

Self-organized, free-standing TiO₂ nanotube membranes: Effect of surface electrokinetic properties on flow-through membranes

Shiva Mohajernia ^a, Anca Mazare ^a, Ekaterina Gongadze ^b, Veronika Kralj-Iglič ^c,
Aleš Iglič ^b, Patrik Schmuki ^{* a}

^aDepartment of Materials Science, WWIV-LKO, University of Erlangen-Nuremberg,
Erlangen, Germany -
shiva.mohajernia@fau.de, anca.mazare@fau.de, schmuki@ww.uni-erlangen.de

^bLaboratory of Biophysics, Faculty of Electrical Engineering, University of Ljubljana,
Ljubljana, Slovenia – ekaterina.gongadze@fe.uni-lj.si, Ales.Iglic@fe.uni-lj.si

^cLaboratory of Clinical Biophysics, Faculty of Health Sciences, University of Ljubljana,
Ljubljana, Slovenia – veronika.kralj-iglic@zf.uni-lj.si

**Corresponding author email: schmuki@ww.uni-erlangen.de*

Link to the published article:

<https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S0013468617311118>

Abstract

In the present work we investigate the effect of the surface electrokinetic properties and presence of background ions on the flow of a marker dye through TiO₂ nanotube membranes. We believe the results to be of high significance not only for filtration but also for the design of microphotoreactor application based on photoactive TiO₂ nanotubes membrane. First, both-side open, high aspect ratio TiO₂ nanotube membranes were obtained by fast anodization of Ti to self-aligned TiO₂ nanotube layers, followed by a lift-off process. Then we investigated the permeation through the TiO₂ nanotube membranes by diffusion of acid orange 7 (AO7) and extracted the dye diffusion rates. The effects of pH, ionic concentration, and size of ions were investigated, and the results were compared with theoretical modeling of the surface charge of TiO₂ and the neighbouring electric double layer as a function of different species of ions; the modeling confirms the experimental data. We observed a remarkable influence of the background ion species, as well as of ion concentrations and pH in the feed solution on the diffusion rate of AO7. The results of modeling are well in line with the observed influence of TiO₂ nanotube inner surface charge and effective size (hydrodynamic radius) of the ions in the background solution. It is also observed that the absolute permeate flux and the membrane's permeability strongly depend on the electric and wetting conditions of the membrane surface.

Keywords: TiO₂ nanotube, Membrane, Electrochemical anodization

1. Introduction

Self-organized TiO₂ nanotube layers grown by electrochemical anodization have over the past years been widely investigated in applications such as photovoltaics, nano-templates, sensors, photocatalysis, etc. [1–10]. One particularly elegant direction towards applications is the use of nanotube layers as lifted-off membranes. Such TiO₂ nanotube membranes have received considerable attention in the last years, due to the combination of their controllable

dimensions and crystal structure with unique functional properties [9]. Particularly such membranes can be used in solar cells or filters for size selective exclusion but also as flow through photoreactors [10,11]. Typically lifted-off TiO₂ membranes have individual tube diameters of 50-100 nm and tube lengths in the range of 15-250 μm. Generally, ion or molecule flow through membranes of such dimensions is comparably rare and mainly based on polymeric or Al₂O₃ membranes [12,13]. From these experiments, typically, two parameters are found to have significant effects on the passing through behavior, namely the permeate-pH and the concentration of the species of interest in the feed electrolyte. Changes in these two parameters can facilitate or hamper the permeation or in some cases even cause clogging of the membrane [14].

For TiO₂ based membranes, such studies have not been reported. As the oxide surface is amphoteric and therefore the surface charge density and the net charge vary as a function of pH [15], pH effects need to be particularly considered in view of membrane performance. Therefore, isoelectric point (IEP), i.e. the pH at which the surface carries no net electrical charge, is a crucial parameter. In the absence of other specifically adsorbed ions, tube walls are expected to have a net positive charge below the pH of the IEP and should be negatively charged at higher pH values. Additionally, the membrane surface charge can be altered by complexation of the tube/pore walls with ionic species, and such alterations can have a significant effect on the membrane permeability.

There are numerous reports in literature on the effect of pH on the permeate flux through membranes. Hua et al. [16] reported that the permeation of oily waste water through Al₂O₃ membrane was greatest near the pH of 5.8. In addition, Zhang et al. [17] showed an obvious shift in the isoelectric point of Al₂O₃-TiO₂ composite membranes from 8.3 (Al₂O₃ membrane) to 6.1, which results in a stronger negative surface charge on the Al₂O₃-TiO₂ membrane surface and higher permeation. Ionic concentration is the other crucial parameter which has significant

effect on permeation. If indicator molecules (dyes) are used, increased salt concentration may also induce the aggregation of charged molecules in the electrolyte solution, and this consequently may alter their osmotic coefficient [18], i.e. aggregates may have considerably larger hydrodynamic radii than the monomers and this greatly influences their self-diffusion coefficient [19].

In the present study, we prepare free standing TiO₂ nanotube membranes and study the effect of pH, electrolyte concentration and size of the ions on the permeation flux of a marker dye (acid orange 7 (AO7)) through the TiO₂ nanotubular membrane and compare the results with quantitative modeling of changes induced on electrical, wetting and hydrodynamic properties.

2. Material and Methods

2.1. Membrane preparation

Highly ordered TiO₂ nanotube arrays were prepared by potentiostatic electrochemical anodization of Ti foils (0.125 mm thick, 99.7% purity, Advent) in a two-electrode electrochemical cell, with a Pt foil as counter electrode and Ti foil as working electrode. Before anodization, the Ti foils were cleaned in acetone, ethanol and deionized water by sonication, and then dried in a N₂ stream. The anodization experiments were performed at 120 V for 10 minutes, in an ethylene glycol-based (EG) electrolyte with 5 wt. % deionized water, 1.5 M Lactic acid and 0.1 M of NH₄F. To establish uniform nanotube geometry, we used a two-step anodization treatment. For producing free standing lift-off tube membranes we followed a simple re-anodization approach [9]: the as-prepared samples were annealed at 250 °C in air for 1 h, this led to a partial crystallization, and then the samples were anodized again at 120 V for 2 minutes to form a second tube layer underneath the crystalline tube array. This underlying

amorphous layer can be preferentially dissolved by immersion in H₂O₂ solution, while the crystalline tube layer, being more stable in such an environment, detaches as an entirely self-standing nanotube membrane.

2.2. Membrane characterization

The morphology of the membrane was investigated using a scanning electron microscope (SEM) Hitachi FE-SEM 4800. The composition and the chemical states were characterized using X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS, PHI 5600, US), XPS spectra were acquired using an Al standard X-ray source with a pass energy of 23.5 eV and peak positions were calibrated on the Ti2p peak at 458.0 eV.

2.3. AO7 diffusion measurements

In order to investigate the permeability of the membranes, the membranes were mounted on a PVC holder. For this, the round membranes of 1 cm diameter were glued along their perimeter on a 0.5 cm diameter opening in the holder using epoxy resin. The holder was then placed as a separator wall in a two-compartment cell as shown in Figure 1e. A series of experiments was performed using a 5×10^{-9} M Acid orange 7 (AO7) solution. The permeation of AO7 was evaluated by spectrophotometric measurements, using a UV/Vis spectrophotometer (Lambda XLS+, PerkinElmer) at $\lambda=487$ nm.

2.4. Feed solution

As background electrolyte three different types of ions were evaluated: 1) perchlorate, 2) phosphate, and 3) benzoate. The feed solution of perchlorate was prepared by using 0.05 M and 1 M lithium perchlorate in water-methanol (1:1) solution, while for phosphate and benzoate, 0.05M potassium phosphate and potassium benzoate were used in a water-methanol

(1:1) solution, respectively. pH adjustment was performed by using either perchloric acid or potassium hydroxide solutions.

2.5. Procedure of diffusion measurement

The experiments were carried out by filling the two compartments with the same amount of solutions (6 ml) and letting the membrane to be wetted for 5 hours. Then, AO7 was added to one of the compartments and stirred constantly. Every 30 minutes 2 ml of the solution in the other compartment was taken out and the absorption of the solution was measured by using a Lambda XLS – Perkin Elmer UV/Vis spectrophotometer measuring in the intensity of the dye main absorption band ($\lambda = 487$ nm), then the removal solution was returned to the compartment it was taken from.

2.6. Simulations

The spatial dependences of number density of ions and electric potential in the electrolyte solution and in contact with the charged TiO₂ surface were calculated by using an established mean-field lattice model of the electric double layer [20], which simultaneously takes into account the decrease of relative permittivity near the charged TiO₂ surface due to the orientational ordering of water dipoles, the excluded volume effect and the asymmetry of the anion and cation sizes. Accordingly, in our model electric double layer the hydrated positive and negative ions occupy α_+ and α_- lattice sites, respectively, while the water (solvent) molecule is assumed to occupy only one lattice site [15, 20]:

$$n_s = \alpha_+ n_+(x) + \alpha_- n_-(x) + n_w(x) \quad (1)$$

Where $n_+(x)$, $n_-(x)$ and $n_w(x)$ are the number densities of cations, anions and water molecules, while n_s is the number density of lattice sites. In the bulk [20]:

$$n_s = \alpha_+ n_0 + \alpha_- n_0 + n_{0w} \quad (2)$$

where n_0 is the bulk number density of anions and cations and $n_{ow}/N_A = 55 \text{ mol/l}$ is the bulk number density of water molecules. The distance of closest approach at the outer Helmholtz plane is approximately equal to the hydration radius of the counter ions and is taken into account in our model of EDL as described in [15]. We assumed that there are no ions, but only water molecules in the Stern layer. The model equations were solved numerically using COMSOL Multiphysics® v.5.2a. software (COMSOL AB, Stockholm, Sweden) and considering the adequate boundary conditions [15]. The parameters used in the simulations are as following: the bulk concentration of ions $n_0/N_A = 0.05 \text{ mol/l}$, dipole moment of water $p_0 = 3.1 \text{ D}$, optical refractive index of water $n = 1.33$, relative size of negative ions $\alpha_- = 10$ and N_A is the Avogadro number.

3. Results and discussion

Electrochemical anodization of Ti under self-organizing conditions leads to the formation of TiO₂ nanotube arrays. In the present work, TiO₂ nanotubes are obtained by anodization at 120 V for 10 min at 60°C, in an ethylene glycol electrolyte containing 1.5 M lactic acid (LA, DL-lactic acid, 90%, Fluka), 0.1 M ammonium fluoride (NH₄F), and 5 wt% deionized H₂O. The TiO₂ nanotube membranes are obtained by a simple re-anodization approach as described in the experimental section and in [9]. For obtaining fast-growth long TiO₂ nanotubes, lactic acid (LA) is used as an additive, and in these conditions high voltages can be used without any oxide breakdown or severe tube damage [21].

Figure 1a shows that the nanotubes are covered with a porous initiation layer, which is typical for EG based nanotubes, and show a good long-range order (due to the pre-anodization of the Ti foil, which effectively imprints the Ti foil with ordered concaves) [22, 23]. The thickness of the nanotube membranes produced in this work is ca. 23 μm (Figure 1c). The

bottom view SEM images of the TiO₂ nanotubes and of the detached membrane is shown in Figure. 1b, d respectively, and confirm the open bottom structure of the membrane.

To evaluate the flow-through properties of such TiO₂ nanotube membranes, we used AO7 as model marker (AO7 is also a classic model pollutant used in photocatalytic activity tests). It should be noted that AO7 may aggregate to small complexes, depending on the AO7 concentration in the solution [18]. Earlier experimental results indicated that the aggregation process may be affected greatly by the nature of the electrolyte [18]. As a consequence, factors such as screening effects of the salt ions [18] and/or short range attractive interaction between negatively charged AO7 (mediated by positively charged ions of electrolyte solution) [24],[25] play a crucial role. In this work the concentration of AO7 was selected to be low enough so that the mean aggregation number of AO7 can be assumed to be one [18].

The AO7 permeation through the TiO₂ nanotube membrane without any additional ions as well as in the presence of lithium perchlorate and potassium phosphate is shown in Figure 2. In Figure 2a and 2b membranes were used either “dry” or after 5 hour pre-wetting the membrane in the background electrolyte. In the dry state, clearly the background ion free solution permeates the fastest. This is in stark contrast to the pre-wetted membrane in Figure 2b. The decreased permeation due to foreign ions addition may likely be ascribed to capillary effects [26]. Moreover, measurements with pre-wetted membranes show less experimental scatter and allow electrolyte ions to reach adsorption equilibrium with the TiO₂ nanotube walls.

3.1. Pre-wetting and ionic size effect

Using a 5 hours wetting was found to give stable reproducible results - the effect of wetting is illustrated in Figure 2b. While for the plain water-methanol mixture the AO7 diffusion is only slightly higher than in Figure 2a, for all other solutions containing additional ions, after 5 h wetting the AO7 diffusion rates and thus the permeability of the membranes become much higher with the addition of background ions. Pre-wetting for 5 hours allows a

full wetting of the membrane, which ensures that the inner surface becomes completely stable with regard to its electric charge (adsorption/chemisorption of ions). Note that the zeta potential values of the inner surface of TiO₂ nanotubes become less negative with an increase in ion concentration [15].

When using different ions in similar concentration (Figure 2b), we observe that the electrolytes containing potassium benzoate or potassium phosphate allow for a higher amount of AO7 passing through, as compared to the lithium perchlorate containing electrolyte. This result can be partially explained by the larger hydrated radius of lithium in comparison to the size of potassium hydrated radius and the consequent different hydrodynamic radii of AO7 molecules surrounded by the cloud electrical double layer (EDL) of hydrated K⁺ counter ions in potassium benzoate solution and AO7 molecules surrounded by the cloud (EDL) of hydrated Li⁺ counter ions in lithium perchlorate solution. Namely, this means that the larger hydrated counter ions produce more extended (thicker) EDL, as indicated by the theoretical simulations of the electric double layer – see Figure 4.

It is well established that potassium is weakly hydrated with only a single shell of water molecules, while the smaller lithium ion is more strongly hydrated with a second hydration shell [27]. In accordance, the ionic mobility of Li⁺ is about two times smaller than the mobilities of K⁺ ions [28], meaning that the hydrodynamic radius (radius of the hydrated ion) of Li⁺ is larger than that of K⁺. The mobility of the weakly hydrated Cl⁻ ions is very similar to that of K⁺ ions [28].

The diffusion coefficient depends on the size of the molecule, i.e. larger molecules diffuse slower than smaller molecules. Due to this counter ion effect the diffusion rate of AO7 is therefore expected to be smaller in lithium perchlorate than in potassium phosphate solution.

Additionally, in order to study adsorption of ions on TiO₂, we investigated a membrane in XPS after permeation experiments in the presence of phosphate and perchlorate ions and

AO7 (see Figure 3). Compared to the nanotube membrane in water-methanol permeation experiments, in the presence of phosphate ions we observe a decrease in the Ti2p peak, a shift in the O1s peak (due to the decrease of the O1s corresponding to TiO₂ and increase of O1s signal from the phosphate) and the presence of P2p. Moreover, for phosphate solution we observe similar N1s peaks before and after permeation, which is attributed to nitrogen pick-up from the atmosphere, thus no AO7 adsorption could be detected. The finding of a stable phosphate adsorption layer suggests that adsorption/chemisorption of phosphate ions to the inner surfaces of TiO₂ nanotubes makes this surface more negatively charged. This adsorbed negative surface electric potential (see Figure 4d) changes the wetting properties [26] and the boundary slip flow [29]. Both phenomena can contribute to the modified permeation of AO7 through the TiO₂ nanotube membrane. On the other hand, for the membrane in the presence of perchlorate ions no perchlorate adsorption on the TiO₂ nanotube membrane was observed. Nevertheless, for perchlorate solution a small N1s peak is observed, as well as a shoulder in the O1s peak (corresponding to –OH bonds, at 531.5 eV). The presence of N1s peak after permeation can be attributed to the AO7 fouling, which confirms the results in Figure 2b.

3.2. Effect of electrolyte concentration and pH

In order to investigate the effect of ion concentration on the permeation of AO7, lithium perchlorate (LiClO₄) was chosen as its concentration can be adjusted to higher values. Figure 2c shows the permeation of AO7 without and with additions of 0.05M LiClO₄ and 1M LiClO₄. Clearly, with a higher concentration of LiClO₄ AO7 passes through the membrane faster.

In literature, experimental and theoretical results for other oxide membranes show that the distance from the charged surface to the hydrodynamic slip/shear plane is decreasing with increasing salt concentration [15]. In accordance, also in our case of AO7 ions, for higher background ion salt concentrations, hydrodynamic radius of the AO7 ions in higher

concentration of background ions is smaller than in low concentration solutions, which causes the faster permeation of AO7 through the TiO₂ nanotube membrane. In agreement, the results presented in Figure 2c show faster and more efficient permeation of AO7 at higher salt concentrations.

It is worth mentioning that TiO₂ nanotubes have an IEP at a pH value of around 4.2-5.1, depending on the nanotubes' diameter and type of electrolyte [15], meaning that at pH values higher than this, the TiO₂ surface is negatively charged. Namely, when the membrane surface comes into contact with the electrolyte solution, ions in the electrolyte rearrange according to charge, to screen the charge of TiO₂, and thus alter the electrical double layer (EDL). According to classical Gouy-Chapman-Stern model, the EDL can be characterized by the surface potential, EDL thickness and the zeta potential [30]. Figure 4 shows the modeling of electrostatic interactions, the space dependence of the number density of ions near the TiO₂ surface, and the space dependence of the electric potential seems to be more important than the surface charged density of TiO₂ surface itself.

By increasing the ion concentration, both the thickness of EDL (Eq.1) and the magnitude of the zeta potential decrease in magnitude (correspondingly the electric potential at the outer Helmholtz plane is decreased) [15, 30]. With increasing electrolyte concentration, the surface charge is therefore screened/compensated already at a lower distance from the TiO₂ surface, which means that the magnitude of the potential drops faster and the thickness of EDL decreases significantly [15, 30]. The hydrated ionic radius of the salt counter ions determines its maximum possible concentration at the TiO₂ charged surface [20, 31]. Larger hydrated salt counter ions produce more negative electric potential at the charged surface, as shown in Figure 4d, and a more extended (i.e. thicker) EDL as indicated in Figure 4a, b, c, in accordance with the results of some previous studies [27, 30, 32].

If the pH of the solution is above the IEP of TiO₂, increasing the salt concentration amplifies the shielding of the negative electric charge of the nanotube surface inside the TiO₂ nanotubes, which can then reduce the strong repulsive forces toward AO7. If the pH is below the IEP of TiO₂, the inner surface of TiO₂ nanotubes is positively charged and an increased salt concentration reduces the attraction forces between the positively charged inner nanotube surface and the negatively charged AO7. As the pH of the solution has thus a significant effect on the surface charge of the TiO₂ membrane [15], we further investigated the permeate flux of AO7 solution through the TiO₂ membrane at a fixed concentration of salt (i.e. 0.05M LiClO₄) and at different pH (see Figure 2d). We observe that the permeate flux of AO7 increases at lower pH values.

Variation of pH changes the surface charge density of the inner surface of TiO₂ nanotubes. At a lower pH such as 2, when the TiO₂ nanotubes are positively charged, ClO₄⁻ ions are predominant in the diffuse layer near the inner surface of nanotubes. ClO₄⁻ ions have smaller hydrodynamic radius compared to the Li⁺ [33]. Shielding of the positively charged inner surface of the TiO₂ nanotubes with ClO₄⁻ ions thus reduces the attractive force between AO7 and the inner surface TiO₂ nanotubes, and this is a likely origin for the facilitated passing of the negatively charged AO7 through the TiO₂ nanotubes of the membrane.

On the other hand, at a pH higher than the isoelectric point of TiO₂, the membrane walls are negatively charged, therefore Li⁺ ions screen the negatively charged TiO₂ surface and partially also adsorb on the TiO₂ surface. The screening of the electrostatic field by the Li⁺ counter ions that accumulate near the negatively charged TiO₂ surface can be described by the effective thickness of the electrical double layer.

3.3. Modeling

In order to estimate the charge distribution and take into account the different values of the relative size of the positively charged monovalent counter ions and the electric potential at outer Helmholtz plane as a function of the negative TiO₂ surface charge density, we use a model previously developed [33, 35].

In previous works we have introduced the distance $x_{1/2}$, where the density of the number of the counter ions (calculated relative to its value far from the charged surface) drops to half of its value at the charged surface. Within the Gouy-Chapman model the effective thickness of EDL $x_{1/2}$ can be expressed as [33, 35]:

$$x_{1/2} = \frac{1}{\kappa} \ln \left(\frac{(\sqrt{1 + \exp(-e_0\phi_0/kT)/2} + 1)(1 - \exp(-e_0\phi_0/2kT))}{(\sqrt{1 + \exp(-e_0\phi_0/kT)/2} - 1)(1 + \exp(-e_0\phi_0/2kT))} \right) \quad (3)$$

where $1/\kappa = \sqrt{\varepsilon_r \varepsilon_0 kT / 2n_0 e_0^2}$ is the Debye length, e_0 is the unit charge, kT is the thermal energy and the surface electric potential: $\phi_0 = -(2kT/e_0) \ln \left(\sqrt{1 + (\sigma/c)^2} + |\sigma|/c \right)$. Here $c = \sqrt{8kT\varepsilon_r\varepsilon_0 n_0}$, n_0 is the bulk number density of salt ions (i.e. the number density at the center of the nanotubes), ε_0 is the permittivity of the free space and ε_r is the relative permittivity of the solution. For small n_0 , the value of c is small and σ/c is large, leading to the following limit expression of Eq.(3) :

$$x_{1/2} \cong \frac{2\varepsilon_r\varepsilon_0 kT}{e_0|\sigma|} (\sqrt{2} - 1) \quad (4)$$

Eq. (3) is valid for not too large values of the surface charge $|\sigma|$ [34, 35] and indicates that a more negative TiO₂ surface (due to a pH increase) attracts in its vicinity larger number of Li^+ ions. Thus the screening is more effective and EDL effective thickness $x_{1/2}$ is diminished as shown in Eq.(4). The monotonous decreasing $x_{1/2}$ with increasing $|\sigma|$ can be observed also in Figure 4, but this holds only for a sufficiently small size of the counter ions, i.e. for $\alpha_+ = 5$ and $\alpha_+ = 10$ (Figure 4a, b).

With increasing $|\sigma|$ at still higher pH more Li^+ ions are attracted to EDL at the inner surface (i.e. at OHP) of the TiO_2 nanotubes. However, for large hydrated Li^+ ions the excluded volume effect imposes an upper limit on the density of the number of Li^+ counter ions near the charged TiO_2 surface where Li^+ counter ions are accumulated. This phenomenon can be seen in Figure 4, where the number density of counter ions $n_+(x)$ for larger values of $|\sigma|$ starts to saturate at small distances (Δx) from the OHP plane (see Figure 4c). This saturation effect can be observed only for large enough size of counter ions (i.e. for $\alpha_+ = 15$ and very weakly also for $\alpha_+ = 10$, but not for $\alpha_+ = 5$) and for large enough value of $|\sigma| = 0.15 \text{ As/m}^2$ (see Figure 4c). Namely, the influence of the excluded volume effect increases with increasing $|\sigma|$ (driven by increasing pH), so that $x_{1/2}$ after reaching its minimal value, begins to increase with increasing $|\sigma|$ which can be seen in Figure 4c for the case $\alpha_+ = 15$. In addition, adsorption/chemisorption of salt ions might be increased as well due to pH induced change of the surface charged density of the inner surface of TiO_2 nanotubes.

Both above described effects of pH may change the TiO_2 nanotube wetting properties [26] and the boundary slip flow [29] at the inner TiO_2 nanotube wall surface and decrease the permeation of AO7 molecules through TiO_2 nanotubular membrane as experimentally observed in Figure 2d.

In addition, at larger pH values the AO7 molecules might also be more negatively charged, therefore the thickness of the EDL around the single AO7 particle (i.e. the corona composed of large hydrated Li^+ counter ions and water molecules) becomes increased, as indicated in Figure 4c. Hence, the hydrodynamic radius of AO7 is also larger, and therefore the diffusion coefficient of AO7 is decreased.

4. Conclusions

The present work shows that the flux of a marker dye (AO7) through a free standing TiO₂ nanotube membrane is significantly affected by electrokinetic properties of the membrane surface, which is among others related to the ionic strength and pH of the feed solution. Results revealed that at lower pH values than the isoelectric point, more AO7 permeation can be seen through the TiO₂ membrane. Furthermore, by increasing the concentration of salt in the electrolyte, the diffusion rate is improved as well. These changes may be attributed to the changes of the TiO₂ surface charge density (σ) and the resulting changes in EDL at TiO₂ surface which influence the wetting properties of inner surface of TiO₂ nanotubes and the boundary slip flow in the nanotubes.

The influence of the size of the salt ions on the permeation of AO7 through TiO₂ nanotube membrane was also studied by using Li⁺ ions, which have larger hydrated ionic diameter compared with K⁺ ions. Experimental results and modeling show that the size of the salt ions has a considerable impact on the permeation of AO7, due to the different hydrodynamic radius of AO7 molecules (i.e. the radius of the naked AO7 ion together with the surrounding layer of salt counter ions and water molecules). The smaller the hydrodynamic radius of AO7, the higher is the permeation of AO7 through the TiO₂ nanotube membrane.

Acknowledgements

The authors would like to acknowledge the ERC, the DFG, the DFG “Engineering of Advanced Materials” cluster of excellence and ARRS for financial support.

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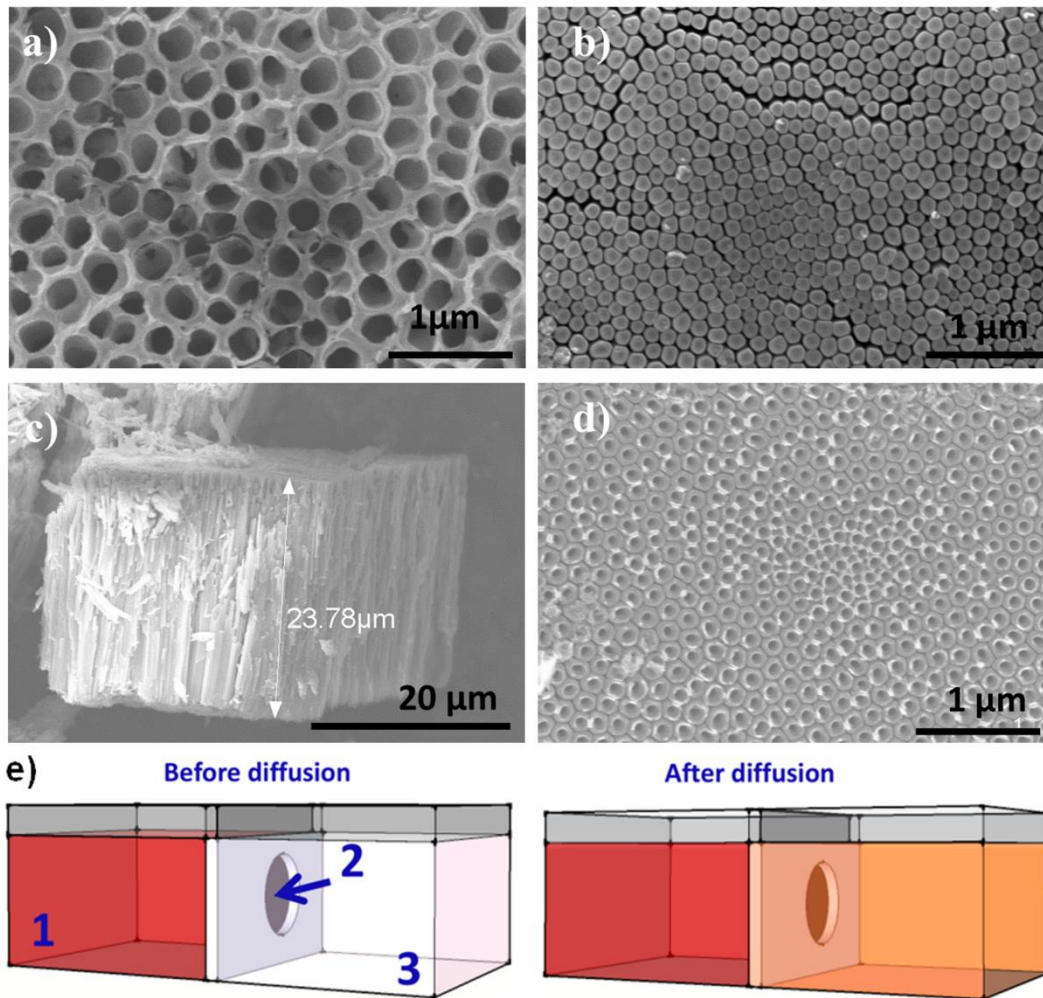


Figure 1 SEM images of a) top view of the membrane, b) closed bottom view of TiO_2 nanotubes, c) thickness of the membrane, d) bottom open view of membrane, e) schematic representation of the setup used for flow-through experiments (1. chamber contain AO 7 2. TiO_2 membrane is glued on a holder with an opening 3. chamber without AO).

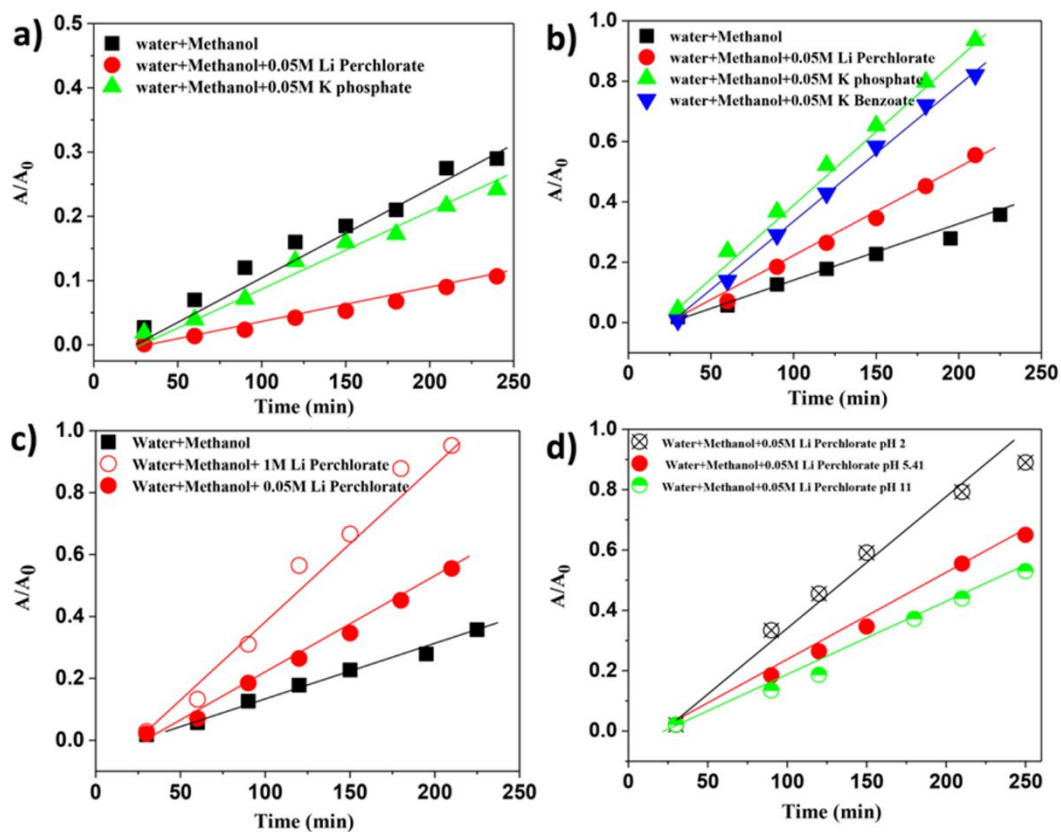


Figure 2 Evaluation of AO7 permeation through the membrane a) before wetting, b) effect of pre-wetting and ionic size, c) effect of ionic concentration, d) effect of pH. Measurements were always performed in the non AO7-containing compartment of the cell.

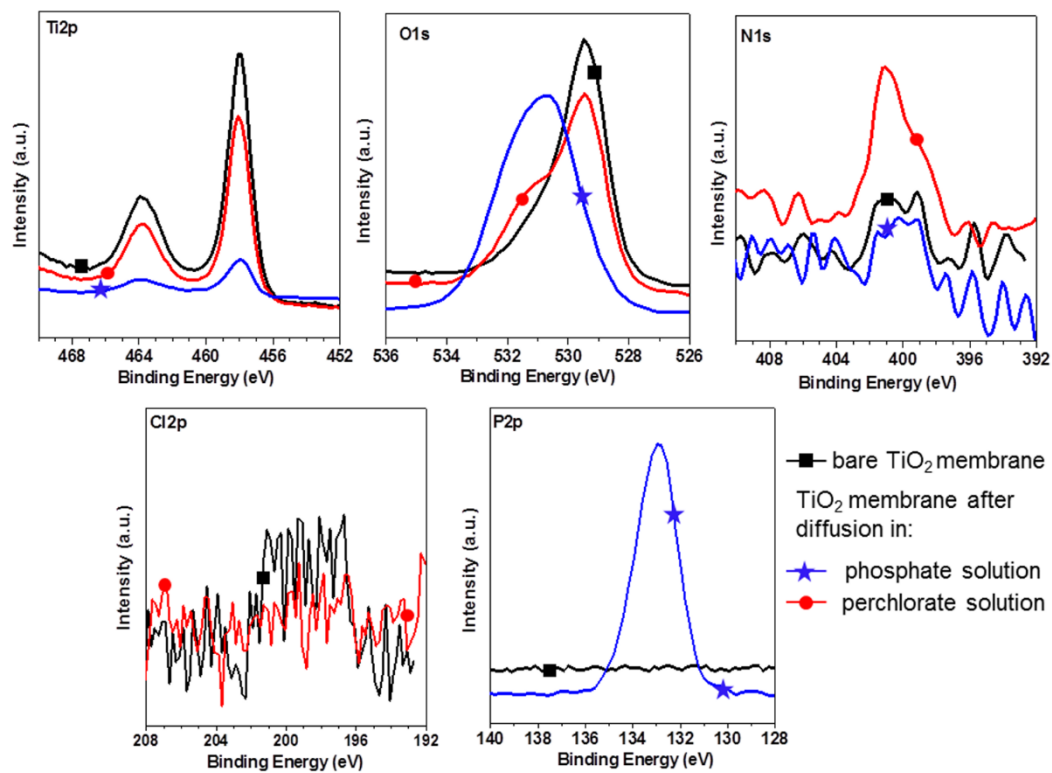


Figure 3 High resolution XPS spectra of the bare membrane (black square) and of the membrane after diffusion test in phosphorus (blue star) and chlorine (red circle) containing solution.

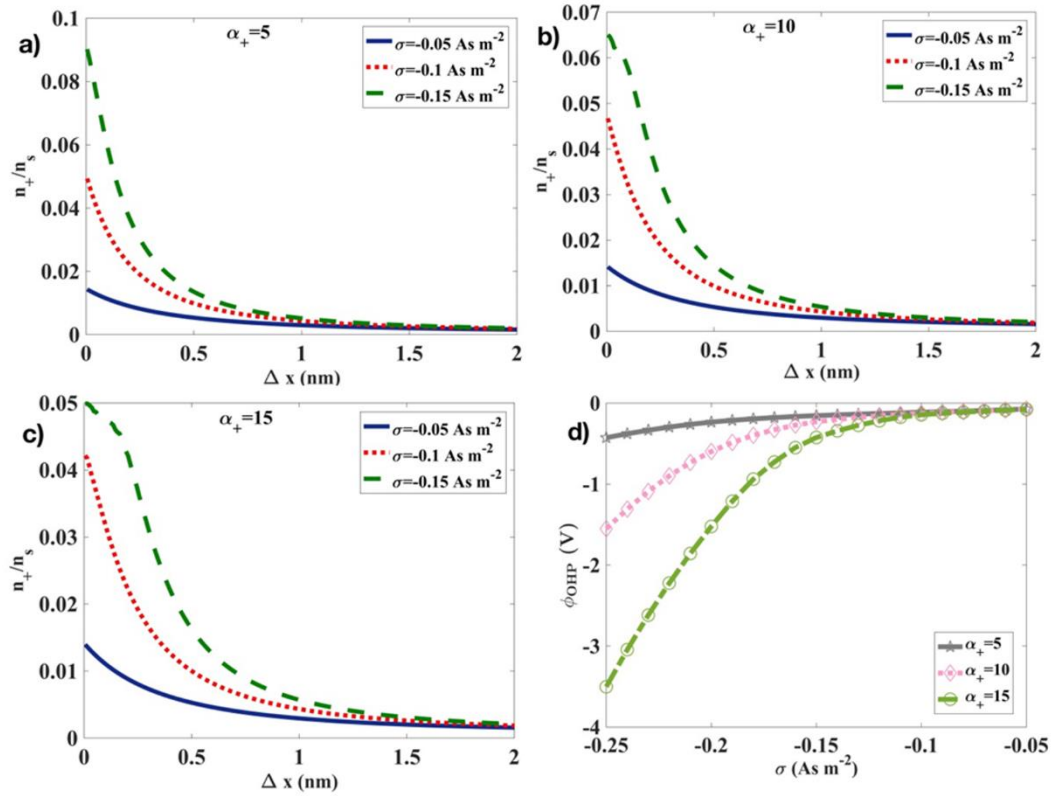


Figure 4 Evaluation at the outer Helmholtz plane (OHP) of the charged TiO_2 surface for the relative number density of positive ions $n_+(x)/n_s$ as a function of the distance (Δx) from the OHP for three different values of the relative size of the positively charged monovalent counterions α_+ : a) $\alpha_+ = 5$, b) $\alpha_+ = 10$ and c) $\alpha_+ = 15$ and d) the electric potential at OHP as a function of the negative TiO_2 surface charge density σ for various α_+