficiency is 46%. This efficiency is  
239 much higher than the previously reported efficiency achieved by carbon black nanoparticles-  
240 coated PVDF membrane (~22%). The superior performance is closely related with the high  
241 loading of PDA and hierarchical porous network of the membrane. The large surface area and  
242 facile surface modification of HA nanowires allow dense and stable coating of PDA, resulting in  
243 high thermal energy output from HA@PDA nanowires under light irradiation. Furthermore, the  
244 nanowires with high aspect ratio intertwine with each other and form the interconnected porous  
245 structure, which results in a low resistance for vapor transport. As for the carbon black  
246 nanoparticles-loaded PVDF membrane, polymeric binder is added to prevent the desorption and  
247 leaching of the light-absorbing nanoparticles from the porous matrix, which inevitably narrows the  
248 pores and reduce the mass transport.<sup>23, 56</sup>

249 Under identical test conditions, we also evaluated the performance of HA@PDA/HA-CS  
250 bilayered film. The efficiency reached 62% and 63% under 1-sun and 9-sun irradiation,  
251 respectively, which is much higher than the HA@PDA film and previously reported PDA-coated  
252 PVDF membrane (~45%).<sup>16</sup> This bilayered membrane represents the highest efficiency for PMD  
253 among those reported so far, treating the saline water at room temperature without auxiliary  
254 heating or heat recovery system.<sup>16, 23</sup> The improvement is mainly attributed to the enhanced  
255 localized heating at the evaporative surface owing to the presence of the HA-CS thermal  
256 insulation layer. Membranes with a high thermal efficiency have a relatively high resistance to  
257 conductive heat transfer as well as low resistance to mass transfer.<sup>57</sup> The low thermal conductivity  
258 of HA-CS layer in the hybrid film significantly reduces the conductive heat dissipation across the  
259 membrane and remarkably impairs the temperature polarization, yielding much stronger driving  
260 force for vapor transport.

261 During PMD, the thermal energy generated by the PDA leads to surface heating, so that  
262 the temperature of membrane surface ( $T_1$ ) is larger than that of feed water ( $T_f$ ). The generated  
263 vapor on the hot surface transfers to the cold distillate side due to the temperature difference  
264 between two sides of the membrane ( $T_1 > T_2$ ). However, the conductive heat transfer across the  
265 membrane results in the temperature increase on the permeate side of membrane (Figure 5B).  
266 The smaller temperature difference across the membrane eventually lowers driving force for the  
267 vapor transfer. In the presence of HA-CS layer as a thermal insulator, the conductive heat from  
268 the hot surface ( $T_3$ ) to the permeate side ( $T_4$ ) of membrane can be greatly reduced (Figure 5B).  
269 Hence, more thermal energy is preserved on the surface for localized heating, and thus a larger  
270 temperature difference across the membrane is achieved with the bilayered film, ultimately  
271 resulting in higher solar efficiency for PMD.

272 To evaluate the long-term PMD performance, the HA@PDA film and bilayered film were  
273 tested over 5 cycles (each cycle for 1 hour). The average fluxes of the HA@PDA film were 0.63  
274  $\text{kg}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$  and 5.83  $\text{kg}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$ , and those of HA@PDA/HA-CS film were 0.89  $\text{kg}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$  and 8.13  
275  $\text{kg}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$ , under 1-sun and 9-sun illumination, respectively (Figure 5D). The average thermal  
276 efficiencies of HA@PDA film were 43% and 44%, and those of bilayered film were 61% and 62%,  
277 under 1-sun and 9-sun illumination, respectively (Figure 5E). The performance using both films  
278 remained constant during the 5 cycles, and the variations in flux and thermal efficiency were less  
279 than 5%. As mentioned above, the anti-wetting property of membranes is critical for MD process.  
280 Therefore, the durability of hydrophobic modification of the membrane has also been investigated.  
281 The contact angle of HA@PDA film before PMD test was 129° and it was 125° for the bilayered  
282 film after 5-cycles testing (Figure S7). The negligible change (variation less than 5%) in the contact  
283 angle of the films indicates the durability of hydrophobic modification over repeated use of the  
284 membranes. Based on the Cantor–Laplace equation,<sup>58, 59</sup> the calculated liquid entry pressure for  
285 HA@PDA film and bilayered film is 110 kPa and 100 kPa, respectively. We then evaluated the  
286 mechanical stability of the film. Even after the vigorous mechanical agitation for 2 weeks, the  
287 bilayered film did not display any signs of disintegration (Figure S8A), and no change in  
288 morphology and hydrophobicity was observed (Figure S8B, S8C), highlighting the potential for  
289 long-term PMD application. This excellent durability of the membrane is ascribed to the  
290 outstanding mechanical properties (e.g., high flexibility) of HA nanowires and the intertwined  
291 morphology of the network, which serves as mechanical interlocks. In fact, numerous reports in  
292 the past demonstrated that the strong interfacial interactions (e.g., hydrogen bonding and  
293 electrostatic interactions) of HA nanowires with materials possessing polar functional groups (e.g.  
294 glass fiber, cellulose fiber, and CS) provides excellent mechanical strength of HA nanowires-

295 based films, which can be used as printing papers,<sup>36</sup> separators for lithium battery,<sup>38</sup> bone-fracture  
296 fixation materials,<sup>37</sup> and fire-alarm wallpapers.<sup>35</sup> Considering the excellent mechanical stability,  
297 low thermal conductivity, interconnected porous network, facile surface modification, scalable  
298 synthesis and environmentally-benign nature, HA nanowire-based membranes are highly  
299 comparable to, if not better than, conventional materials for membrane distillation, such as PVDF,  
300 PTFE and PP.

## 301 **Conclusions**

302 Here, we have successfully designed and fabricated a biocompatible HA@PDA/HA-CS bilayered  
303 film membrane for highly efficient PMD. The photothermal efficiency of the PDA/HA nanowires  
304 film reached 62% under 1-sun illumination and represents the highest efficiency for PMD reported  
305 so far for treating saline water at room temperature without any auxiliary heating system or heat  
306 recovery system. The facile surface modification and large surface area make HA nanowires an  
307 outstanding template for forming a dense, stable, and efficient PDA coating, which in turn ensures  
308 broadband light absorption and high light-to-heat conversion. More importantly, the  
309 interconnected porous structure, formed by the highly flexible and intertwined nanowires, leads  
310 to low resistance to vapor transfer. Simultaneously, the low thermal conductivity of HA nanowires  
311 layer significantly reduces the conductive heat transfer from the evaporative surface to the cold  
312 permeate side. This further improved the localized heating and vapor transfer across the  
313 membrane. In the presence of HA nanowires layer as a thermal insulator, the water flux of  
314 bilayered film is ~27% (under 1 sun) and ~34% (under 9 sun) higher than those of the HA@PDA  
315 film under identical test condition, respectively. Furthermore, the excellent mechanical robustness  
316 of bilayered film contributes to long-term and stable PMD performance, showing great potential  
317 for real-world application. This environmentally-benign, highly efficient and mechanically stable  
318 HA nanowires-based photothermal membrane is highly promising for freshwater generation in the  
319 remote regions and disaster-struck communities by utilizing the abundantly available sunlight and  
320 saline water.

## 321 **Experimental methods**

### 322 **Preparation of hydroxyapatite (HA) nanowires**

323 HA nanowires were synthesized by the calcium oleate precursor solvothermal method reported  
324 previously.<sup>41</sup> For all experiments, unless otherwise mentioned, we have used deionized water ( $\geq$   
325 18.2 M $\Omega$ -cm, Barnstead). Briefly, sodium hydroxide (NaOH, Sigma Aldrich) aqueous solution  
326 (1.73 M, 56.3 ml), calcium chloride (CaCl<sub>2</sub>, Sigma Aldrich) aqueous solution (250 mM, 45 ml), and

327 sodium dihydrogen phosphate dihydrate ( $\text{NaH}_2\text{PO}_4 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$ , Alfa Aesar) aqueous solution (333 mM,  
328 67.5 ml) were added to the mixture of  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  (50.6 ml), methanol (22.5 ml) (Sigma Aldrich), and  
329 oleic acid (35.1 g) (Sigma Aldrich) under stirring, respectively. Then, the mixture was transferred  
330 to a Teflon-lined stainless-steel autoclave (Parr Co., Moline, IL) and maintained at 180 °C for 24 h.  
331 The precipitates were centrifuged at 1500 rpm for 5 min and the supernatant was decanted. The  
332 collected product was dispersed in the mixture of ethanol (95%, Sigma Aldrich) and deionized  
333 water with volume ratio of 1 to 1. The mixture was centrifuged at 1500 rpm for 5 min, and the  
334 supernatant was subsequently removed. This wash step was repeated for three times. Finally,  
335 the products were dispersed in deionized water and the supernatant was decanted after  
336 centrifuging at 4000 rpm for 5 min. The rinsing step was repeated for three times and the final  
337 products were dispersed in deionized water. To determine the HA concentration, the HA  
338 suspension (1 ml) was dried in the 70 °C oven for overnight, and the weight of dry HA was  
339 measured.

#### 340 **Preparation of polydopamine (PDA)-coated HA (HA@PDA) nanowires**

341 To ensure the uniform dispersion of HA nanowires in solution, HA nanowires (20 mg) were  
342 dispersed in Tris-HCl buffer solution (10 mM, pH = 8.5, 50 ml) followed by sonication for 1 min.  
343 Then dopamine (20 mg, Sigma Aldrich) was added to the above suspension, followed by stirring  
344 for 24 h in open air to get the homogeneous PDA coating on HA nanowires. Finally, the resultant  
345 products were collected, and to remove the salt and PDA nanoparticles, they were washed with  
346 deionized water for three times by centrifuging at 6000 rpm for 5 min. The collected products  
347 were dispersed in deionized water.

#### 348 **Preparation of HA-CS film, HA@PDA film, and HA@PDA/HA-CS bilayered film**

349 The chitosan (CS) powders (200 mg, Sigma Aldrich) were dispersed in the acetic acid (Sigma  
350 Aldrich) aqueous solution (1% v/v, 10 ml), and the mixture was kept in an oil bath at 60 °C for 2 h  
351 under stirring to obtain a homogenous solution. CS solution (20 mg/ml, 111  $\mu\text{l}$ ) was added to HA  
352 nanowires suspension (1 mg/ml, 20 ml), and the mixture was left on a rotating mixer for 10 min to  
353 ensure uniform coatings of CS on the HA nanowires. The mixture of CS and HA was homogenous,  
354 and no aggregation was observed. Then, the mixture was vacuum-filtered through hydrophilic  
355 polypropylene (PP) membrane (diameter = 90 mm, pore size = 0.45  $\mu\text{m}$ , Cole-Parmer) to fabricate  
356 the HA-CS film. Once all water passed through the filter, the film was dried at 60 °C for 10 min.  
357 The HA-CS film was obtained by peeling from the membrane filter.

358 The HA@PDA film was also obtained by vacuum-filtering HA@PDA nanowires  
359 suspension (20 mg) on PP membrane. To obtain the HA@PDA/HA-CS bilayered film, the above  
360 mixture (10 ml) of HA nanowires and CS was vacuum-filtered on PP membrane. Once all water  
361 passed through the filter, the HA@PDA nanowires suspension (1 mg/ml, 10 ml) was vacuum-  
362 filtered on the top surface of HA-CS film. The film was dried at 60 °C for 10 min and finally the  
363 HA@PDA/HA-CS bilayered film was peeled from the membrane filter.

364 In both membrane preparation, the peeling process does not affect the mechanical  
365 strength.

### 366 **Preparation of PDA hollow nanowires**

367 HCl solution (1M, Sigma Aldrich) was used to dissolve the HA nanowires from the core of the  
368 HA@PDA nanowires. After adding HCl solution to HA@PDA nanowires suspension, the mixture  
369 was vortexed for 5 s and then washed with deionized water for three times by centrifuging at 6000  
370 rpm for 10 min. The collected the products were dispersed in deionized water.

### 371 **FTCS treatment**

372 To obtain the hydrophobic surface, the obtained films were treated with (tridecafluoro-1,1,2,2-  
373 tetrahydrooctyl)-trichlorosilane (Sigma Aldrich) vapor in a sealed container at 70 °C for 24 h. Then,  
374 to confirm the hydrophobic surface modification after FTCS treatment, water contact angle of films  
375 was measured using a contact angle analyzer (Phoenix 300, Surface Electro Optics Co. Ltd).

### 376 **Nano-/Micro-structure characterization**

377 SEM images of the surface and the cross section of the films and the nanowires were obtained  
378 after sputter coating the samples with gold. FEI Nova 2300 field-emission scanning electron  
379 microscope (SEM) was used at an acceleration voltage of 10.5 kV. The transmission electron  
380 microscope (TEM) images of nanowires were obtain using JEOL JEM-2100F field emission  
381 microscopy. Thermogravimetric analysis (TGA) was performed using TA Instruments Q5000 IR  
382 Thermogravimetric Analyzer in nitrogen gas flow (at rate of 10 °C·min<sup>-1</sup>). The pore size distribution  
383 of films was measured by a CFP-LEP-1100A capillary flow porometer. Zeta potential  
384 measurements were performed using a Zetasizer Nano ZS (ZEN3600) dynamic light scattering  
385 system (Malvern Instruments).

### 386 **Thermal conductivity measurement**

387 The thermal conductivities of HA-CS film and HA@PDA film were measured by monitoring the  
388 temperature distributions across the thickness of films that were sandwiched between two glass

389 microscope slides. The bottom glass slide was in contact with a hot plate and the top glass slide  
390 was in contact with ice. The temperature of hot plate was increased from 70 °C to 120 °C, in steps  
391 of 10 °C. The vertical temperature distribution for the sandwich was monitored by a high-speed  
392 IR camera (Telops FAST M3k). The emissivity coefficient of a glass slide and a sample was  
393 assumed to be 0.9 to obtain the temperature distribution.<sup>42</sup> Fourier equation was used to calculate  
394 the thermal conductivity of each sample:

$$395 \quad q' = K \frac{\Delta T}{\Delta X}$$

396 The heat flux ( $q'$ ) was calculated by assuming the thermal conductivity ( $K$ ) of 1.05 W·m<sup>-1</sup>·K<sup>-1</sup> for  
397 glass slides. Because the glass slide and samples experience the same heat flux, the heat flux  
398 value obtained for glass slide was used to measure the thermal conductivity for HA-CS film and  
399 HA@PDA film samples, respectively.

#### 400 **Optical properties and photothermal performance measurement**

401 Reflectance and transmittance spectra of films were obtained using a CRAIC micro  
402 spectrophotometer (QDI 302) coupled to a Leica optical microscope (DM 4000M) with 20x  
403 objective in the range of 450–800 nm with 10 accumulations and 100 ms exposure time in  
404 reflection and transmission mode, respectively. The surface temperature of films was monitored  
405 by an IR camera (Ti 100, FLUKE) under light illumination using a solar simulator (Newport 66921  
406 Arc Lamp) under both unfocused irradiation (1 sun) and focused irradiation (9 sun).

#### 407 **Photothermal-driven membrane distillation performance measurement**

408 The PMD performance was evaluated using a direct contact membrane distillation (DCMD)  
409 module. The PMD cell was constructed using acrylonitrile butadiene styrene (ABS) plastic by 3D  
410 printing. The diameter for MD cell was 1.5 cm. A Teflon substrate with thickness of 1 mm was  
411 placed between the feed side and distillate side to support the photothermal membrane. The 0.5  
412 M NaCl aqueous solution was chosen to simulate the seawater as the feed water and deionized  
413 water was chosen as distillate stream at the bottom of the membrane, both of which were at room  
414 temperature (20 °C). The feed and distilled water were continuously circulated using two  
415 peristaltic pumps (Welco WPX1-F1 and Stenner 85MHP5), with a flow rate of 3.6 ml·min<sup>-1</sup> and  
416 16.2 ml·min<sup>-1</sup>, respectively. The thickness of feed water was maintained at 8 mm. The collected  
417 permeate water was recorded using a weight scale (Sartorius ELT402) to measure the weight of  
418 the distillate reservoir every 2 min. The light illumination to DCMD was achieved using a solar  
419 simulator (Newport 66921 Arc Lamp) under both 1 and 9 sun illumination.

**420 Mechanical agitation**

421 The HA@PDA/HA@-CS film (1 cm x 1 cm, L x W) was placed in a 50 ml test tube filled with water,  
422 then it was subjected to rigorous mechanical agitation a tube rotator (VWR Multimix Tube Rotator  
423 Mixer 13916-822) for 2 weeks.

**424 Liquid entry pressure calculation**

425 The liquid entry pressure of HA@PDA and HA@PDA/HA-CS film was calculated based on the  
426 Cantor–Laplace equation.<sup>58, 60</sup>

$$427 \quad LEP = \frac{-2B\gamma_L \cos\theta}{r_{max}}$$

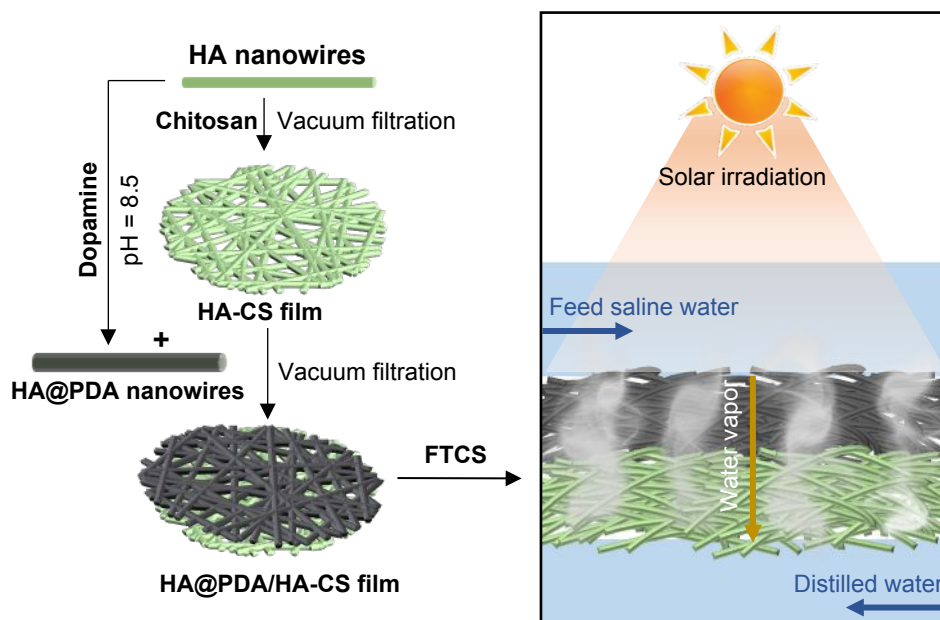
428 where  $LEP$  was the liquid entry pressure of pure water in Pa,  $B$  represented a dimensionless  
429 geometrical factor that includes the irregularities of the pores ( $B = 1$  for assumed cylindrical pores),  
430  $\gamma_L$  referred the liquid surface tension in  $\text{N}\cdot\text{m}^{-1}$  (in this case water at  $20^\circ\text{C}$ ,  $0.07286 \text{ N}\cdot\text{m}^{-1}$ ),  $\theta$   
431 represented the contact angle in degree, and  $r_{max}$  was the maximal pore radius in m (non-closed  
432 pore,  $r_{max} = 0.86 \times 10^{-6}$  m according to the measurement of flow capillary porometry).

**433 Conflicts of interest**

434 There are no conflicts to declare.

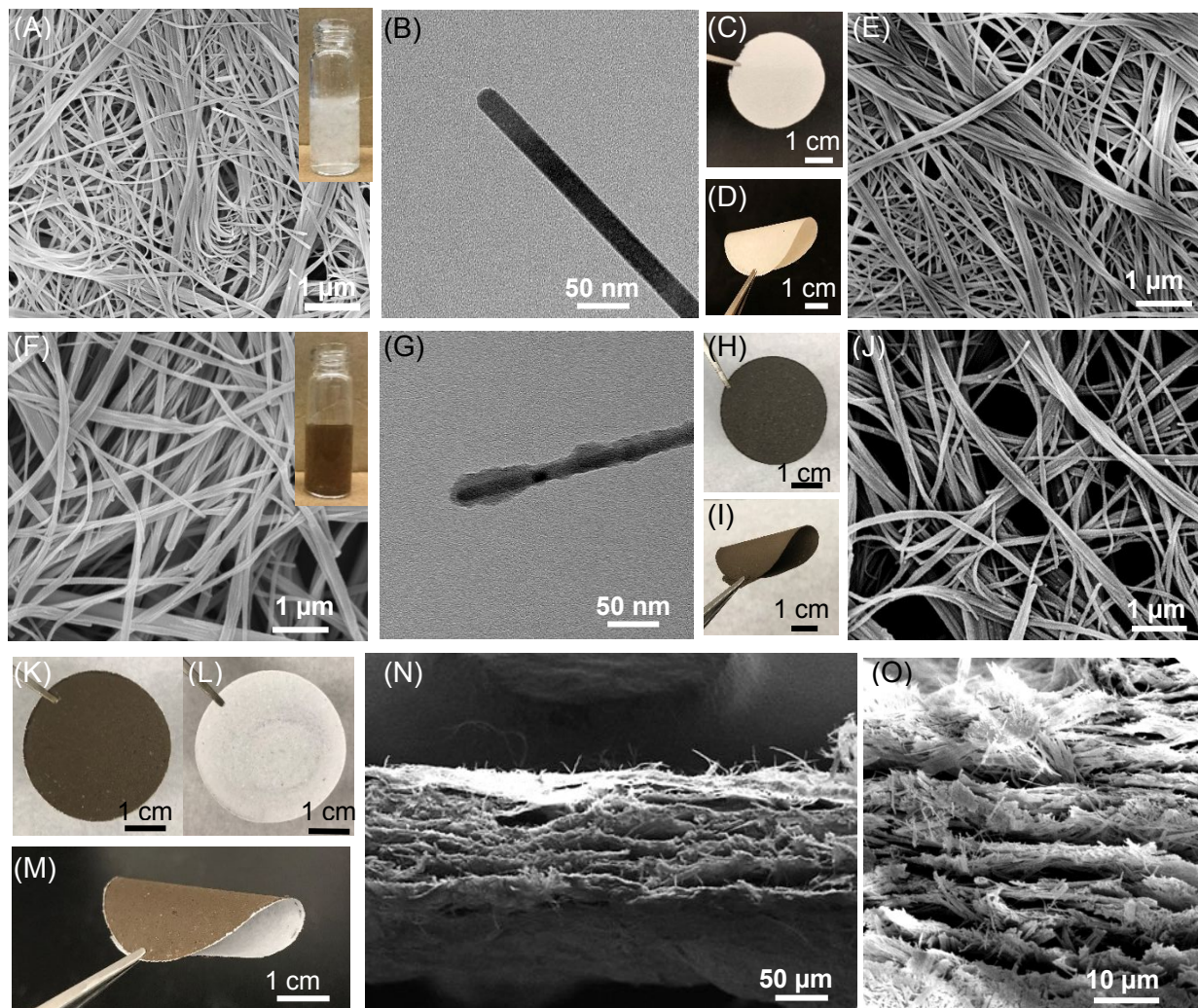
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441 setups, and Prof. Xianfeng Wang of Donghua University for providing the capillary flow porometer  
442 to characterize the pore size distribution of films.

443 **Figures**

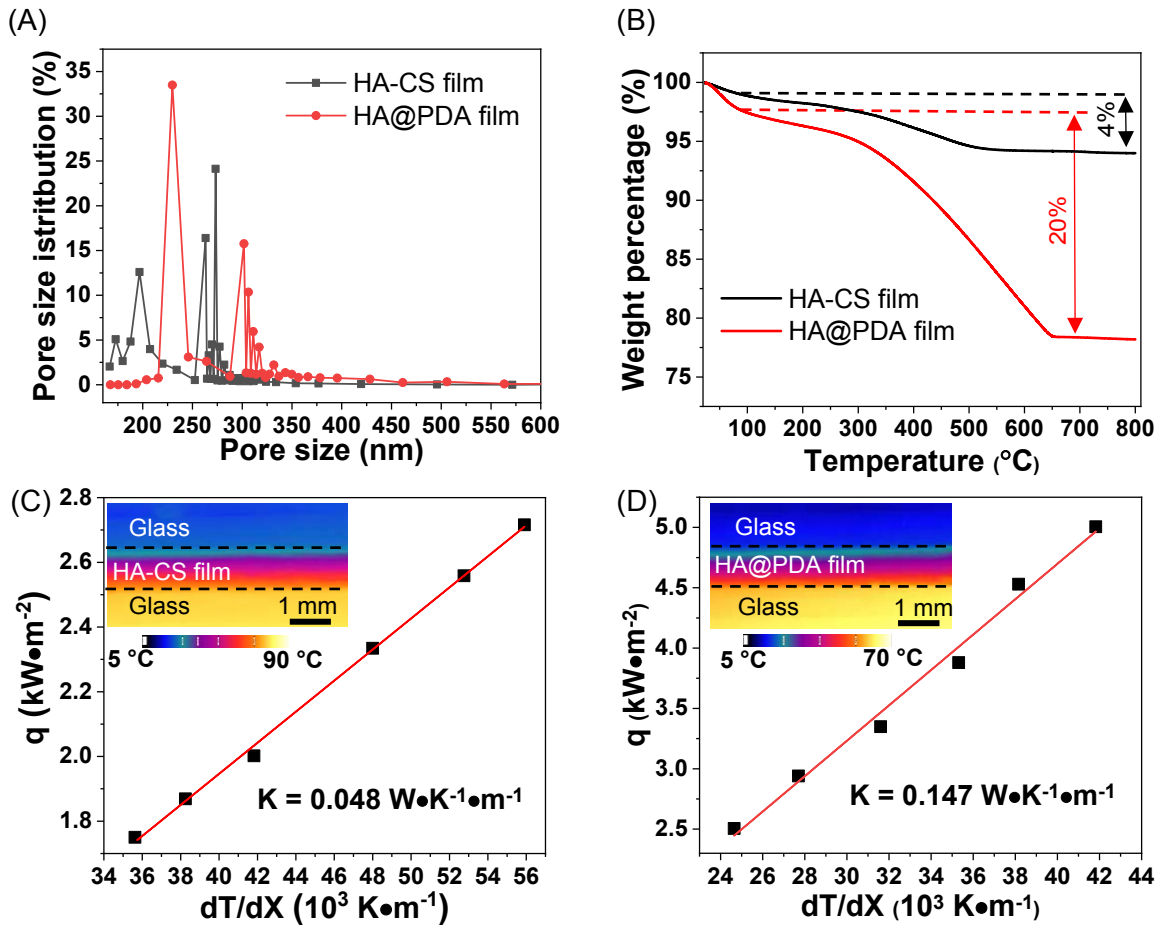
444  
 445 Figure 1. Schematic illustration depicting the fabrication of HA@PDA/HA-CS bilayered  
 446 photothermal film and PMD based on this bilayered structure. Chitosan (CS) is added to the HA  
 447 nanowires suspension and subsequently the mixture is vacuum filtered to prepare the HA-CS  
 448 film. HA nanowires are dispersed in the dopamine solution (pH = 8.5) to allow the PDA coating  
 449 on the HA surface and the obtained HA@PDA nanowires were vacuum filtered onto the HA-CS  
 450 film to prepare the bilayer photothermal film. Finally, to obtain hydrophobic surface, the film was  
 451 fluorosilanized using (tridecafluoro-1,1,2,2-tetrahydrooctyl)-trichlorosilane (FTCS). PMD was  
 452 conducted using a direct contact membrane distillation cell under simulated solar irradiation.



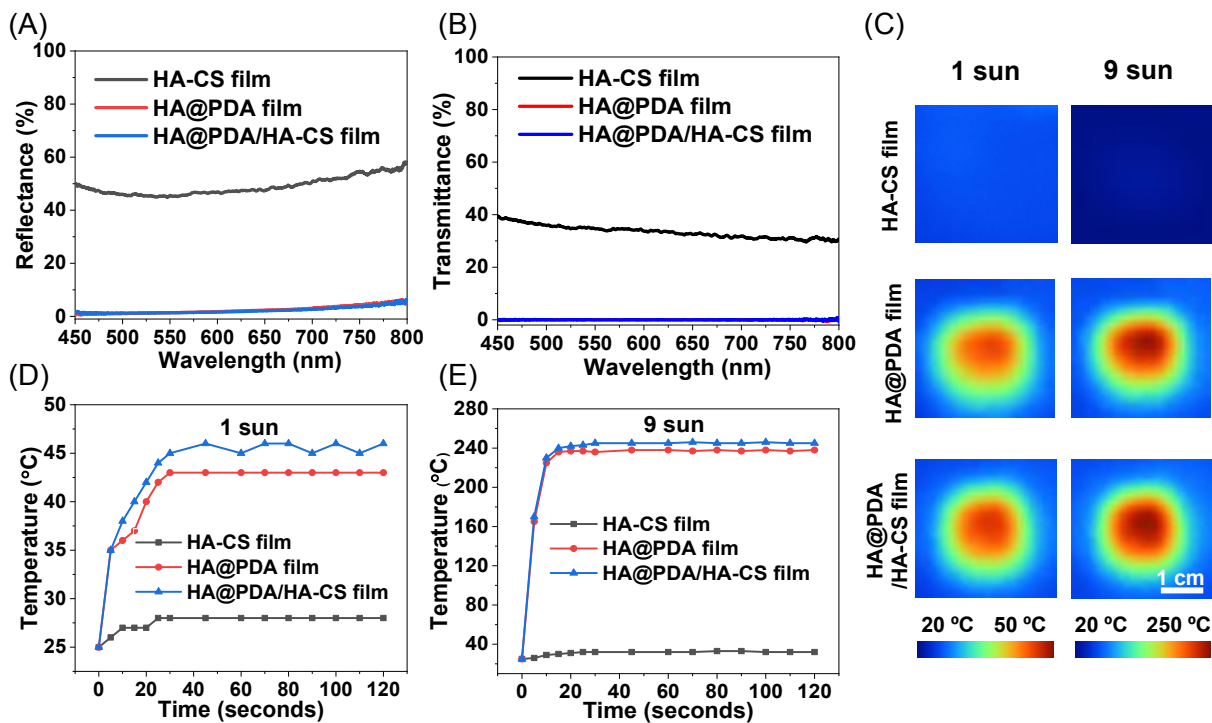


453

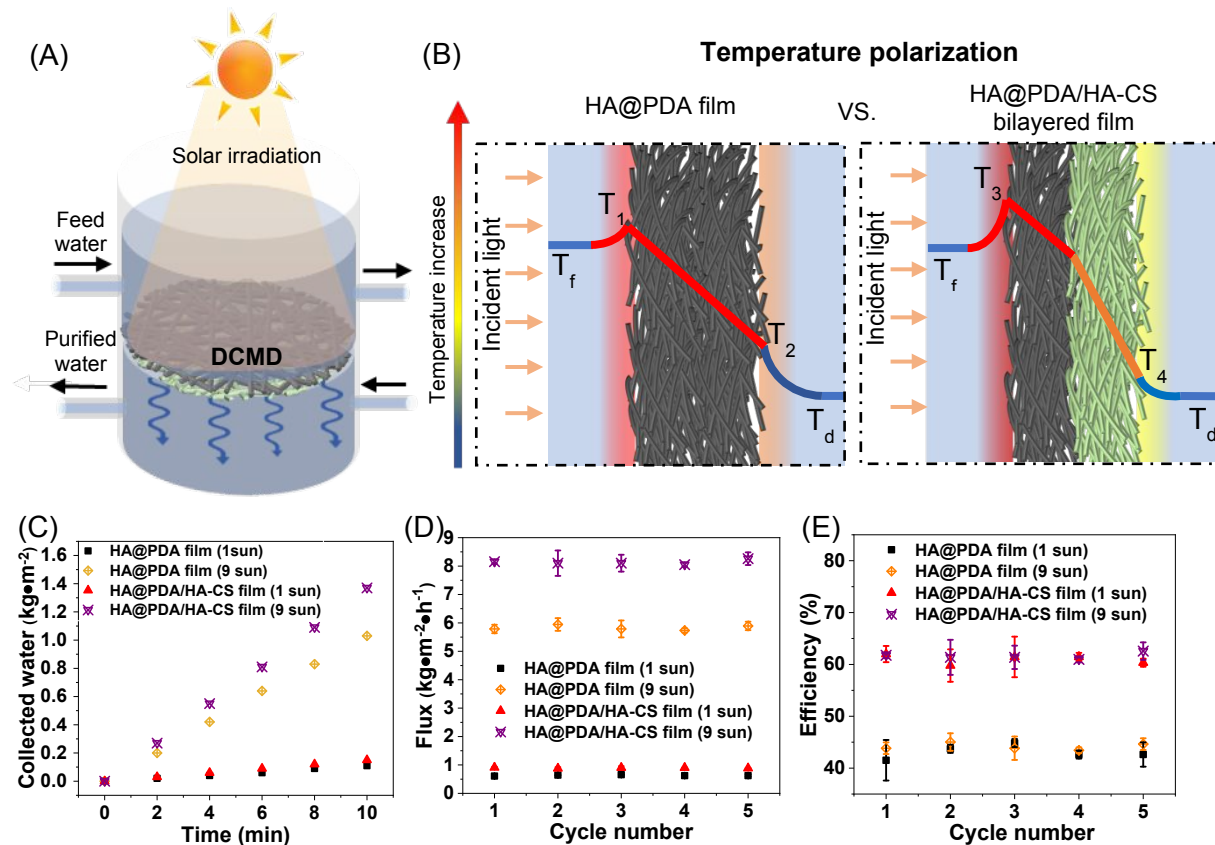
454 Figure 2. (A) SEM image of HA nanowires (inset shows the photograph of HA nanowires  
455 suspension). (B) TEM image of HA nanowires. Photograph of a flat (C) and deformed (D) HA-CS  
456 film. (E) SEM image of the HA-CS film. (F) SEM image of HA@PDA nanowires (inset shows the  
457 photograph of HA@PDA nanowire suspension). (G) TEM image of HA@PDA nanowires.  
458 Photograph of a flat (H) and deformed (I) HA@PDA film. (J) SEM image of the HA@PDA film.  
459 Photograph of top (K), bottom (L) of HA@PDA/HA-CS film and a deformed bilayered film (M).  
460 The cross-section SEM images of the HA@PDA/HA-CS film in low magnification (N) and high  
461 magnification (O).



462  
 463 Figure 3. Characterization of HA-CS film and HA@PDA film. Pore size distributions (A) and  
 464 TGA analyses (B) of representative HA-CS film and HA@PDA film. Thermal conductivity of HA-  
 465 CS film (C) and HA@PDA film (D). Insets: representative IR images showing the temperature  
 466 gradient along the thickness of the HA-CS film (C) and HA@PDA film (D).



467  
 468 Figure 4. Optical and photothermal properties of the membranes. Reflectance (A) and  
 469 transmittance spectra (B) of the HA-CS film, HA@PDA film, and HA@PDA/HA-CS film. (C) IR  
 470 images showing the surface temperature of the HA-CS film, HA@PDA film and HA@PDA/HA-CS  
 471 film under 1-sun and 9-sun illumination in open air after 120 seconds. The plots showing the  
 472 surface temperature of the HA-CS film, HA@PDA film and HA@PDA/HA-CS film under 1-sun (D)  
 473 and 9-sun illumination (E) as a function of irradiation time.



474  
 475 Figure 5. PMD performance for the HA@PDA film and HA@PDA/HA-CS film. (A) Schematic  
 476 illustration of photothermal direct contact membrane distillation (DCMD) using HA@PDA/HA-CS  
 477 film with thickness of the feed water at 8 mm. (B) Schematic illustration of thermal profile of  
 478 DCMD using a HA@PDA film (left) and HA@PDA/HA-CS film (right) under solar irradiation. (C)  
 479 PMD performance of HA@PDA film and HA@PDA/HA-CS film in purifying 0.5 M NaCl saline  
 480 water under 1-sun and 9-sun illumination. Flux (D) and thermal efficiency (E) of the photothermal  
 481 DCMD system using the HA@PDA film and HA@PDA/HA-CS film, with 0.5 M NaCl saline water  
 482 under 1-sun and 9-sun irradiation for 5-cycles testing (each cycle for 1 hour, standard deviation  
 483 obtained from measurements of 3 samples; some of error bars were hidden by the symbols  
 484 because the error bars are smaller than symbol sizes).

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