Ligand content and driving force effects on ion ion permselectivity in ligand-functionalized membranes

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8 Abstract

9 Ion-selective membranes could enable sustainable critical material separations processes because of their 10 scalability, low energy consumption, and low chemical input. The effects of membrane water content and 11 incorporation of ion-coordinating ligands have been studied via computation and experiment to develop 12 structure-performance relationships. However, few studies systematically investigate the effects of 13 membrane composition beyond monomer chemical identity or the balance of driving forces such as 14 diffusion and electromigration. Here we synthesized a library of poly(ethylene glycol) acrylate membranes with varying percentages of ion-coordinating monomers (acrylic acid, 4-vinylpyridine) to investigate the 15 16 influence of ligand content on ion permeabilities and permselectivities. Trends in membrane performance 17 under electrodialysis and diffusion were compared to elucidate the relative effects of separation driving 18 forces and to inform electrochemical operation. We observed order-of-magnitude permeability reductions 19 with ligand content for ions capable of multidentate ligand complexation, especially for nickel in the 20 pyridine-containing membranes. As a result, lithium/nickel permselectivity gradually increased by a factor 21 of $1.65 \times$ from 10 to 50 mol% pyridine membranes. We further demonstrated simultaneous improvements 22 in lithium/nickel separation productivity (1.75^{\times}) and selectivity (2.99^{\times}) with increasing electric potential 23 driving force. Ultimately, results from this study provide design insights for ligand-functionalized 24 membranes in electrified ion-ion separations processes.

26 Keywords

27 Electrodialysis; ion-ligand affinity; lithium separation; partitioning; selective transport

28 Graphical Abstract



31 **1 Introduction**

The exponential growth in demand for lithium exemplifies the need for novel ion-selective separations processes [1,2]. With global lithium supplies projected to fall short of demand by 2030, there is great incentive to develop new technologies to recover lithium from alternative sources such as lithium-ion battery waste and oilfield brines [2–4]. Both waste streams require selective separations for high-purity direct lithium extraction due to the presence of other cations. To achieve efficient selective recovery of critical raw materials like lithium from complex solutions, new separation processes and materials (e.g., organic solvents, adsorbents, membranes) are required [1].

39 Membrane-based separation processes offer the advantages of scalability, continuous operation, low 40 energy consumption, and low chemical input [5–7]. While reverse osmosis and electrodialysis processes 41 are well-established for efficient water-salt separation, highly selective ion-ion separations remain largely 42 infeasible with commercial polymeric membrane materials [8-10]. Existing membranes leverage 43 differences in size, charge, and valence for selectivity, but often cannot distinguish between ions with 44 similar properties [11]. Introducing coordinating ligands for ion-specific interactions may facilitate the 45 selective permeation of one ion over others by enhancing that ion's partitioning into the membrane; 46 however, strong ion-ligand interactions may also reduce an ion's mobility within the membrane, resulting in retention rather than permeation [12,13]. These opposing effects of ion-ligand interactions on ion 47 48 partitioning and ion mobility currently preclude a priori prediction of ion permselectivity in ligand-49 functionalized membranes.

50 Two contrasting results have emerged in literature; in some cases, researchers have observed 51 permselectivity for the ion with strongest ligand affinity [12,14–17], whereas others have observed reverse 52 permselectivity of the ion with lower ligand affinity [13,18,19]. As an example of the former, novel 53 imidazole-containing polymeric membranes offered copper cation permselectivity compared to competing 54 divalent cations due to the higher affinity of copper cations to imidazole groups [14,15]. A contrasting 55 example of strong ligand affinity leading to reverse selectivity was shown for lithium/sodium separations 56 with 12-crown-4-ether-functionalized membranes. In this case, lithium/sodium permselectivity was 57 attributed to stronger sodium-ligand interactions compared to lithium-ligand interactions [20]. Subsequent 58 molecular dynamic simulations supported the alternative conclusion that strong cation-ligand interactions 59 hinder ion mobility to a greater extent than they enhance partitioning, resulting in the overall reduction in 60 ion permeability with increasing interaction strength [13]. These experimental and molecular dynamic simulation studies have been complemented with transport theory that predicts membrane permselectivity 61

as a function of ion and membrane properties such as valence, concentration, ion exchange capacity,
 fractional water content, and ion-ligand coordination free energy [21,22].

64 While dependencies of ion transport on ion valence, membrane fractional water content, and ion 65 exchange capacity have been thoroughly investigated experimentally [8,23,24], trends with ion-ligand coordination affinity are rare despite its clear importance as a governing factor in ion transport [10,11]. We 66 67 aim to fill this gap in experimental studies by systematically assessing ion-ligand coordination affinity as a predictor for ion transport. Ion-ligand coordination affinity is customarily tuned through ligand selection; 68 69 however, we hypothesize that ligand content within a confined membrane environment can also influence 70 ion-ligand coordination interactions, especially in the case of multidentate interactions. Steric hindrance 71 resulting from ligand attachment to the polymer backbone is expected to severely limit the occurrence of 72 strong multidentate interactions, especially at low ligand contents for which the probability of adjacent 73 ligands on the random copolymer backbone is low [25]. We therefore postulate that membrane ligand 74 content, a previously understudied parameter, may exhibit substantial, measurable impacts on ion-75 membrane affinities and ion transport [9].

76 Although membrane performance is often studied under diffusive transport conditions, realistic 77 implementation of membrane-based ion-ion separations likely requires an enhanced driving force beyond 78 concentration gradient, such as pressure or electric potential, to reach industrially-relevant fluxes. Thus, 79 informed membrane-based electrochemical separations require consideration of the interplay of ion-80 membrane affinity and driving force in ligand-functionalized membrane performance. In this work, we 81 focus on the effect of additional electric potential driving force present in selective electrodialysis - a 82 process that has previously been investigated for battery recycling and aligns well with the National 83 Academies electrification goals for sustainable separations [26,27]. A common concern in the membrane 84 community is that valence-proportional electromigratory flux from an electric potential driving force may 85 drastically impair ion-ion permselectivity in the separation of ions of different valence (e.g., lithium/nickel 86 separation) [28]. It is therefore worth investigating whether permselectivities afforded by ligand-87 functionalized membranes under diffusion experiments can be maintained in selective electrodialysis [9].

Overall, this study aims to elucidate the relationships between design parameters (ion-ligand affinity, ligand content, and driving force) and ion transport performance (ion sorption, ion permeability, and ionon permselectivity). To this end, we synthesized a library of ligand-functionalized membranes and systematically compared ion permeability and selectivity. Model feedstocks consisting of lithium and competing ions of sodium and magnesium were motivated by the industrial interest for lithium recovery from produced water brines, while a model feedstock containing lithium and nickel was motivated by

94 lithium recovery from battery waste. The library of poly(ethylene glycol) acrylate membranes includes two 95 ligands (carboxylic acid, pyridine) tested separately at monomer contents of 0-50 mol%. Testing all membranes for the separation of the three ion pairings (Li⁺/Na⁺, Li⁺/Mg²⁺, Li⁺/Ni²⁺) represented a 96 97 systematic experimental matrix for the controlled study of the effects of (1) ligand identity and (2) ligand 98 content on ion transport. These two parameters ultimately impact effective ion-membrane affinity, which 99 in turn influences ion permeability. The additional study of ion-ion separation in one of the novel ligand-100 functionalized membranes under diffusion versus electrodialysis provided additional information on the 101 interplay of binding energy and driving force in ligand-functionalized membrane performance. Together, 102 the results of this work provide evidence that ligand content and operating conditions are critical 103 considerations in the design of polymeric membrane separation processes for effective ion-ion separations. 104 The systematic data set from this study can help guide more extensive theoretical ion transport model 105 development and refine membrane design rules.

107 **2 Experimental**

108 **2.1 Membrane synthesis**

109 Photopolymerization was used to fabricate eleven hydrogel membranes containing poly(ethylene glycol) methyl ether acrylate (PEGMEA, Mn 480), poly(ethylene glycol) diacrylate crosslinker (PEGDA, 110 M_n 700), and 0 to 50 mol% of one of two ion-coordinating monomers: acrylic acid (AA, \geq 99.0%, stabilized 111 with hydroquinone monomethyl ether for synthesis) or 4-vinylpyridine (4VP, 95% stabilized with 100 ppm 112 113 hydroquinone) [29-32]. All monomer precursors were purchased from Millipore Sigma; AA and 4VP were 114 chosen because of their span of affinities across several cations (Table S1). Solvent-free mixtures of 115 PEGMA, PEGDA, and the ligand-containing monomer (purified by single pass through alumina-based 116 inhibitor removers (Sigma-Aldrich)) were prepared based on desired monomer compositions (Table 1). 117 Following photoinitiator addition (2,2-dimethoxy-2-phenylacetophenone, 99%, Millipore Sigma), the prepolymer mixtures were sonicated to remove air bubbles and cast between 4"×4" quartz plates (Flinn 118 119 Scientific) with 0.5 mm silicone rubber spacers (LMS). Polymer films were irradiated with 365 nm UV light (DarkBeam A300 LED Flashlight) for 20-40 minutes and cut to 10 mm and 16 mm diameter 120 121 membrane coupons using a hollow punch set (J&D Jindiao).

122 2.2 Characterization of membrane structural properties

123 Polymer gel fractions were determined via dialysis with 2-methyltetrahydrofuran (MeTHF, 124 Honeywell) following previously reported methods [33,34]. Briefly, 10 mm diameter coupons were soaked in MeTHF for two days and dried overnight at 50 °C in a vacuum oven (Across International). Gel fractions 125 126 were calculated as the ratio of dry mass of the sample after (m_{dia}) and before dialysis (m_{dry}) : m_{dia}/m_{dry} . 127 Qualitative trends in membrane ligand content were analyzed using attenuated total reflectance Fourier 128 transform infrared spectroscopy (ATR-FTIR) with a Nicolet iS50 FT/IR Spectrometer. Triplicate ATR-FTIR 129 measurements were taken from different membrane samples, indiscriminate of surface side, to best quantify 130 membrane homogeneity.

131 Membrane water uptake was measured by soaking 16 mm diameter coupons in nanopure water (18.2 132 M Ω ·cm resistivity) for 24 hours. Hydrated membrane mass (m_w) was measured after careful removal of 133 residual water on the membrane surface with a KimWipe [34]. Corresponding dry membrane mass (m_{dry}) 134 was measured after drying in a vacuum oven overnight at 50 °C. The difference in hydrated and dry 135 membrane mass relative to dry mass gives the water uptake : $WU = (m_w - m_{dry})/m_{dry} \times 100\%$ [29]. Fractional 136 water content (ϕ_w) was calculated based on membrane water uptake, water density ($\rho_w \approx 1$ g/mL), and dry 137 polymer density (ρ_p) assuming volume additivity: $\phi_w = WU \times (WU + \rho_w / \rho_p)^{-1}$ [20,35,36]. Dry polymer 138 density was calculated from dry membrane mass and dimensions (Mitutoyo micrometer).

139 **2.3** Ion sorption, permeability, and ion-ion permselectivities

140 Single- and binary-salt solutions for use in sorption and permeability experiments were prepared by 141 dissolving 100 mM lithium chloride (LiCl, Sigma), sodium chloride (NaCl, Sigma), magnesium chloride 142 hexahydrate (\geq 99.0% MgCl₂·6H₂O, Millipore Sigma), and/or nickel chloride hexahydrate (NiCl₂·6H₂O, 143 Sigma) in nanopure water.

144 Lithium sorption selectivities versus sodium, magnesium, and nickel were measured by soaking 10 mm diameter membrane coupons in 10 mL of binary-salt solutions for 48 h to achieve salt partitioning 145 146 equilibrium (Fig. S1). The equilibrium solutions were sampled prior to transferring the equilibrated membranes to 10 mL of 5 M nitric acid (prepared from Fisher Scientific 67-70% TraceMetalTM grade nitric 147 148 acid) for desorption. Desorption solutions were sampled after 24 h, and the desorption process was repeated a second time in 8 mL of 5 M nitric acid. Ion concentrations in the sorption (C_x^S) and desorption (C_x^D) 149 150 solutions were quantified via ICP-OES (Thermo Scientific ICAP 6300 Duo View Spectrometer). Along 151 with the desorption solution volume (V_D) and the hydrated membrane mass (m_w) , these concentration measurements were used to calculate cation uptake $((\Sigma_i C_{X_i}^D V_{D_i})/m_w$, measured in mmol/g hydrated 152 153 membrane mass) and lithium partitioning selectivities:

$$S_{X/Y}^{\alpha} = \frac{\left(\Sigma_{i} C_{X_{i}}^{D} V_{D_{i}}\right)}{\left(\Sigma_{i} C_{Y_{i}}^{D} V_{D_{i}}\right)} \frac{C_{Y}^{S}}{C_{X}^{S}}$$
(Eq 1)

154 Cation permeabilities were measured in diffusion experiments with single-salt or binary-salt feed solutions and nanopure water permeate solutions in custom H-cells 3D-printed from an epoxy polyacrylate 155 photopolymer resin (Fig. S2). In each experiment, a 16 mm diameter membrane pre-hydrated in nanopure 156 157 water was clamped between 40 mL feed and permeate chambers with an effective cross-sectional area of $A_m = 1.77 \text{ cm}^2$. Feed and permeate chamber solutions were continuously stirred, and cation concentrations 158 were monitored via ion chromatography. Cation chromatography (4 mM tartaric acid/2 mM oxalic acid 159 eluent, SCS 1 column at 30 °C) was performed with a dual Dionex ICS-6000 system. The steady-state rate 160 of change of permeate ion concentration over time $\left(\frac{dC_i^P}{dt}\right)$ was used to calculate ion flux (mmol·m⁻²·h⁻¹), 161 162 assuming constant permeate chamber volume (V_P) over the course of the experiment (negligible water 163 diffusion and sampling effects):

$$J_i = \left(\frac{dC_i^P}{dt}\right) \frac{V_P}{A_m}$$
(Eq 2)

164 Normalization of ion flux by the concentration gradient yields ion permeability $(cm^2 \cdot s^{-1})$:

$$P_i = J_i \left(\frac{C_i^F}{l}\right)^{-1} \tag{Eq 3}$$

In the calculation of permeability, the concentration gradient is approximated by initial feed concentration (C_i^F) divided by membrane thickness (l) [29]. The diffusion experiments ranged from 4 to 144 hours in duration to ensure a steady-state flux measurement. The longer duration experiments were required to measure post-breakthrough permeability of nickel in the pyridine-containing membranes (Fig. S3). In the diffusion experiments with binary-salt feed solutions, ion-ion permselectivities of cation X over cation Y were calculated as the ratio of their respective permeabilities:

$$S_{X/Y} = \frac{P_X}{P_Y}$$
(Eq 4)

171 Electrodialysis studies of lithium/nickel permselectivity were performed for the 50 mol% pyridine-172 containing membrane. A custom 4-chamber cell stack was used in these experiments consisting of 20 mL 173 anode, feed, permeate, and cathode chambers (Fig. S4). The 50 mol% pyridine-containing test membrane 174 was clamped between the feed and permeate chambers following equilibration in the feed solution (binary-175 salt solution of 100 mM LiCl and 100 mM NiCl₂). A 0.1 M sulfuric acid (H₂SO4) solution was used in all 176 other chambers. Quaternary ammonium-functionalized AXM-100 anion-exchange membranes 177 (Membranes International Inc.) equilibrated in 0.1 M H₂SO4 were clamped between the anode and feed 178 chambers as well as the permeate and cathode chambers to mitigate cation migration into the anolyte and 179 catholyte. An iridium MMO-coated titanium mesh anode $(2 \times 2 \text{ cm}, \text{Optimum Anode Technologies})$ and 180 platinum wire cathode (5 cm \times 0.5 mm diameter, BASi Inc.) were used with a BioLogic VMP-300 potentiostat to achieve applied stack voltages of 2.8, 5.0, and 6.5 V. Feed and permeate solutions were 181 182 recirculated at 22 mL/min via peristaltic pump (Masterflex), and compositions were monitored over 24 183 hours via ICP-OES to track ion flux and lithium permselectivity. Due to unsteady-state behavior over the 184 course of the chronoamperometry experiments, steady-state permeabilities and permselectivities could not be calculated in the same manner as the diffusion experiments. Instead, the ratio of average lithium and 185 nickel concentrations in the permeate chamber $(C_i^P(t))$, normalized by the initial concentrations in the feed 186 chamber $(C_i^F(0))$, were calculated at each sampling timepoint to give a proxy for the time-averaged 187 188 permselectivity up to that timepoint:

$$S_{X/Y}^{*}(t) = \frac{C_{Li}^{P}(t)}{C_{Ni}^{P}(t)} \cdot \frac{C_{Ni}^{F}(0)}{C_{Li}^{F}(0)}$$
(Eq 5)

189

190 **3 Results and Discussion**

Following synthesis and physicochemical characterization of our membrane library (Section 3.1), we performed single-salt diffusion experiments to assess the impact of ligand identity (Section 3.2.1) and ligand content (Section 3.2.2) on ion permeability. Subsequent binary-salt diffusion and partitioning experiments provide insights for ligand content effects on ion-ion permselectivity and the primary mechanisms conferring this permselectivity (Section 3.3). Finally, assessment of the performance of one membrane for lithium/nickel separation under diffusion versus electrodialysis enabled further study of driving force effects on permselectivity in ligand-functionalized membranes (Section 3.4).

198 **3.1** Physicochemical properties of ligand-functionalized membranes

199 Gel fractions exceeding 95% confirm successful polymerization across all membranes (Table 1). 200 ATR-FTIR provided qualitative verification of successful polymerization of the target ligand-201 functionalized monomer at 10 mol% increments up to a maximal ligand monomer content of 50 mol% (Fig. 202 1). All membranes share a similar backbone chemistry (Fig. 1A) shown by the common FTIR absorbance 203 spectra (Fig. 1B), where slight variations in absorbance peaks associated with the carboxylic acid or 204 pyridine ligand functional groups confirm the incremental ligand content across membranes (Fig. 1C). Crosslinker concentrations were tuned to maintain constant fractional water content ($\phi_w = 0.47 \pm 0.01$ SD) 205 206 across all membranes, and silicone spacers were used during photopolymerization to ensure constant membrane thickness (566 \pm 16 μ m dry) such that ligand species and ligand content would be the primary 207 208 variables affecting performance trends [29]. Full characterization details for membrane gel fraction, dry 209 and hydrated thickness, water uptake, and fractional water content are provided in Table 1.



211 structures of ligand-functionalized membrane synthesized Fig. 1. A) Chemical via 212 photopolymerization. The left structure depicts the carboxylic acid-functionalized membranes, 213 poly(AA-PEGMEA-PEGDA), synthesized using acrylic acid (AA) co-monomer along with 214 poly(ethylene glycol) methyl ether acrylate (PEGMEA) and poly(ethylene glycol) diacrylate 215 (PEGDA). The right structure depicts the pyridine-functionalized membranes synthesized with 4-216 vinylpyridine (VP) co-monomer (poly(4VP-PEGMEA-PEGDA)). B) ATR-FTIR spectra 217 demonstrating common membrane structures across the entire membrane library, with C) insets of regions of interest providing semi-quantitative confirmation of increasing carboxylic acid (O-H, C=O 218 219 bond) and pyridine (C=N bond) content across the 10-50 mol% acrylic acid (AA) and 4-vinylprydine 220 (VP) membranes.

Table 1. Physicochemical properties of synthesized ligand-functionalized membranes, including monomer molar composition (AA = acrylic acid, 4VP = 4-vinylpyridine, PEGMEA = poly(ethylene glycol) methyl ether acrylate, PEGDA = poly(ethylene glycol) diacrylate), gel fraction, dry and hydrated thicknesses, water uptake, and water volume fraction. Values are reported as average value

225 ± one standard deviation of triplicate measurements from distinct replicate membranes.

ID	Molar Composition (AA or 4VP /PEGMEA/PEGDA)	Gel Fraction (GF)	Dry Thickness (µm)	Hydrated Thickness (µm)	Water Uptake (WU)	Fractional water content (ϕ_W)
Control	0/50/50	$95.8\% \pm 1.0\%$	553 ± 6	671 ± 19	$78.7\% \pm 2.1\%$	0.477 ± 0.004
AA10	10/44/46	$95.8\% \pm 0.7\%$	596 ± 22	647 ± 3	$78.5\% \pm 1.1\%$	0.466 ± 0.017
AA20	20/38/42	$95.6\% \pm 1.0\%$	567 ± 16	658 ± 9	$78.1\% \pm 0.3\%$	0.475 ± 0.007
AA30	30/32/38	$95.2\% \pm 1.1\%$	557 ± 30	646 ± 9	$74.7\% \pm 3.2\%$	0.468 ± 0.016
AA40	40/26/34	$95.3\% \pm 1.3\%$	539 ± 14	633 ± 18	$74.9\% \pm 1.1\%$	0.475 ± 0.013
AA50	50/20/30	$95.1\% \pm 1.3\%$	561 ± 8	649 ± 12	$70.2\% \pm 1.9\%$	0.462 ± 0.008
4VP10	10/45/45	$97.2\% \pm 0.8\%$	587 ± 13	663 ± 14	$66.3\%{\pm}1.4\%$	0.476 ± 0.007
4VP20	20/40/40	$96.6\% \pm 0.3\%$	558 ± 15	665 ± 24	$66.5\% \pm 2.4\%$	0.494 ± 0.009
4VP30	30/30/40	$96.5\% \pm 0.5\%$	561 ± 13	656 ± 4	$65.6\% {\pm} 0.4\%$	0.490 ± 0.006
4VP40	40/22/38	$96.3\% \pm 0.9\%$	568 ± 13	646 ± 13	$64.6\% \pm 1.3\%$	0.462 ± 0.010
4VP50	50/15/35	95.7%±1.8%	578 ± 3	671 ± 21	67.1%±2.1%	0.451 ± 0.016
Average		95.9%±0.7%	566 ± 16	655 ± 12	71.4%±5.7%	0.472 ± 0.012

226

3.2 Influences of ligand identity and content on ion permeability

228 **3.2.1** Ligand identity effects on ion transport

229 Even at constant fractional water content, ligand identity can have significant effects on ion 230 permeability due to the effect of ion-ligand interactions on ion transport [12,13]. We first compare ion transport within and across three membranes (Fig. 2) - the ligand-free control membrane, the 50 mol% 231 232 acrylic acid membrane (50 mol% AA), and the 50 mol% 4-vinylpyridine membrane (50 mol% VP) – and we comment on the overall trends in permeability versus ion-ligand interaction strength based on ion-ligand 233 234 affinities reported in literature (Table S1). Full analysis of statistically significant differences in ion 235 permeabilities within and across membranes are presented in Fig. S5 and Tables S2 and S3 based on the 236 post-hoc Fisher least significant difference (LSD).





Fig. 2. Diffusive ion permeabilities for lithium (Li⁺), sodium (Na⁺), magnesium (Mg²⁺), and nickel (Ni²⁺), in the ligand-free control membrane (0 mol% Control) compared to the 50 mol % acrylic-acid (AA) and 50 mol % 4-vinylpryidine (VP) membranes. For example, the leftmost bar in the Fig. shows a lithium permeability of $2.6 \pm 0.1 \times 10^{-7}$ cm² s⁻¹ in the 0 mol% control membrane. Error bars indicate \pm one standard deviation from triplicate experiments, each using new membranes.

Compared to the ligand-free control membrane, ion permeabilities in the 50 mol% acrylic acid 255 membrane (50 mol% AA) are 22-27% lower for Li⁺, Na⁺, and Mg²⁺, and 58% lower for Ni²⁺. Slightly 256 stronger ion-ion electrostatic interactions between the cations and carboxylic acid ligand likely lead to the 257 258 reductions in permeability for all of the ions studied (statistically significant for Li^+ and Ni^{2+} at p < 0.05 and 259 p < 0.01, respectively). Comparing between ions in the 50 mol% AA membrane, permeabilities generally follow an inverse trend with ion-carboxylic acid interaction strength (Table S1). Namely, Na⁺ and Li⁺ have 260 the weakest reported interactions with carboxylic acid moieties and the highest permeabilities, followed by 261 Mg^{2+} (lower than Na⁺ at p < 0.05), and then Ni²⁺ (lower than Li⁺ and Na⁺ at p < 0.001, and Mg^{2+} at p < 0.05). 262 The significantly lower Mg²⁺ and Ni²⁺ permeabilities compared to the other ions are likely due to the ability 263 264 of these ions to form stronger multidentate coordination complexes with multiple carboxylic acid moieties [39,40]. The cause of this ligand interaction-dependent transport hinderance (e.g., partitioning versus 265 mobility effects) is further investigated in Section 3.3 with subsequent partitioning and permselectivity 266 267 experiments. Broadly, these preliminary ion permeability results are in agreement with prior reports of 268 permeability reductions in ion permeation due to strong ion-ligand interactions within the membrane [12,13]. Despite the slight differences in carboxylic acid interaction strength with each of the ions (Table 269 S1), the 50 mol% AA membrane still does not effectively discern between the ions as evidenced by their 270 271 permeabilities which still remain within the same order of magnitude [38].

272 The 50 mol% 4-vinylpyridine membrane (50 mol% VP) was synthesized to offer a broader range of ion-ligand interaction strengths for the ions of interest, including a much stronger interaction with Ni²⁺ 273 274 [41,42]. Relative to the ligand-free control membrane, Na⁺ and Li⁺ permeabilities increased by 10% and 50%, while Mg²⁺ and Ni²⁺ permeabilities decreased by 83% and 97%, respectively. These changes in ion 275 276 permeabilities between the ligand-free control and 50 mol% VP membranes were statistically significant for Li^+ , Mg^{2+} , and Ni^{2+} (p < 0.001). The two-order of magnitude span of ion permeabilities in the 50 mol% 277 VP membrane is again attributed to the range of ion-pyridine interaction strengths. The coordinative nickel-278 pyridine binding affinity far exceeds the pyridine binding affinities towards the other ions in this study 279 (Table S1) [41,42]. While the difference between Mg^{2+} and Ni^{2+} permeabilities in the 50 mol% VP 280 membrane was not identified as statistically significant by the Fisher LSD test, experimental observations 281 did suggest that the transport of Mg²⁺ was not impacted to the same extent as that of nickel due to ion-282 specific ligand interaction strengths; specifically, nickel transport in the pyridine-containing membrane was 283 284 found to exhibit a sorption stage prior to breakthrough where nickel transport from feed to permeate was below the limit of detection (SI section S3.1), necessitating longer diffusion experiments for accurate 285 286 measurement of steady-state permeability post-breakthrough (Fig. S3).

287 Combined with the ligand-free and 50 mol% AA membranes, these trends in ion permeability again 288 provide additional experimental evidence that ligand identity can be used to tune ion permeabilities. 289 Specifically, we observed the general trend that lower ion permeabilities are associated with strong ion-290 ligand interactions. Among other possible membrane modifications (e.g., ion exchange capacity, fractional 291 water content), ligand identity modifications are significant and can be more ion-specific. For example, the 292 reduction in post-breakthrough nickel permeability due to pyridine incorporation into the membrane is 293 approximately an order of magnitude higher than reductions in ion permeability reported elsewhere from 294 decreasing fractional water content [8,24]. In addition, while trends in ion permeability with water content 295 are largely independent of ion identity, the effects of ligand identity are ion-specific. These observations 296 evince the benefits of strong ion-ligand coordination interactions beyond electrostatics to achieve 297 significant ion-specific adjustments in permeability.

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299 **3.2.2** Ligand content effects on ion transport

In Section 3.2.1, ion permeabilities showed an inverse relationship with ion-ligand interaction strength based on ion-ligand stability constants and bond dissociation energies reported for homogeneous solutions. While ion-ligand binding affinities reported in homogeneous solutions are insightful for preliminary membrane chemistry design, sterically hindered ion-ligand interactions within a confined membrane environment likely differ substantially from those in solution [25]. Therefore, it may not only be crucial to select an appropriate ligand species (e.g., pyridine), but also an appropriate ligand content with the membrane to achieve the desired ion-ligand interactions and tune permeability.

308 To assess the impact of membrane ligand content on ion transport, ion permeabilities were 309 measured in a series of carboxylic acid- and pyridine-functionalized membranes with ligand contents 310 ranging from 10-50 mol % (Fig. 3). Across both the carboxylic acid and pyridine-containing membranes, 311 Li⁺ and Na⁺ permeabilities are relatively independent of ligand content, showing no statistically significant 312 linear relationship for the logarithm of permeability versus ligand content (regression and F-test results 313 presented in Table S4). The only statistically significant relationships between ligand content and ion permeability are measured for Mg²⁺ across the acrylic acid membranes (p < 0.05) and Ni²⁺ across both the 314 315 acrylic acid and pyridine-containing membranes (p < 0.01 and p < 0.001, respectively). We postulate that the unique ligand-content dependence for Ni²⁺ permeability (and to a lesser extent, Mg²⁺ permeability with 316 acrylic acid) and independence for the other ions (Li⁺, Na⁺, and Mg²⁺ with pyridine) can be explained by 317 318 coordination chemistry and steric hindrance effects.

319 Specifically, nickel is reported to form bidentate and hexadentate complexes in bulk solutions with 320 carboxylic acid and pyridine ligands, respectively [39,42]. Magnesium, a divalent ion, is also expected to 321 form up to bidentate complexes with carboxylic acid groups, although the overall ion-ligand interaction is 322 weaker with magnesium than with nickel [39,40]. For ligands affixed to a membrane, we expected the 323 probability of multidentate complex formation to increase with ligand content due to increased probability 324 of adjacent ligands on the random copolymer backbone [25]. These higher denticity interactions would 325 enhance the average ion-membrane affinity, leading to the reduction in ion permeability that we observed 326 for ions capable of multidentate interactions with increasing membrane pyridine and carboxylic acid 327 contents. Moreover, the strength of these linear relationships as measured by the absolute value of the 328 correlation coefficient ($0 \le |r| \le 1$) aligns with the strength of the multidentate ion-ligand interactions: Mg²⁺carboxylic acid (|r| = 0.61) < Ni²⁺-carboxylic acid (|r| = 0.75) < Ni²⁺-pyridine (|r| = 0.98) [39,40,42]. 329

In contrast to multidentate ion-ligand complexes, Li^+ , Na^+ , and Mg^{2+} (with pyridine) are reported to exhibit monodentate interactions with the ligands in bulk solution. Monodentate interactions are generally weaker than multidentate interactions (Table S1). In addition, the ability for monodentate ionligand coordination to occur in a membrane matrix (and, in turn, any transport effects resulting from coordination) is likely less affected by the membrane ligand content because, unlike multidentate complexation, there is no requirement for proximate ligands to interact.

Altogether, these findings suggest that homogeneous ion-ligand affinities are necessary but insufficient predictors of ion transport. In particular, when multidentate ion-ligand coordination chemistry increases the overall ion-ligand interaction strength (e.g., nickel-pyridine, nickel-carboxylic acid, and magnesium-carboxylic acid), ligand content must also be considered. We reason that increased ligand content increases the probability of strong multidentate interactions, and that these stronger ion-ligand interactions influence ion permeability. Therefore, ligand content is an additional parameter beyond ligand identity that can tune ion transport in ligand-functionalized membranes.



344 Fig. 3. Average ion permeabilities in the A) carboxylic-acid-functionalized and B) pyridinefunctionalized membranes, plotted against the ligand content (monomer mole percent). Error bars 345 346 represent \pm one standard deviation from triplicate experiments. Linear regressions of the logarithm 347 of ion permeability with ligand content (10-50 mol%) are shown as dashed lines; statistically significant relationships are annotated based on F-tests (* $p \le 0.05$; ** $p \le 0.01$; *** $p \le 0.001$). 348

3.3 Influences of ligand content on ion-ion permselectivity: mobility effects 349 outcompete partitioning effects

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351 Because ligand content was observed to impact ion permeability for multidentate-coordinating ions (Ni²⁺, Mg²⁺) with negligible effects on monodentate- or weakly-coordinating ions (Li⁺, Na⁺), we 352 hypothesized that varying ligand content could alter permselectivity between such ion pairs (e.g., Ni²⁺ vs. 353 354 Li⁺). Binary-salt diffusion experiments were performed to test this hypothesis via measurement of ion-ion 355 permselectivities (Fig. 4). In addition, sorption experiments coupled with the solution-diffusion framework 356 were employed to better elucidate the cause of permselectivity trends in ligand functionalized membranes; 357 specifically, partitioning and mobility effects arising from ion-ligand interactions were assessed.

358 We will first discuss permselectivity trends as a function of ligand content, with a focus on the 359 pyridine-containing membranes. The single salt permeability measurements showed a pyridine-content 360 dependence for Ni²⁺ permeability (attributed to increasing probability of strong multidentate coordination), and independence for Li⁺, Na⁺, and Mg²⁺ permeability (attributed to constant monodentate coordination 361 probability). As a result, Li⁺/Ni²⁺ permselectivity was expected to demonstrate a pyridine content 362 dependence, while Li⁺/Mg²⁺ and Li⁺/Na⁺ permselectivities were expected to be independent of pyridine 363

content. F-tests from linear regression of the logarithm of Li⁺/Ni²⁺ permselectivity across the 10-50 mol% 364 pyridine membranes suggest a statistically significant relationship between Li⁺/Ni²⁺ permselectivity and 365 ligand content (p < 0.01), where permselectivity increased from $S_{Li/Ni} = 7.7 \pm 1.0$ in the 10 monomer mol% 366 367 pyridine membrane to $S_{Li/Ni} = 12.7 \pm 2.7$ in the 50 mol% membrane (Fig. 4A). Selectivity versus ligand 368 content regression and statistical analyses are reported in Tables S5-S7. Note that these selectivities only 369 account for post-breakthrough transport; the increase in membrane pyridine content from 10 to 50 monomer 370 mol% also extended the nickel sorption period from about $t = 0.1 \pm 0.6$ h to $t = 52 \pm 12$ h in our binary-salt experiments, during which time nickel transport was negligible and an essentially pure lithium product was 371 372 obtained (Fig. S3). Though not the focus of this work, this selectivity highlights the possibility of employing 373 these materials as absorptive membranes in trace nickel removal applications [43].

Considering the other ion pairs, no significant relationships (p < 0.05) between permselectivity and ligand content were identified for Li⁺/Na⁺ or Li⁺/Mg²⁺ (Fig. 4B-C), as expected from the individual ion permeability trends. Similar results were obtained for all salt pairs across the membranes containing acrylic acid, where a statistically significant Li⁺/X permselectivity relationship with ligand content was only observed for Li⁺/Ni²⁺ (p < 0.05) (Fig. S6, Table S5).



Fig. 4. Lithium permselectivity $S_{Li/X}$ (•, measured), partitioning selectivity $S_{Li/X}^{\alpha}$ (\circ , measured), and mobility selectivity $S_{Li/X}^{D}$ (Δ , calculated based on the solution diffusion framework where $S_{Li/X} =$ $S_{Li/X}^{\alpha} \times S_{Li/X}^{D}$) versus A) nickel, B) magnesium, and C) sodium in 4-vinylpryidine-containing membranes. Each ion pair is shown as an individual plot with ligand content (monomer mol %) on the x-axis. Error bars represent ± one standard deviation from triplicate experiments. Linear regressions of the logarithms of selectivities with ligand content (10-50 mol%) are shown as dashed

386 lines; statistically significant relationships are annotated based on F-tests (* $p \le 0.05$; ** $p \le 0.01$; *** 387 $p \le 0.001$).

388 In addition to identifying significant permselectivity trends with ligand content, we aimed to 389 elucidate the mechanistic causes of these trends. To better understand the selectivity mechanisms in these 390 ligand-functionalized membranes, we invoke the solution-diffusion framework that describes ion transport 391 as sequential steps of (1) partitioning into the membrane (solubility) and (2) migrating through the 392 membrane (diffusion). In this framework, permeability (P_i) is therefore described as the product of the ion 393 partition (K_i) and diffusion (D_i) coefficients: $P_i \equiv K_i \times D_i$ [13,20,21,24]. By this same framework, overall permselectivity can therefore be decomposed into a partitioning selectivity $(S_{X/Y}^{\alpha})$ and a mobility selectivity 394 $(S_{X/Y}^D)$ [13]: 395

$$S_{X/Y} \equiv \frac{P_X}{P_Y} = \frac{K_X D_X}{K_Y D_Y} = \left(\frac{K_X}{K_Y}\right) \times \left(\frac{D_X}{D_Y}\right) = S_{X/Y}^{\alpha} \times S_{X/Y}^{D}$$
(Eq 6)

396 Thus, we supplemented our permselectivity measurements with sorption experiments to measure 397 partitioning selectivity and facilitate calculation of mobility selectivity. For lithium/nickel separation across 398 the pyridine membranes, we observed an inverse relationship between partitioning selectivity and overall permselectivity with ligand content (Fig. 4A). Although Li⁺/Ni²⁺ permselectivity only increased by a factor 399 of 3.3 from 0 to 50 mol% pyridine content, the Li⁺/Ni²⁺ partitioning selectivity measured from sorption 400 experiments decreased by a factor of 28. Consequently, the observed increase in Li⁺/Ni²⁺ permselectivity 401 with increasing pyridine content implies that Li⁺/Ni²⁺ mobility selectivities increase by two orders of 402 403 magnitude to outweigh the inverse partitioning selectivity trend. These observations are in agreement with 404 prior theory and computation work asserting that mobility selectivity dominates partitioning selectivity in 405 overall permselectivity trends for ligand-functionalized hydrogel membranes [21,44]. For example, one ion 406 permeability model developed as a function of ion-ligand binding affinity predicted that mobility reductions 407 outcompete partitioning enhancements at higher ion-membrane affinities, leading to an overall reduction in ion permeability with increasing ion-ligand binding affinity [21]. By analogy for the separation of two ions 408 409 with different ion-ligand affinities, mobility selectivity (favoring transport of the low-affinity ion) is also 410 expected to outweigh partitioning selectivity (favoring the high-affinity ion) in the determination of overall permselectivity. In the case where the ion-ligand affinity of the high-affinity ion increases while the other 411 remains constant (e.g., increasing Ni²⁺-pyridine affinity with membrane pyridine content and constant Li⁺-412 413 pyridine affinity), this theory also predicts an increase in permselectivity of the lower-affinity ion (e.g., Li⁺) 414 due to mobility selectivity increasing more than partitioning selectivity decreases.

For Li⁺/Mg²⁺ and Li⁺/Na⁺ separations, overall permselectivities were approximately constant across 415 pyridine contents, averaging $S_{Li/Mg} = 8.6 \pm 0.5$ and $S_{Li/Na} = 1.14 \pm 0.01$. Still, the decline in Li⁺/Mg²⁺ 416 partitioning selectivity with pyridine content suggests that the corresponding Li⁺/Mg²⁺ mobility selectivity 417 418 trend must oppose it to result in the constant overall permselectivity (Fig. 4B). This trade-off in partitioning 419 and mobility selectivities further confirms prior ligand-functionalized membrane transport theory and 420 experimental observations [12,13,21]. In the case of Li⁺/Na⁺ separations, no significant trends were 421 observed for overall partitioning selectivity nor its constituent partitioning and mobility selectivities with 422 ligand content due to similar, weak Li⁺-pyridine and Na⁺-pyridine interactions (Fig. 4C).

423 Our findings experimentally demonstrate the dominant role of mobility selectivity, in agreement 424 with prior work asserting that mobility effects outcompete partitioning effects in overall permselectivity, 425 leading to higher permselectivity of the lower-affinity ion [21]. While prior efforts to tune the difference in 426 ion-ligand affinity between two ions have largely focused on changing ligand identity, we show that similar 427 effects can be achieved via changes in ligand content. The increase in permselectivity of the lower-affinity 428 ion with increasing ligand content demonstrates that ligand content is a critical parameter for predicting ion 429 transport. While previous literature considers homogeneous ion-ligand binding affinity among other 430 parameters to predict ion permeability and permselectivity in ligand-functionalized membranes [21], we 431 demonstrate that a constant homogeneous ion-ligand binding affinity does not capture the observed 432 transport dependence on ligand content. Again, we postulate that higher ligand content may facilitate 433 stronger multidentate ion-ligand interactions that are otherwise infeasible at lower contents due to steric 434 hindrance within the membrane. Ligand content is therefore a critical variable for tuning membrane 435 permselectivity between one ion capable of multidentate interactions (affinity and permeability influenced 436 by ligand content) and another monodentate-coordinating ion (affinity and permeability independent of 437 ligand content). At the same time, the competing mobility and partitioning trends observed with ligand 438 content may suggest a fundamental limitation of ligand content (or more broadly, coordination chemistry 439 interactions) for ion-ion separations.

440 3.4 Ligand-induced diffusive ion mobility limitations are maintained under 441 electromigration

In Sections 3.2 and 3.3, the highest Li^+/X permselectivity was measured against nickel in the 50 mol% VP membrane because of strong Ni²⁺-pyridine interactions hindering nickel transport and weak Li⁺⁻ pyridine interactions. In this monovalent (Li⁺) versus divalent (Ni²⁺) separation case, an additional fundamental question arises regarding the impact of diffusion versus electromigration driving force on permselectivity. Neglecting convective transport and assuming constant ion partition coefficients, diffusivities, and interfacial solution concentrations, the Nernst-Planck equation would predict that divalent nickel would experience a greater permeability enhancement than monovalent lithium with increasing applied potential, and that $\text{Li}^+/\text{Ni}^{2+}$ permselectivity would consequently decline by a factor of 2 as electromigration becomes dominant compared to diffusive transport (Equation S1-S3) [28].

451 To advance understanding and rational design of ion transport in ligand-functionalized membranes. we varied the applied potential in an electrodialysis system to investigate whether permselectivity trends 452 with driving force follow these Nernst-Planck expectations. We measured Li⁺/Ni²⁺ permselectivity in a 453 454 single electrodialysis stack with the 50 mol% VP membrane under a range of applied potentials 455 (chronoamperometry plots shown in Fig. S7). The membranes were pre-soaked in the feed solution to 456 eliminate the nickel sorption period in the experiment, which resulted in some initial nickel leaching into the permeate solution at the start of the experiments. 0.1 M H₂SO4 was used as electrolyte to mimic the 457 application of lithium recovery from battery cathode active material leachate, which is acidic and commonly 458 contains both lithium and nickel [45]. Diffusive Li⁺/Ni²⁺ permselectivity was slightly reduced from an 459 average of $S_{Li/Ni} = 12.7 \pm 2.7$ under the original circumneutral conditions (nanopure water permeate) to $S_{Li/Ni}$ 460 461 $= 4.7 \pm 0.8$ at pH 0.7 (0.1 M H₂SO4 permeate). Under these acidic conditions, membrane water uptake was 462 found to rise by 28%, which may be due to protonation of the pyridine functional group (pKa 5.23 [46]). 463 The resulting higher water volume fraction in the membrane caused a slight increase in average diffusive 464 lithium permeability $(1.9\times)$. Average diffusive nickel permeability increased by a larger factor $(5.1\times)$ due 465 to the enhanced mobility from reduced nickel-pyridine/pyridinium coordination in addition to the increased 466 water volume fraction.

Surprisingly, Li⁺/Ni²⁺ selectivity trends with applied potential were found to oppose the Nernst-467 Planck expectations. In our experiments, lithium transport across the 50 mol% VP membrane was more 468 469 positively correlated with applied potential than nickel transport (Fig. S8A-B). Due to initial nickel leaching 470 from the feed-soaked membranes and a decline in current (related to a decline in total ion transport) over 471 the course of the constant-potential experiments, constant permeabilities could not be measured for lithium 472 and nickel. Instead, the molar ratio of lithium to nickel in the permeate chamber normalized by the initial molar ratio in the feed chamber was used as a proxy for Li⁺/Ni²⁺ permselectivity over time (Fig. 5). At all 473 474 potentials, this selectivity proxy ratio of lithium to nickel in the permeate chamber increased over time due 475 to initial leaching of the preferentially sorbed nickel from the membrane that was quickly superseded by a 476 lower rate of sustained nickel transport (Fig. S8B). Consequently, the lithium to nickel molar ratios plateau over time as electromediated-ion transport overtakes initial ion leaching. Irrespective of the time-variant 477 behavior, higher potentials generally achieved higher lithium transport and higher Li⁺/Ni²⁺ molar ratios in 478 the permeate chamber throughout the 24 h experiment. At the final timepoint, the Li⁺/Ni²⁺ permeate ratio 479

- 480 was approximately $3 \times$ higher in the highest potential (6.5 V) experiment compared to the diffusive
- 481 experiment (0 V). This trend in increasing Li^{+}/Ni^{2+} molar ratios with increasing applied potential is opposite
- 482 of the expectations from the Nernst-Planck equation, which would instead predict a Li^+/Ni^{2+} selectivity
- 483 reduction from the diffusive (0 V case) by up to a factor of $2 \times$ (Fig. 5).



484

Fig. 5. Molar ratio of lithium to nickel concentrations in the permeate chamber over time for 4chamber electrodialysis experiments operated at constant potentials of 0.0 V (diffusive case), 2.8 V,
5.0 V, and 6.5 V over 24 hours. Error bars represent ± one standard deviation from triplicate
experiments.

Previous studies on ion exchange membranes have shown direct correlation of monovalent/divalent selectivities with applied potential and attributed this relationship to more extreme boundary layer transport limitations at higher applied potentials [47–51]. As boundary layer transport becomes rate-limiting, multivalent ion depletion in the boundary layer and higher aqueous diffusivities of monovalent ions are reasoned to lead to enhanced monovalent partitioning and permselectivity [47–51]. In our work, we do not observe the partitioning trends characteristic of boundary-layer nickel depletion. The post-electrodialysis test membranes were desorbed in nitric acid to characterize lithium and nickel sorption following the same

desorption procedure applied for partitioning selectivity measurements (Section 2.3). The Li⁺/Ni²⁺ 496 497 partitioning selectivity in the diffusive case with 0.1 M H₂SO₄ permeate ($S^{\alpha}_{Li/Ni} = 0.32 \pm 0.28$) was slightly higher than what was previously measured under diffusion with nanopure water permeate ($S^{\alpha}_{LiNi} = 0.11 \pm$ 498 499 0.04), suggesting that the acidic environment impedes nickel-pyridine coordination and therefore enhances 500 the Li⁺/Ni²⁺ ratio within the membrane (though nickel sorption still remains preferential, i.e., $S^{\alpha}_{Li/Ni} < I$). Under applied potentials, the Li⁺/Ni²⁺ sorption selectivities were 3.0 to $4.5 \times \text{lower}$ ($S^{\alpha}_{Li/Ni} = 0.071 \pm 0.001$ 501 502 to 0.11 ± 0.08) than in the diffusive case (Fig. 6). The reduction in lithium/nickel partitioning selectivity 503 upon introduction of an applied potential was primarily due to an increase in nickel sorption in the membrane rather than a decrease in lithium sorption, suggesting that boundary layer depletion of nickel is 504 not the cause of the Li^+/Ni^{2+} selectivity enhancement at higher potentials. Rather, these results support that 505 while nickel still preferably partitions into the membrane, the nickel-membrane coordination remains 506 507 sufficiently strong to hinder nickel mobility across the range of applied potentials studied (up to 6.5 V).

508



510 Fig. 6. Lithium/nickel permselectivity $S_{Li/Ni}$ (•, measured by the molar ratio of ions in the permeate 511 chamber), partitioning selectivity $S^{\alpha}_{Li/Ni}$ (\circ , measured by the molar ratio of sorbed ions in the

512 membrane), and mobility selectivity $S_{Li/Ni}^{D}$ (Δ , calculated based on the solution diffusion framework 513 where $S_{Li/Ni} = S_{Li/Ni}^{\alpha} \times S_{Li/Ni}^{D}$) at 24 hours. Error bars represent \pm one standard deviation from 514 triplicate experiments. Linear regressions of the logarithms of selectivities with applied potential are 515 shown as dashed lines; statistically significant relationships are annotated based on F-tests (* $p \leq$ 516 0.05; ** $p \leq$ 0.01; *** $p \leq$ 0.001).

517 This finding is promising for the development of ligand-functionalized ion-selective electrodialysis 518 membranes; it demonstrates that permselectivity for the low-affinity ion (e.g., lithium) may be maintained 519 or even improved with applied potential if coordination with the high-affinity ion (e.g., nickel) is 520 sufficiently strong relative to the electromigratory driving force. As a result, simultaneous improvements 521 in productivity and selectivity can be achieved with an electric potential driving force. In the context of 522 membrane process design, the departure of these selectivity results from diffusive results and expected 523 Nernst-Planck trends motivate membrane testing under application conditions as critical for realistic 524 estimates of ion-ion permselectivity. Such experiments can elucidate ligand-speciation effects, solution 525 mass transport limitations, and the effects of competition between ion-ligand coordination and driving 526 force.

527 4 Conclusions

In the development of ligand-functionalized membranes for ion-ion separations, few studies have systematically investigated the effect of fine-tuning membrane composition beyond ligand chemistry on separation performance. In this work, we fill this knowledge gap by synthesizing a library of acrylic acidand pyridine-functionalized membranes and measuring ion permeabilities and permselectivities to provide valuable insights on the variable effects of ligand content on ion-ion permselectivity.

533 Specifically, we observe order-of-magnitude changes in ion permeability with increasing 534 membrane ligand content for ions known to form multidentate ion-ligand complexes. In contrast, the 535 permeabilities of weaker, monodentate-coordinating ions were relatively independent of ligand content. 536 These results highlight ligand content as a critical variable for tuning the permselectivity between one ion 537 capable of strong, multidentate interactions whose affinity and permeability are influenced by ligand 538 content and another weak, monodentate-coordinating ion whose affinity and permeability are independent 539 of ligand content. In the context of membrane design, where ligand selection is primarily informed by 540 homogeneous ion-ligand binding affinities, our experimental results underscore the importance of 541 considering the ligand content required to leverage strong, multidentate complex formation; changing a

542 ligand's content within a membrane may have just as substantial impacts on ion permselectivity as changing543 the ligand chemistry entirely.

544 The influence of driving force on membrane performance is another critical yet understudied 545 parameter in membrane-based ion separations. Electrodialysis with 50 mol% VP membrane demonstrated simultaneous improvement in lithium recovery and Li⁺/Ni²⁺ selectivity with applied potential, opposite of 546 expectations from the valence-proportional electromigration term in the classical Nernst-Planck equation. 547 548 While the observed trends followed previous reports of boundary layer mass transport limitations, 549 partitioning selectivities suggest that preferential partitioning of nickel occurs at high potentials and that 550 additional ligand-induced membrane transport limitations still exist to hinder nickel transport. These results emphasize the need for preliminary membrane testing under various driving force conditions (e.g., diffusion 551 552 and applied potential) to robustly assess a membrane's performance potential for an application of interest.

553 Throughout this study, our experimental results support previous assertions that strong competing 554 ion complexation can be used to achieve high permselectivity of a non-complexing ion [21]. Future work 555 may include the study of additional ion-ligand combinations spanning a wider range of binding affinities 556 to expand the experimental data set relating ion-selective membrane structure and performance. 557 Considering different regimes of ion-ligand binding affinities and extension to surface-functionalized 558 versus bulk-functionalized membranes may help explain some of the contrasting results reporting high 559 permselectivity of the complexing ion in literature. Simultaneous work by theorists and computationalists 560 to incorporate ligand content and driving force effects on (1) effective ion-membrane affinity and (2) ionion permselectivity would enhance existing ion transport models. We encourage further studies on the effect 561 562 of electric fields on ion sorption selectivity in membranes, including but not limited to the study of ligand 563 speciation and valence effects. Such models could help guide rational design and development of improved 564 ion-selective ligand-functionalized membranes.

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