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Fabrication of novel Janus membrane by nonsolvent thermally induced phase separation (NTIPS) for enhanced performance in membrane distillation

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19 **Abstract**

20

21 This study proposed to use the nonsolvent thermally induced phase separation (NTIPS)
22 method to fabricate a novel Janus membrane for MD applications. The as-prepared
23 dual-layer membrane consisted of a thin hydrophobic PVDF top-layer and a relatively
24 thick hydrophilic PVDF-PVA sub-layer. By adopting a facile one-step co-casting
25 technique and water soluble diluent ϵ -caprolactam (CPL), delamination-free dual-layer
26 membrane was obtained. The SEM morphologies and FTIR crystalline analyses
27 suggested the membrane formation mechanisms, where the hydrophobic top-layer was
28 formed via NTIPS process, resulting in an ultra-thin dense skin with finger-like pores
29 formed beneath; while the hydrophilic sub-layer was induced by TIPS, producing
30 highly porous cellular structure with high degree pore interconnectivity. Combining the
31 structural observation and MD performance results, suitable fabrication parameters
32 were identified as a PVDF concentration of 15 wt% for the hydrophobic layer and
33 coagulation temperature between 20-40 °C. The total membrane thickness was
34 optimized as 100-150 μm , given the thickness of hydrophobic layer kept within an
35 optimal range of 30-60 μm to ensure minimal mass transfer resistance. The Janus
36 membrane exhibited stable salt rejection above 99.5% over continuous MD runs and
37 superior permeation flux up to $165.3 \text{ kg}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$ at 80 °C, which was remarkably higher
38 than reported MD membranes.

39

40 **Keywords:**

41 Janus membrane; Nonsolvent thermally induced phase separation (NTIPS); Co-coating;
42 Delamination-free; Direct contact membrane distillation

43

44

45 **1. Introduction**

46 Membrane distillation (MD), an emerging membrane technology for seawater
47 desalination, wastewater treatment and resource recovery applications, is driven by a
48 vapor pressure difference resulted from the temperature difference across a
49 hydrophobic membrane [1, 2]. Compared to traditional separation processes such as
50 thermal distillation or reverse osmosis, membrane distillation is potentially cost
51 effective due to its ability to incorporate low-grade waste heat and/or renewable energy.
52 However, MD has achieved limited commercialization mainly due to the challenges
53 associated with inadequate membranes and process control. These include the trade-
54 off relationship between low permeability and unavoidably high conductive heat
55 loss, and liquid intrusion into membrane pores (wetting) which will completely
56 terminate the operation. To avoid pore wetting, the membrane needs hydrophobic
57 properties and high liquid entry pressure (LEP) to maintain vapor-filled pores.
58 Amongst the commonly used polymer materials for making MD membranes, poly
59 (vinylidene fluoride) (PVDF) is most versatile with its hydrophobic properties and
60 could be used as either bulk membrane or substrate via various fabrication methods,
61 such as conventional nonsolvent induced phase separation (NIPS) [3] and thermally
62 induced phase separation (TIPS) [4], as well as the recently proposed nonsolvent-
63 thermally induced phase separation (NTIPS, also referred to as combined NIPS and
64 TIPS) [5, 6]. The requirements to suitable structural characteristics for MD applications
65 have driven the developments of specialized membranes [7, 8].

66 In direct contact membrane distillation (DCMD), high mass transfer and low
67 heat transfer are preferred to enhance the vapour permeation flux and maintain the
68 driving force arising from the temperature difference [9]. Therefore, effective mass
69 transport coefficients require relatively porous and thin membranes to achieve high
70 permeability; while high thermal efficiency and physical robustness come from
71 thick membranes. To address this issue, it is preferable to reduce the vapour transport
72 distance via a possibly thin hydrophobic layer; while maintain the overall membrane
73 thickness via a thick hydrophilic layer to reduce conductive heat loss and
74 temperature polarization effect [8,10,11]. A membrane with hydrophobic/
75 hydrophilic dual-layer structure can be considered as a Janus membrane, whose key
76 feature is the opposing properties of both surfaces such as hydrophobicity and
77 hydrophilicity, or positive and negative charges [12]. Since 1982 the concept of Janus

78 membrane was first introduced to MD by Cheng and Wiersma [13], there is a surge of
79 interest on developing membranes with asymmetric wettability for MD [9,12], *i.e.*,
80 hydrophobic/ hydrophilic dual-layers. Hydrophobicity is a surface property
81 influenced by many factors such as surface chemistry, roughness and porosity. The
82 characterization of hydrophobicity is commonly through measuring the contact angle
83 of water (CA_w), where 65° has been defined as the boundary between hydrophilicity
84 ($CA_w < 65^\circ$) and hydrophobicity ($CA_w > 65^\circ$) based on the difference in the structure
85 of interfacial water [14,15]. Khayet et al. [16] reported a series of Janus composite
86 membranes using polyetherimide (PEI) substrate modified by fluorinated surface
87 modifying macromolecules (SMM). These membranes were fabricated by conventional
88 phase inversion method using solvent N,N- dimethylacetamide and non-solvent γ -
89 butyrolactone (GBL) and exhibited the characteristics of hydrophobic/hydrophilic
90 structure. The membranes were tested [8,17] and showed 2 times higher membrane flux
91 in DCMD at 45°C compared to commercial PTFE membranes. Based on the
92 experimental work, Qtaishat et al. [11] proposed the guidelines for preparing high flux
93 dual-layer MD membranes through mathematical modeling. Figoli et al. [18] developed
94 a hydrophobically coated membrane through dip-coating method, consisting of a top
95 thin hydrophobic layer casted on the commercial hydrophilic membrane. Bonyadi et
96 al.[19] first applied a co-extrusion method to fabricate hydrophobic/hydrophilic
97 composite hollow fibers, which obtained a flux as high as $55\text{ kg}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$ at 90°C in
98 DCMD. Edwie et al. [20] also developed hydrophobic/hydrophilic dual-layer hollow
99 fiber using methanol as a non-solvent additive with the dry-jet wet phase inversion
100 method, obtaining flux up to $83.4\text{ kg}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$ in DCMD. Su et al. [21] embedded
101 graphite particles and multiwall carbon nanotubes (MWNT) into the dual-layer hollow
102 fiber to improve its thermal conductivity for DCMD by the dry-jet wet-spinning
103 approach, achieving a significant increase in vapor flux from 41.2 to $66.9\text{ kg}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$.
104 Yet, a simpler fabrication method should be sought after to produce robust and high
105 flux Janus membranes for MD applications.

106 Until now, how to effectively avoid delamination is a crucial question in the
107 fabrication of high performance dual-layer membranes. In particular, the mechanism of
108 the adhesion/delamination phenomenon between layers is not well-understood [22]- It
109 was report that two of the main factors causing layer delamination include variation in
110 phase inversion rates during phase inversion process and uneven shrinkage rates of

111 different layering materials during membrane formation [23]. Hence, various methods
112 have been adopted to resolve this issue, such as choice of compatible/miscible polymer
113 types for the two layers [24], co-extrusion (of hollow fibers) or co-coating techniques
114 [25], choice of additive (non-solvent) or diluent [26]. However, the above-mentioned
115 work was mainly focused on hydrophilic/hydrophilic dual-layer membranes. Only a
116 handful of literature reported on the integration of Janus type of membranes, i.e.,
117 hydrophobic/hydrophilic [27]. For example, due to the hydrophobic nature of the PVDF
118 material, its use as the bulk membrane material has posed challenges in hydrophilic
119 modification via conventional coating or blending methods, most of which may lead to
120 delamination or leaching of hydrophilic moieties over long-term operation [28]. On the
121 other hand, some of the modification methods may alter the hydrophilicity of the bulk
122 membranes [22]. Currently, hydrophilic modifications of PVDF membranes were
123 mainly applied in ultrafiltration (UF) and microfiltration (MF) processes. For instance,
124 Vanangamudi et al. [28] fabricated Janus UF membrane by adopting an unconventional
125 two-step process of electrospinning and subsequent casting, which successfully
126 overcame the integration problem between the PVDF and chitosan/nylon layers. It was
127 only recently reported in MD literature [29] that robust and delamination-free dual-
128 layer hollow fibers could be prepared by manipulating the composition of dope solution
129 to homogenize the shrinkage rate, such as fabrication conditions and the addition of
130 Al₂O₃ nanoparticles into the inner layer dope. However, there is still lack of studies and
131 understanding on the integration mechanism of hydrophobic and hydrophilic layers and
132 how it will affect MD performance.

133 This study adopts the NTIPS method for the first time to fabricate a novel Janus
134 composite membrane for enhanced MD performance. The prepared composite
135 membrane consists of a hydrophobic PVDF top-layer and a hydrophilic PVDF/PVA
136 sublayer. Delamination-free integration between the two layers is obtained mainly due
137 to the use of water soluble diluent ϵ -caprolactam (CPL) and a facile one-step co-casting
138 technique during membrane fabrication. The formation mechanisms of the PVDF top-
139 layer and PVDF/PVA sub-layer were studied via morphological and crystalline analyses.
140 The membrane pore structure was optimized by manipulating various fabrication
141 parameters including casting thickness, PVDF concentration and coagulation
142 temperature. The as-prepared membranes were tested in direct contact MD (DCMD)
143 mode to investigate the optimal characteristics of Janus MD membranes.

144

145 **2. Experimental**

146 2.1. Material and chemicals

147 The commercial polymer poly(vinylidene fluoride) (PVDF, Model: 1015) was
148 supplied by Solvay Co. The polyvinyl alcohol (PVA, Model: 1788) obtained from
149 Aladdin Industrial was used as the hydrophilic copolymer. The ϵ -Caprolactam (CPL)
150 and sodium chloride (NaCl, 99.5%) purchased from Sinopharm Reagent Inc. China.
151 The CPL was used as the diluent for the dope solution and NaCl was the model salt for
152 synthetic seawater.

153

154 2.2. Preparation of PVDF/PVDF-PVA Janus membranes

155 2.2.1. Preparation of dope solutions

156 Dope solution for hydrophobic top-layer: A series of PVDF polymer dope
157 solutions with various concentrations C_d ranging from 12 wt% to 20 wt% were prepared
158 by dissolving PVDF into CPL at 150 °C under nitrogen protection for 1h, then the
159 mixtures were stirred mechanically for 3h to form homogeneous solutions. The dope
160 solutions were degassed at the same temperatures to avoid bubbles before casting.

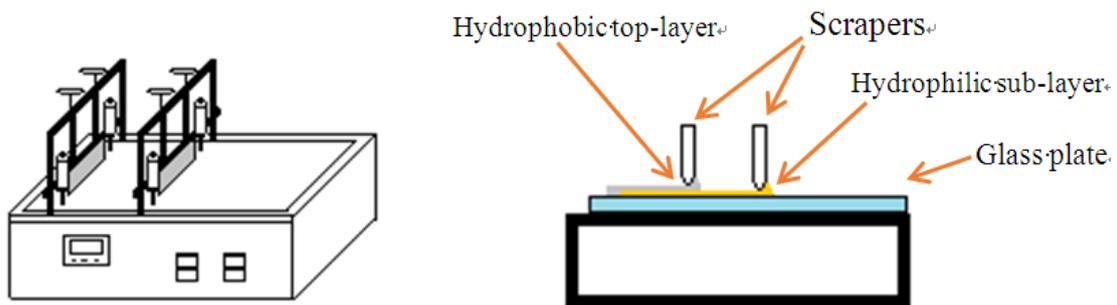
161 Dope solution for hydrophilic sub-layer: based on a previous study on PVDF/PVA
162 membranes [30], in this study a dope solution containing PVDF, PVA and CPL in a
163 fixed weight ratio of 12.8: 3.2: 84 was prepared. The PVDF and PVA were dissolved
164 into CPL at 150 °C under nitrogen protection and mechanical stirring for 2h to become
165 homogeneous. The solution was then degassed before use.

166

167 2.2.2. Co-casting of composite membrane

168 By maintaining the predetermined temperature (150 °C), the two dope solutions
169 were casted simultaneously via a co-casting technique [31] by an automated high-
170 temperature casting machine with two separate casting knives/scrapers which can
171 control the total thickness δ_d of the dual-layer PVDF/PVDF-PVA membrane (Model:
172 FM-7, Ningbo Gaotong Membrane Apparatus Factory, China), as shown in Figure 1.
173 There are four steps involved in the co-casting of the proposed Janus composite
174 membrane: (1) adjust the gap height between the casting knives and glass plate (0 to
175 400 μm) by the two scrapers to control the respective thickness of each casting layer;
176 (2) place the two dope solutions in the respective position of the machine; (3) switch
177 on the machine to start scraper movement in the same pace to cast both dope solutions

178 simultaneously; (4) immerse the casted dual-layer membrane in the coagulant bath at a
179 predetermined temperature T_c (5 -60 °C) to complete the casting step. Finally, the wet
180 membranes were immersed in deionized (DI) water at room temperature for 24 hours,
181 allowing complete solvent exchange to remove residual CPL. The obtained membranes
182 were then frozen in a refrigerator for 12 hours and dried in a freeze drier (SCIENZT-
183 10N, Ningbo Scientz Biotechnology Co., Ltd) for an additional 12 hours before MD
184 testing. To ensure reproducibility of experimental data, the same co-casting conditions
185 were repeated three times to obtain each membrane.



186

187 Figure 1. Schematic diagram for automatic casting machine and co-casting procedure

188

189 2.3. Preparation of single-layer PVDF membrane

190 The single-layer PVDF membrane was also prepared by NTIPS to compare against
191 the structure and performance of the Janus membrane. A series of PVDF polymer dope
192 solutions with various concentrations C_p ranging from 12 wt% to 20 wt% were prepared
193 by dissolving PVDF into CPL at 150 °C into 20 °C coagulation bath. The membrane
194 thickness δ_p of the single-layer PVDF membrane can be controlled through casting. The
195 details of single-layer PVDF membrane preparation can be found in the previous work
196 [5].

197

198 2.4. Membrane Characterization

199 The top/bottom surface and cross-sections of dual-layer flat sheet membrane were
200 observed using a scanning electron microscope (SEM, NOVA NANOSEM 450, FEI,
201 Hillsboro, USA). Prior to the scan, membrane samples were immersed in liquid
202 nitrogen, fractured and then coated with platinum using a coater (VACUUM DEVICE
203 MSP-1S). ATR-FTIR (Agilent Cary 660) was used to analyze the functional groups in
204 the top and bottom skin layers of the membrane. The penetration depth of the ATR-
205 FTIR is a few microns and hence can obtain the crystalline structural information of the

206 membrane [32].

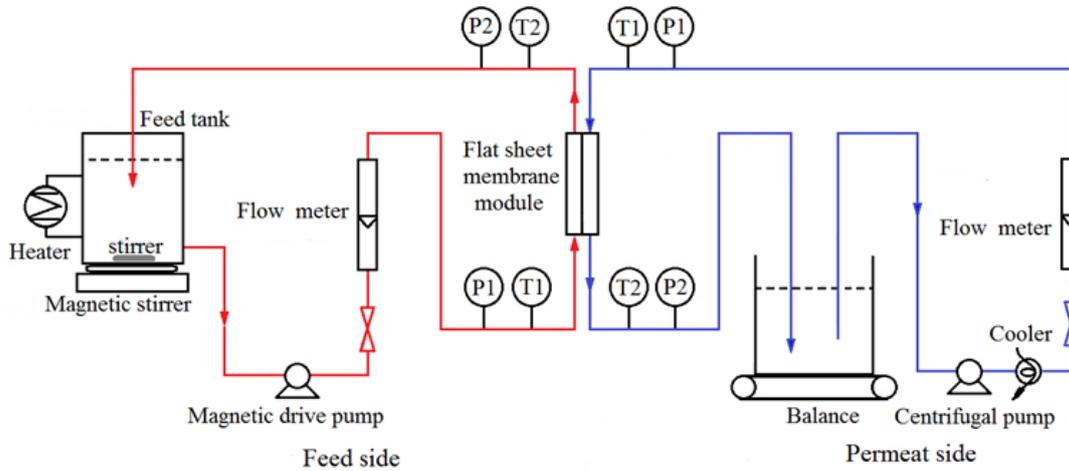
207 The overall membrane porosity (ϵ) was calculated from the ratio of the pore
208 volume to the total volume of the membrane. The membrane pore volume was
209 determined by measuring the dry and wet weights of membrane using IPA as a wetting
210 agent [5, 33]. The measurement of liquid entry pressure of water (LEP_w) of the
211 membranes was conducted using a customized setup with synthetic seawater (i.e., 3.5
212 wt% NaCl solution, conductivity $\sim 60 \text{ ms} \cdot \text{cm}^{-1}$) as the testing liquid on the feed side and
213 DI water (conductivity $< 10 \mu\text{s} \cdot \text{cm}^{-1}$) as the reference at the permeate side to detect the
214 occurrence of pore wetting. During testing, the pressure of the NaCl solution side was
215 increased steadily using compressed N_2 gas, by 0.01 MPa increments in every 15 min.
216 The pressure at which a drastic initial increase on the conductivity of the permeate side
217 and a continuous conductivity increase was taken as the LEP. The conductivity of the
218 solution was monitored by a conductivity meter (DDSJ-308A, INESA Instrument). The
219 mean pore size (r_m) was determined and calculated based on the DI water filtration
220 velocity method [34]. The tensile properties (σ_m) of the membranes were measured via
221 tensile strength using a tensiometer (Model: 5542, Instron Corp., Boston, MA, USA).
222 Five membrane samples under same condition were tested to ensure reproducibility.
223 The contact angles of water (CA_w) of both surfaces of the as-prepared membranes were
224 measured by a Goniometer (model: Kruss DSA100, Hamburg, Germany). Five spots of
225 each membrane were tested and the average of measured values is reported.

226

227 2.5. Direct contact membrane distillation (DCMD) performance testing

228 To evaluate the performance of the as-prepared PVDF/PVDF-PVA Janus
229 membranes, DCMD experiments were conducted through a laboratory setup, as
230 illustrated in Figure 2. The effective membrane area was $10 \times 10^{-4} \text{ m}^2$ and the
231 hydrophobic top-layer of the membrane was in contact with the hot feed solution
232 (synthetic seawater: 3.5 wt% NaCl); while the hydrophilic sub-layer faced towards the
233 permeate side with DI water. The feed solution was heated in the range of $50 \sim 80 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$
234 and recirculated with a flow rate of 110 L/h by a magnetic drive pump; while the
235 permeate was cooled to $17.5 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ with a flow rate of 110 L/h by a centrifugal pump. The
236 linear velocities of both feed and permeate sides were identical as 0.61 m/s and the
237 corresponding Reynolds number (Re) is approximately 4000. The feed and permeate
238 were recirculated through both sides of the modules in counter-current mode. The
239 continuous weight gain of the collected distillate was measured using a digital balance

240 (EK-2000i, A&D Co. Ltd.). The electrical conductivity of the permeate stream was
 241 monitored by the conductivity meter to calculate salt rejection. For each membrane,
 242 DCMD experiments were repeated three times to ensure reproducibility.



243

244 Figure 2 Schematic diagram for direct contact membrane distillation (DCMD)

245 experimental setup

246

247 The MD permeation flux for each feed temperature was calculated using Eq. (1):

$$248 \quad J = \frac{\Delta W}{A \cdot t} \quad (1)$$

249 where J is the permeation flux in $\text{kg} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{h}^{-1}$, ΔW is the permeation weight
 250 automatically collected over a pre-determined period of time, in kg, t in hour, and A is
 251 the effective permeation area, in m^2 .

252 The rejection R was calculated according to the following equation:

$$253 \quad R = \frac{C_f - C_p}{C_f} \times 100\% \quad (2)$$

254 where C_f and C_p are the concentration of the feed and permeate, respectively.

255 3. Results and Discussion

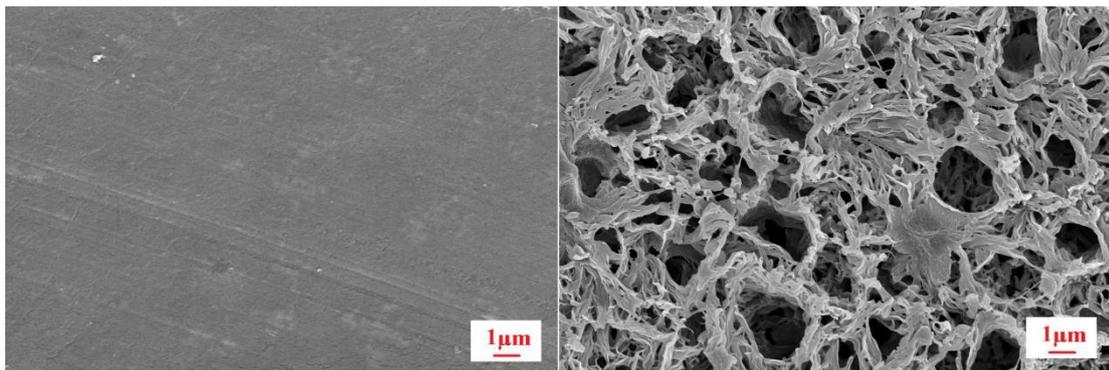
256 3.1 NTIPS membrane morphology and phase separation mechanism

257 Figure 3 illustrates the typical morphologies of the top/bottom surface and cross-
 258 section of the as-prepared Janus PVDF/PVDF-PVA membrane with 15wt% PVDF
 259 concentration in the hydrophobic layer. As shown in Figure 3(a)-(b), the surface

260 morphologies of the hydrophobic top-layer and hydrophilic sub-layer of the membrane
261 are significantly different, i.e., the top surface is smooth and dense with no macropores
262 (10,000 \times); while the bottom surface exhibits highly porous structure (10,000 \times). In
263 Figure 3(c)-(f) the cross-section SEM images of membrane clearly show that the
264 asymmetric structure consists of two layers with distinct interface between the
265 hydrophobic top-layer and hydrophilic sub-layer (Figure 3(c) (800 \times)). In the enlarged
266 images of Figure 3(d) (2500 \times) &(e) (10,000 \times), the hydrophobic top-layer (thickness of
267 $40\pm 10\ \mu\text{m}$) exhibits an ultra-thin dense skin (0.5 μm) with finger-like macrovoids and
268 bicontinuous network formed beneath, which is similar to the asymmetric structure of
269 the NTIPS membranes prepared in our previous work [5]. On the contrary, the PVDF-
270 PVA hydrophilic sub-layer shows a relatively homogenous and highly porous cellular-
271 like pore structure with large pore size in the range of 1-3 μm , as shown in Figure 3(f)
272 (10,000 \times). The pores are highly connected forming a bicontinuous network. Overall,
273 although a distinct interface is observed between the hydrophobic and hydrophilic
274 layers, no delamination occurs due to the high degree of interconnectivity of pores in
275 the transitional region, as shown in Figure 3(e). This can be mainly explained by the
276 minimal interfacial resistance between the two layers due to use of same diluent CPL.
277 Also, the two layers (PVDF and PVDF-PVA (8:2)) show strong adhesiveness due to
278 the use of same bulk polymer.

279 The morphological results can be explained by the combined NIPS and TIPS
280 mechanisms governing the formation of such dual-layer structure of the PVDF/PVDF-
281 PVA membrane. In the hydrophobic layer the asymmetric structure, i.e., ultra-thin dense
282 skin and finger-like pores, is mainly formed through the NIPS mechanism, and the
283 bicontinuous network beneath the skin is created via TIPS. This is because that the
284 dense skin is formed due to the rapid quenching into the coagulation bath; while the
285 finger-like microvoids underneath is generated attributed to the relatively rapid
286 exchange of water (non-solvent) and CPL diluent, mainly following the NIPS
287 mechanism. On the other hand, the bicontinuous network pore of the hydrophobic layer
288 is a typical structure formed by TIPS. Hence, the characteristic structure and
289 morphology of the hydrophobic top-layer are consistent with the NTIPS membranes

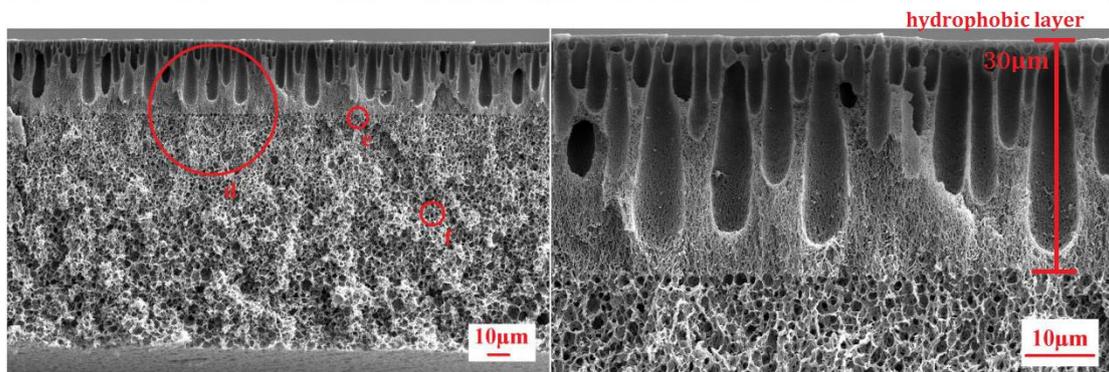
290 developed previously [5]. The homogeneous cellular-like pore structure of the
 291 hydrophilic layer can be attributed to the TIPS formation mechanism. This is due to the
 292 generally much faster heat transfer rate (dominant in TIPS) in the dope leading to the
 293 phase separation and crystallization in the polymer-rich phase, and eventually the
 294 formation of the cellular-like pores, which is similar to the typical bulk structure of
 295 hydrophilically modified PVDF/PVA membrane fabricated via TIPS process in the
 296 previous work [30].



297
298

(a) Top surface (10,000×)

(b) Bottom surface (10,000×)

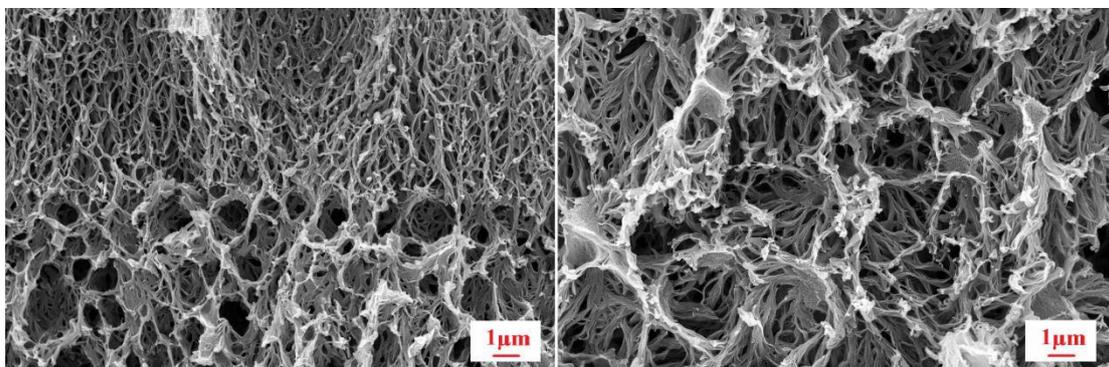


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300

(c) Whole cross-section (800×)

(d) Cross section of hydrophobic layer (2500×)



301

302

(e) Cross section of interface (10,000×)

(f) Cross section of hydrophilic layer (10,000×)

303 Figure 3 Surface and cross-section morphology of hydrophobic/hydrophilic dual-layer
 304 PVDF/PVDF-PVA membranes (membrane fabrication parameters: $C_d=15$ wt%, δ_d

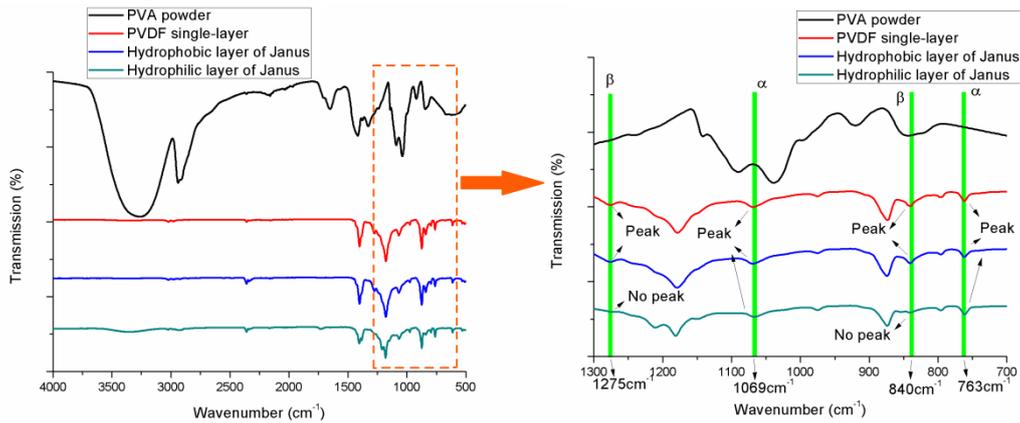
=150 μm , $T_c = 20\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$.)

305

306

307 To further investigate the phase separation mechanism during the formation of the
308 PVDF/PVDF-PVA Janus membrane, the PVDF crystalline structural information in the
309 top/bottom skin layers was obtained via ATR-FTIR. The resulting spectrum are shown
310 in Figure 4, in which the left figures shows the full spectra of the hydrophilic and
311 hydrophobic layers in comparison to the reference peaks of pure single-layer PVDF
312 membrane prepared by NTIPS. The scan of the pure PVA powder was to ensure that its
313 characteristic peaks would not interfere with that of the PVDF crystalline. While the
314 right figure in Figure 4 gives the enlarged window between wave length of 1300 and
315 700 cm^{-1} .

316 Generally, the IR absorption bands at approximately 1211, 1149, 1069, 975, 854,
317 794, and 763 cm^{-1} represent the characteristic spectrum of an α phase PVDF crystal
318 [35]; whereas the absorption bands at 1275 and 840 cm^{-1} represent the characteristic
319 spectrum of β phase PVDF[36, 37]. Based on the previous study [5] and discussion for
320 Figure 3, in the NTIPS process the α phase crystallization of PVDF is induced by TIPS
321 and the β phase is induced by NIPS. It is observed in Figure 4 that similar to the pure
322 single-layer PVDF membrane, the hydrophobic top-layer of the composite membrane
323 exhibit IR absorption bands at 840 cm^{-1} (CH_2 rocking) and 1275 cm^{-1} (CF_2 group
324 symmetrical stretching vibration), as well as 763 cm^{-1} (CF_2 bending and skeletal
325 bending) and 1069 cm^{-1} (deformation vibration of C-F) [38-40], indicating the
326 occurrence of both α and β phase crystallization induced by the NTIPS mechanism.
327 While the hydrophilic sub-layer of the composite membrane only shows peaks at 763 cm^{-1}
328 and 1069 cm^{-1} , indicating the occurrence of α phase crystallization induced by
329 TIPS.



330

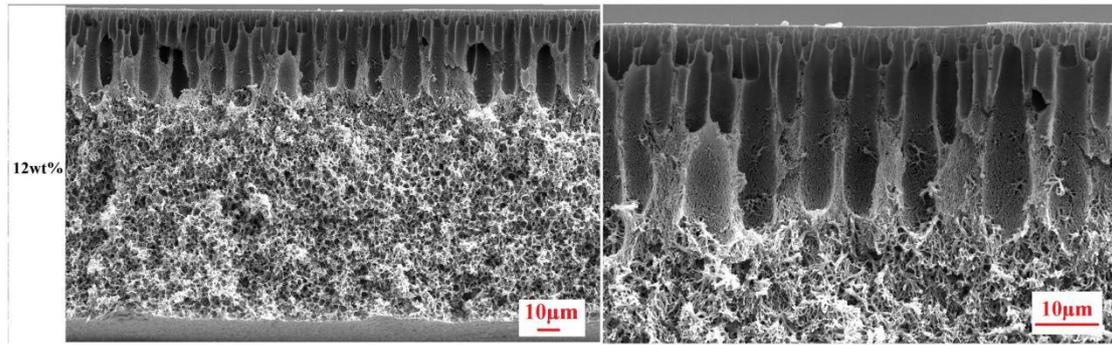
331 Figure 4. FTIR spectra of the different type of membranes, including pure PVA powder,
 332 pure single-layer PVDF membrane (top-surface), hydrophobic top-layer and
 333 hydrophilic sub-layer of dual-layer PVDF/PVDF-PVA membrane

334

335 3.2 Effect of fabrication parameters on membrane structure

336 3.2.1 PVDF concentration of hydrophobic top-layer

337 The effect of dope composition on the membrane structure was investigated via
 338 varying the PVDF concentration of the hydrophobic layer in the range of 12-20 wt%;
 339 while maintaining constant dope composition of the hydrophilic layer and constant
 340 overall thickness of 150 μm . Figure 5 displays the cross sectional morphologies of the
 341 Janus membrane with 12, 15 and 20 wt% PVDF in the hydrophobic layer. Similar to
 342 the typical morphology shown in Figure 3, all the membranes exhibit an ultra-thin dense
 343 skin with finger-like macrovoids and bicontinuous network formed underneath.
 344 However, the finger-like pores in the hydrophobic layer becomes shorter and the
 345 interface between the hydrophobic and hydrophilic layers is less distinct with the
 346 increase of PVDF concentration. This is mainly attributed to the increased dope solution
 347 viscosity, which reduced the CPL/water exchange rate and suppressed the instantaneous
 348 phase separation beneath the top surface regions. Also, 12 wt% PVDF dope was too
 349 dilute and may easily lead to defected pore structure; while the 20 wt% PVDF dope
 350 was too thick to cast smoothly in the co-casting process.

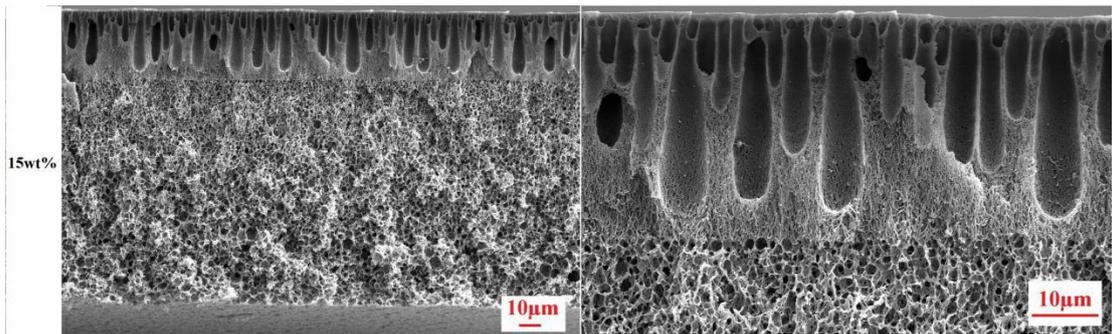


351

352

Whole cross-section (800×)

Cross section of hydrophobic layer (2000×)

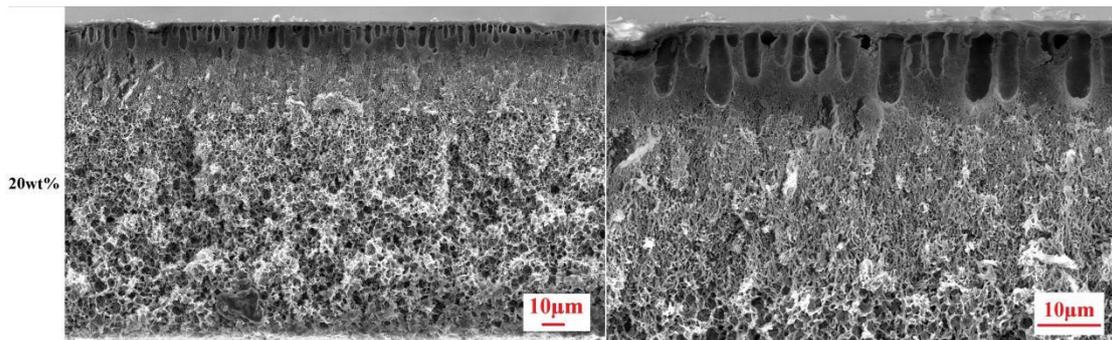


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Whole cross-section (800×)

Cross section of hydrophobic layer (2500×)



355

356

Whole cross-section (800×)

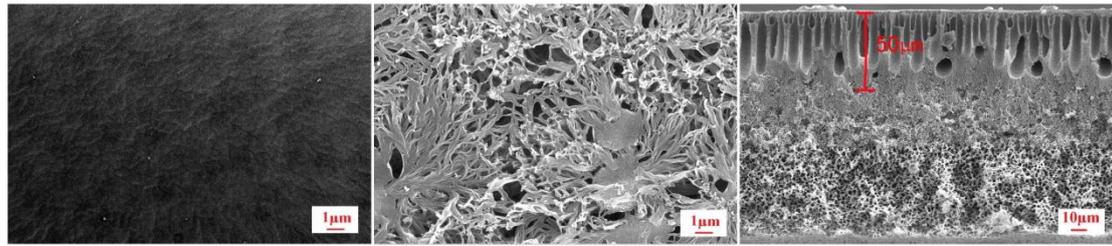
Cross section of hydrophobic layer (2500×)

357 Figure 5. Effect of different PVDF concentration of the hydrophobic top-layer on the
 358 cross section structures of hydrophobic/ hydrophilic dual-layer PVDF/PVDF-PVA flat
 359 sheet membrane (membrane fabrication parameters: $\delta_d=150 \mu\text{m}$, $T_c = 20 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$)

360

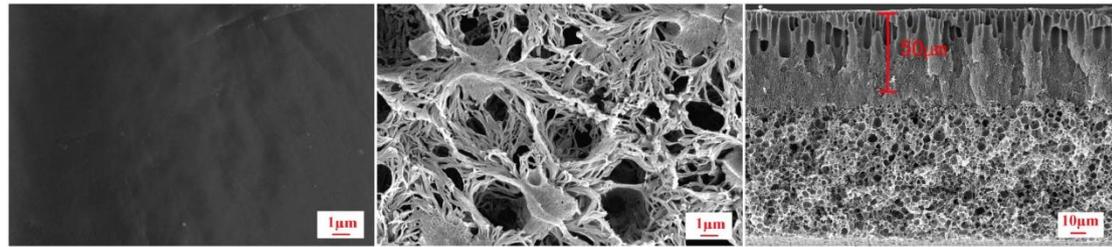
361 3.2.2 Coagulation temperature

362 The effect of the temperature of water coagulant bath on membrane structure was
 363 investigated. Figure 6 (a)-(d) shows that SEM image of the top and bottom surfaces,
 364 and cross section morphologies of the membranes at coagulation temperatures of 5 °C,
 365 20 °C, 40 °C and 50 °C, respectively. The thickness of the hydrophobic top-layer is
 366 marked in the SEM images of Figure 6. It is clear that the partial thickness of the top
 367 layer K is within the range of $40\pm 10 \mu\text{m}$ at coagulation temperature below 50 °C. The
 368 respective layer thickness of the Janus membrane was mainly controlled by adjusting



(c) 40 °C

Top surface (10,000×) Bottom surface (10,000×) Cross-section (900×)



(d) 50 °C

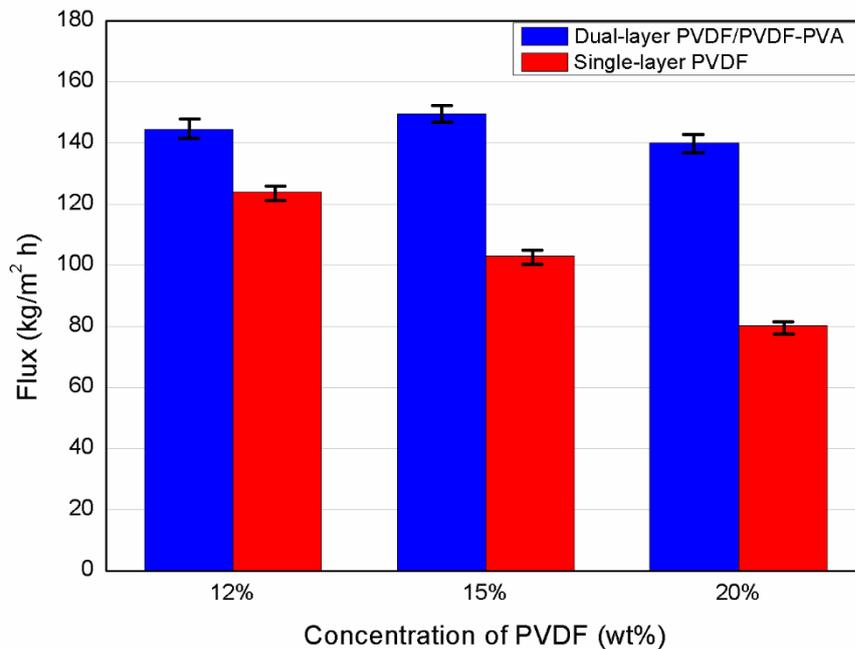
Figure 6. SEM image of the morphology of dual-layer PVDF/PVDF-PVA membranes obtained at various coagulation temperature (membrane fabrication parameters: $C_d=15$ wt%, $\delta_d=150$ μm)

3.3 Evaluation of DCMD Performance

3.3.1 Effect of fabrication parameters on MD performance

With the PVDF concentration of the hydrophobic layer varied between 12 to 20 wt% and respective total membrane thickness fixed at $\delta_d=150$ μm (un-optimized) and $\delta_p=110$ μm , the DCMD performance of the dual-layer Janus and single-layer PVDF membranes was compared in Figure 7. It was found that membrane fluxes of the dual-layer membranes are much higher than that of the single-layer ones, reaching up to 149.5 $\text{kg}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$ at feed temperature of $T_f=80$ °C and permeate temperature of $T_p=17.5$ °C. This is because that the partial thickness of the hydrophobic layer of the dual-layer membrane is only about 40 ± 10 μm (Figure 5), even though the total thickness of the dual-layer membrane is larger than that of the single-layer one, i.e., δ_d of 150 μm vs. δ_p of 110 μm . For the single-layer membrane, the flux decreases drastically from 124 to 80 $\text{kg}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$ as the PVDF concentration increases from 12 to 20 wt%. This is corresponding to the decreasing porosity of the membrane from 88 % to 82.4 %. On the contrary, for the dual-layer membrane, the flux remains relatively constant regardless of PVDF concentration at such total membrane thickness of 150 μm . This is

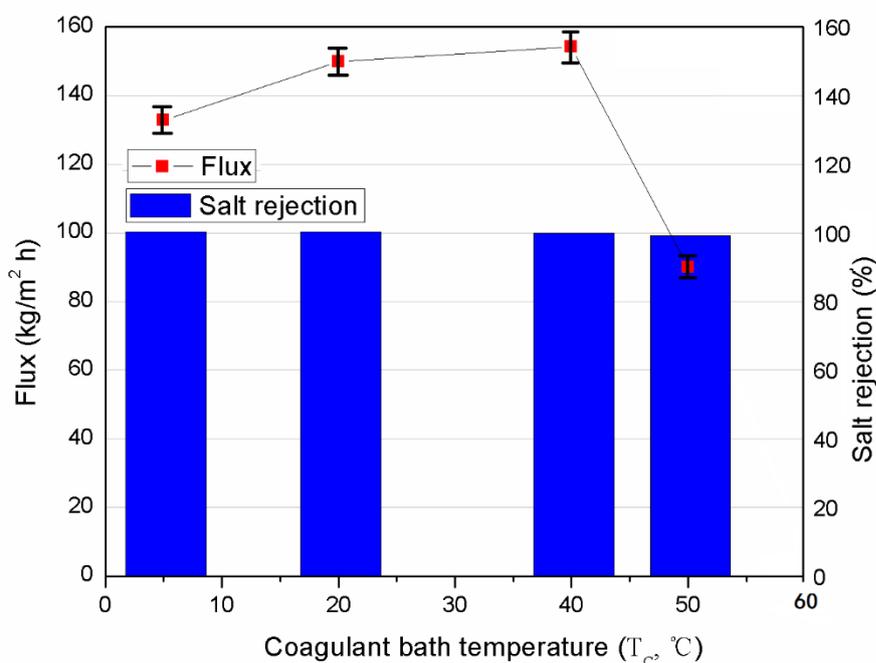
416 also related to the very thin hydrophobic layer, which is consistent with the optimal
 417 thickness range (30-60 μm) of the hydrophobic layer reported in MD literature [42].
 418 Thus the significant advantage of the dual-layer membrane for MD application is easily
 419 justified. However, taking into account the influence of viscosity of the dope solution
 420 on membrane fabrication as discussed in Figure 5, an intermediate concentration of 15
 421 wt% PVDF was chosen as a suitable operating condition. It is noted that the salt
 422 rejection for all membranes compared in Figure 7 remained above 99.5 %.



423
 424 Figure 7. Comparison of DCMD performance of Janus and single-layer NTIPS
 425 membranes at varying PVDF concentration (DCMD parameters: $T_f=80$ °C, $T_p=17.5$
 426 °C; fabrication parameters: $C_d=12-20$ wt%, $C_p=12-20$ wt%, $T_c=20$ °C, $\delta_d=150$ μm ,
 427 $\delta_p=110$ μm)

428
 429 As indicated by the morphological analysis in Figure 6, the variation of
 430 coagulation temperature T_c has a significant impact on the membrane structure. Hence,
 431 the effect of coagulation temperature of the as-prepared Janus membranes was
 432 investigated in terms of DCMD performance. The results are shown in Figure 8, in
 433 which an initial increase of membrane flux from 132 to 154 $\text{kg}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$ as T_c increases
 434 from 5 to 40 °C and subsequently a dramatic decrease, i.e., from 154 to 89 $\text{kg}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$
 435 as T_c increases from 40 to 50 °C, is observed. Meanwhile, the salt rejection maintained
 436 above 99.7% for the membranes prepared under coagulation temperatures from 5 to 40

437 °C; while slightly dropped to 99.3% at 50 °C. As explained in Section 3.2.2, the change
 438 in membrane formation mechanism from TIPS dominant to NIPS dominant as the
 439 temperature difference between the casted membrane and coagulant bath became
 440 smaller, causing the membrane to have much longer finger-like pores and denser
 441 structure in overall. Hence, the membrane permeability has been greatly sacrificed.
 442 Therefore, a suitable range of coagulation temperature of 20 °C to 40 °C was chosen in
 443 this work for the fabrication of Janus MD membrane, which is consistent to the
 444 morphological observations in Figure 6. In addition, considering the minor difference
 445 in membrane flux between membranes prepared at coagulation temperature of 20 and
 446 40 °C, 20 °C was chosen as the preferred fabrication condition as it is closer to room
 447 temperature and thus requires minimal thermal input.

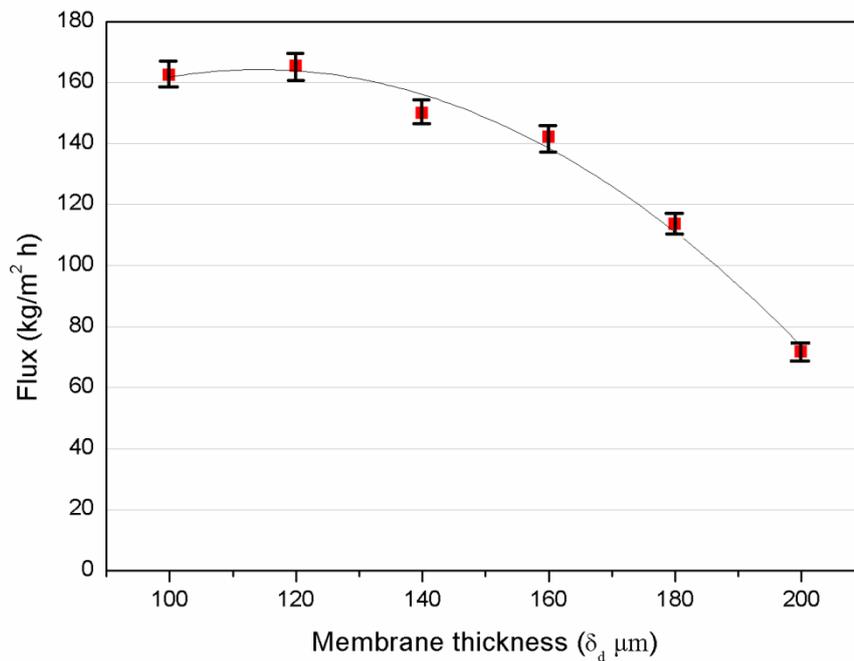


448
 449 Figure 8. Effect of coagulation temperature on DCMD membrane flux of PVDF/
 450 PVDF-PVA Janus membrane (DCMD parameters: $T_f=80$ °C, $T_p=17.5$ °C; fabrication
 451 parameters: $T_c=5$ °C to 50 °C, $C_d=15$ wt%, $\delta_d=150$ μ m)

452

453 The optimization of total membrane thickness of the Janus membrane was
 454 conducted. With the partial thickness of the hydrophobic top-layer kept within 40 ± 10
 455 μ m, the total membrane thickness δ_d was tuned between 100 to 200 μ m during
 456 membrane fabrication at a chosen coagulation temperature of 20 °C. The effect of
 457 membrane thickness on the DCMD performance was investigated and the results are

458 shown in Figure 9. It was found that the permeation flux is up to $165.3 \text{ kg}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$ at δ_d
459 of $120 \text{ }\mu\text{m}$. However, it decreases gradually to $70 \text{ kg}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$ as the δ_d continues to
460 increase to $200 \text{ }\mu\text{m}$. The decreasing trend of flux can be explained by the vapor transport
461 mechanism and temperature profiles through the hydrophobic/hydrophilic dual layer
462 structure proposed by M. Qtaishat et al [11], the hydrophobic layer is vapor-filled space
463 while the hydrophilic layer is filled with water in DCMD. The water vapor transports
464 through the hydrophobic layer of the membrane and condenses at the
465 hydrophobic/hydrophilic interface. The temperature gradient across the hydrophobic
466 layer serves as the driving force in MD. With the thickness of the hydrophobic layer
467 kept constant, the increasing thickness of hydrophilic layer (thus the total membrane
468 thickness) will lead to an increase of the temperature at the membrane vapor-liquid
469 interface due to the temperature polarization effect in the hydrophilic layer across the
470 bulk permeate. Therefore, it will result in a decrease of the MD driving force leading to
471 decrease in membrane flux. However, the trend of membrane flux vs total thickness
472 does not follow a linear relationship based on Figure 9. Hence, the ideal membrane
473 thickness of the Janus membrane can be chosen within the range of 100 to $150 \text{ }\mu\text{m}$ to
474 simultaneously obtain high flux while maintain a reasonable total membrane thickness
475 to ensure mechanical robustness, given the partial thickness of the hydrophobic layer is
476 controlled within the range of 30 - $60 \text{ }\mu\text{m}$ to minimize the mass transfer resistance.
477 Overall the Janus membrane still exhibited high flux of $110 \text{ kg}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$ even at a large
478 δ_d of $180 \text{ }\mu\text{m}$ (Figure 9), which is higher than compared to its counterpart single-layer
479 PVDF membrane with a smaller δ_p of $110 \text{ }\mu\text{m}$, *i.e.*, $103.2 \text{ kg}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$ (Figure 7). It is
480 noted that the salt rejection for all membranes discussed in Figure 9 maintained above
481 99.5% .

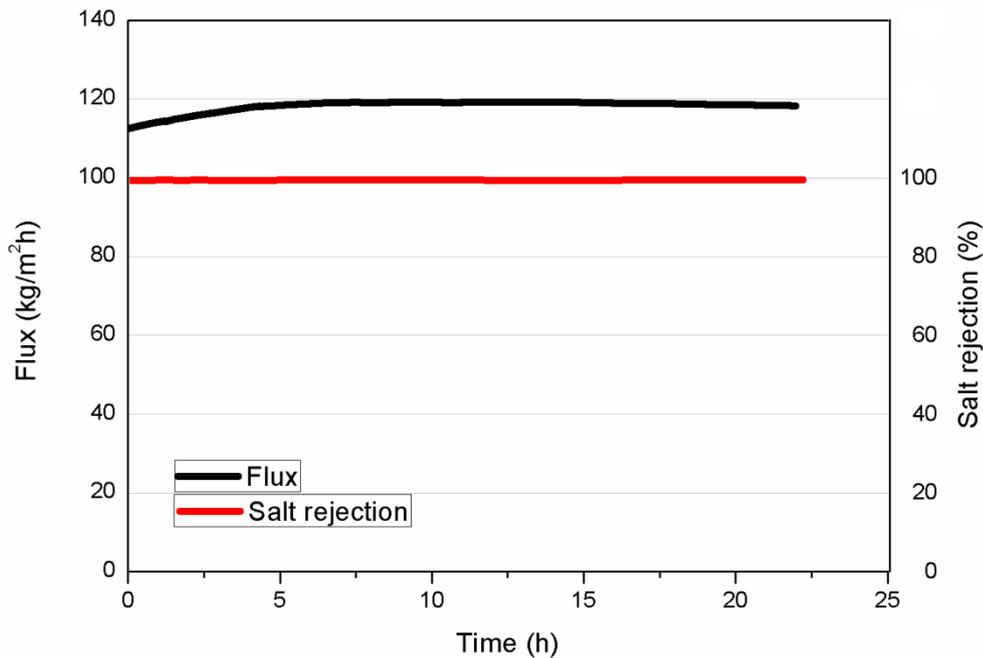


482

483 Figure 9. Optimization of total membrane thickness δ_d of dual-layer PVDF/ PVDF-PVA
 484 membrane in terms of DCMD performance (DCMD parameters: $T_f=80$ °C, $T_p=17.5$
 485 °C; fabrication parameters: $\delta_d=100\text{-}200$ μm , $C_d=15$ wt%, $T_c = 20$ °C)

486

487 To prove the stability of the membrane in MD, a selected PVDF/PVDF-PVA Janus
 488 membrane was evaluated in a 22-hour continuous run at a feed temperature of 70 °C.
 489 The membrane flux and salt rejection are presented in Figure 10. Overall, a stable flux
 490 of $118\text{kg}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$ and high salt rejection above 99.5% were obtained during the
 491 continuous testing, which is a preliminary proof of the membrane stability. It is noted
 492 that there is a slight fluctuation (within a reasonable error range of 5%) of the membrane
 493 flux in the initial stage of operation, which is mainly due to the gradual stabilization of
 494 the operating conditions in DCMD such as the feed and permeate temperatures, as well
 495 as the hydrodynamics, i.e., flowrates / velocities. When the key parameters of the
 496 system were established, the flux remained relatively stable during the rest of the MD
 497 operation as shown in Figure 10.



498
 499 Figure 10. Continuous DCMD testing of selected Janus PVDF/PVDF-PVA membrane
 500 (DCMD parameters: $T_f=70\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$, $T_p=17.5\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$; fabrication parameters: $C_d=15\text{ wt}\%$,
 501 $\delta_d=130\text{ }\mu\text{m}$, $T_c=20\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$)
 502

503 3.3.2 Characterization of optimal Janus membrane

504 With 15wt% PVDF concentration chosen as the dope composition of the
 505 hydrophobic layer, coagulation temperature of $20\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ and total thickness of $120\text{ }\mu\text{m}$, the
 506 optimal Janus membrane was fabricated by NTIPS method with the one-step co-casting
 507 technique.

508 Table 1 shows the basic characteristics of the optimal Janus membrane in
 509 comparison to the single-layer PVDF membrane also prepared by NTIPS, including the
 510 porosity (ϵ), contact angle of water (θ), LEP of water (LEP_w), mean pore size (r_m), total
 511 membrane thickness (δ_d for Janus and δ_p for single-layer), partial thickness of the
 512 hydrophobic layer K and tensile strength (σ_m). With an overall membrane thickness (δ_d)
 513 of $120\text{ }\mu\text{m}$, the as-prepared Janus membrane has a high porosity of 85%. The contact
 514 angle of water (CA_w) of the hydrophilic PVDF-PVA bottom-layer of the Janus
 515 membrane rapidly decreased to 0° , indicating complete penetration of water into the
 516 hydrophilic layer of the membrane; while that of the hydrophobic PVDF top-layer was

517 measured stably at $74\pm 4^\circ$, which was similar to the CA_w of the single-layer counterpart
518 as shown in Table 1. Thus due to the opposing wettability of the top and bottom surfaces,
519 the membrane can then be classified as Janus-type membrane. The relatively low CA_w
520 of the hydrophobic layer is due to the smooth surface morphology as shown in Figure
521 3. Similar CA_w values of the PVDF membranes designed for MD can be found in the
522 literature exhibiting stable performance [43]. To measure the anti-wetting properties of
523 the membrane in MD, LEP_w is an important parameter and was measured as high as
524 3.6 bar for the Janus membranes prepared in this study, which is higher than most
525 reported data in the literature [44,45] indicating its superior ability to resist pore wetting
526 and sustain stable long-term performance. The single-layer counterpart exhibits similar
527 porosity and LEP_w but larger pore size of 34 nm and relatively weaker mechanical
528 strength. Although the overall thickness (δ_d) of the Janus membrane is slightly larger,
529 the proportion of the hydrophobic layer is very small, i.e., 30 μm , which is much thinner
530 than that of the single-layer membrane (110 μm). Therefore, Janus type membrane has
531 great potential in MD applications, as it could achieve very thin hydrophobic layer and
532 thus high permeability; while the addition of thick hydrophilic layer can maintain the
533 mechanical strength and potentially reduce the conductive heat loss through the
534 membrane [8,10,11].

535

536 Table 1 Comparison of characterization data of the optimal PVDF/PVDF-PVA dual-
537 layer and single-layer PVDF membranes ($C_d = 15 \text{ wt}\%$, $T_c = 20 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$)

Membrane type	Porosity (ϵ , %)	Contact angle of water, (θ , $^\circ$)		LEP _w (bar)	Mean pore size (r_m , nm)	Total thickness (δ_d , δ_p , μm)	K* (μm)	Tensile strength (σ_m , MPa)
		Top	Bottom					
		layer	layer					
Dual-layer	85 \pm 1	74 \pm 4	0	3.6 \pm 0.1	24 \pm 2	120 \pm 10	30	1.3 \pm 0.1
Single-layer	86 \pm 1	73 \pm 2	/	3.5 \pm 0.1	34 \pm 3	110 \pm 5	110	0.9 \pm 0.1

538 * K is partial thickness of the hydrophobic layer.

539

540 3.3.3 Comparison with other MD membranes

541 A comparison of the as-prepared Janus membrane with other MD flat sheet
 542 membranes reported in the literature is presented in Table 2 and Figure 11. It was found
 543 that under similar operating conditions, the dual-layer PVDF/PVDF-PVA membrane
 544 exhibited superior permeability at optimized thickness of 120 μm , e.g., the flux reached
 545 $165.3 \text{ kg}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$ with 3.5 wt% NaCl solution and respective feed and permeate
 546 temperatures of 80 and 17.5 $^{\circ}\text{C}$. It was plotted in Figure 11 to compare the membrane
 547 fluxes listed in Table 2 at varying feed temperature from 50 to 80 $^{\circ}\text{C}$. It is encouraging
 548 that the as-prepared Janus membrane showed the highest flux, which was at least 60 %
 549 higher than its single-layer counterpart PVDF membrane also prepared in this work as
 550 well as other membranes listed. The superior fluxes ($>120 \text{ kg}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$ at $T_f=70 \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ and
 551 $T_p=17.5 \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$, and $>160 \text{ kg}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$ at $T_f=80 \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ and $T_p=17.5 \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$) obtained with the PVDF-
 552 PVDF-PVA dual layer membrane is mainly due to the unique asymmetric
 553 hydrophobic/hydrophilic structure that results in low mass transfer resistance through
 554 the thin hydrophobic layer. Also, the mechanism of water vapor permeating through the
 555 hydrophobic layer is considered as Knudsen flow, where the water vapor molecule -
 556 pore wall collision plays a dominant role in the mass transfer. This is because of the
 557 small mean pore size of 24 nm, which is below the mean free path of water vapor
 558 ($\lambda_w > 139.9 \text{ nm}$) [8, 46]. This is consistent with the literature that reported the theoretical
 559 DCMD flux considering the Knudsen mechanism was generally higher than the flux
 560 obtained based on the combined Knudsen/molecular diffusion mechanism, where the
 561 membrane pore size is larger than the mean free path of water vapor [46].

562 Table 2 Comparison of DCMD permeation flux (J) between as prepared PVDF/PVDF-
 563 PVA Janus membrane and other MD membranes reported in literature

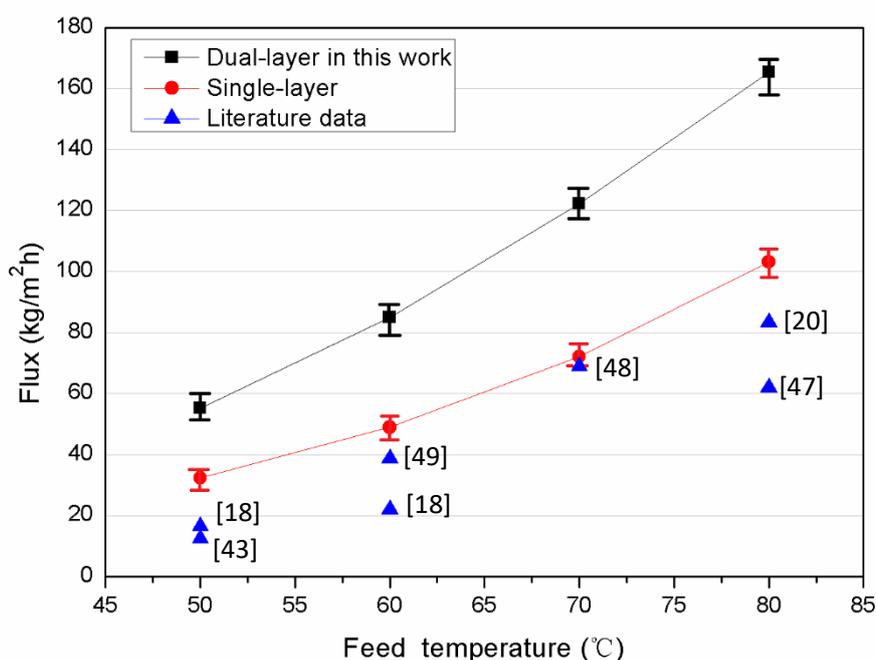
Membrane code/material	$J \text{ (kg}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{h}^{-1})^*$	Operating parameters	Ref.
PVDF HSV 900 modified	83.4	3.5wt.% NaCl; $T_f=80 \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$; $T_p=17 \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$.	[20]
GO-NBA incorporated membrane	61.9	3.5wt.% NaCl; $T_f=80 \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$; $T_p=16 \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$.	[47]
PTFE(Carbon	69	3.4wt.% NaCl; $T_f=70 \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$; $T_p=20 \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$	[48]

nanotube)				
PFPE- polyamide (commercial)	22	3.5wt.% NaCl; $T_f=60\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$; $T_p=14\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$.	[18]	
PFPE- polyamide (commercial)	16.6	3.5wt.% NaCl; $T_f=50\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$; $T_p=14\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$.	[18]	
PH-TiO ₂	38.7	3.5wt.% NaCl; $T_f=60\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$; $T_p=20\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$	[49]	
PVDF/nonwoven fabric composite membrane	12.5	3.5wt.% NaCl; $T_f=50\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$; $T_p=20\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$	[43]	
Single-layer PVDF	103.2	3.5wt.% NaCl; $T_f=80\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$; $T_p=17.5\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$	This work**	
Dual-layer	55.2	3.5wt.% NaCl; $T_f=50\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$; $T_p=17.5\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$.		
PVDF/PVDF-PVA	85.1	3.5wt.% NaCl; $T_f=60\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$; $T_p=17.5\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$.	This	
	122.2	3.5wt.% NaCl; $T_f=70\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$; $T_p=17.5\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$.	work***	
	165.3	3.5wt.% NaCl; $T_f=80\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$; $T_p=17.5\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$.		

564 * Permeate flux data report in the literature with unit conversion if necessary.

565 ** Parameters for single layer membrane: $C_p=15\text{wt}\%$, $\delta_p=110\mu\text{m}$, $T_c = 20\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$

566 *** Parameters for dual layer membrane: $C_d=15\text{wt}\%$, $\delta_d=120\mu\text{m}$, $T_c = 20\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$



567

568 Figure 11. Comparison of DCMD flux as a function of feed temperature of as-prepared
 569 PVDF-PVDF/PVA Janus, single-layer PVDF and MD membranes reported in literature

570

571

572 4. Conclusions

573 In membrane distillation (MD), the trade-off relationship between the low
 574 membrane permeability and high conductive heat loss has been recognized as the main
 575 hurdle for achieving high performance. This study aimed to address this issue by
 576 fabricating a novel PVDF/PVDF-PVA Janus type membrane via a nonsolvent thermally
 577 induced phase separation (NTIPS) method.

578 Firstly, delamination-free dual-layer membrane was successfully obtained using a
 579 one-step co-casting technique and ϵ -caprolactam (CPL) as water soluble diluent.
 580 Combining the SEM morphological analysis and ATR-FTIR crystalline examination,
 581 the formation mechanism of the membrane was identified: the hydrophobic PVDF top-
 582 layer was induced mainly by the combined NTIPS process; while the hydrophilic
 583 PVDF-PVA sub-layer was formed via TIPS. The ultra-thin dense skin of the top-layer
 584 led to high LEP_w that ensured high salt rejection and long-term stability of the
 585 membrane; while the hydrophilic layer exhibited high degree of pore interconnectivity

586 and highly porous structure.

587 Secondly, the membrane structure was influenced by both the PVDF concentration
588 and coagulation temperature. The increase of PVDF concentration of the hydrophobic
589 top-layer led to the formation of shorter finger-like pores and lower membrane porosity.
590 While the increase of coagulation temperature affected both surface and pore structure
591 of the Janus membrane due to the weakened TIPS but enhanced NIPS mechanism.

592 Thirdly, the Janus membrane demonstrated superior permeability via the DCMD
593 performance testing. The flux remained relatively constant regardless of the PVDF
594 concentration of the hydrophobic layer at fixed total membrane thickness, as compared
595 to its single-layer PVDF counterpart that showed drastic reduction in flux. This was
596 mainly due to the low mass transfer resistance induced by the thin hydrophobic layer
597 ($40\pm 10\ \mu\text{m}$) and high porosity. Also, optimal coagulation temperature and overall
598 membrane thickness were also identified through MD testing. Based on the comparison
599 with literature data, the Janus membrane showed the highest flux thus far at various
600 temperature conditions.

601 Overall, the proposed membrane exhibited the desirable robustness and strong
602 potential in achieving high performance in MD attributing to its unique asymmetric
603 pore structure and Janus properties.

604

605

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