

1     **Spinel-based Ceramic Membranes Coupling Solid Sludge Recycling with**  
2                                   **Oily Wastewater Treatment**

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27 **Abstract**

28 Highly efficient and economic treatment of wastewater sludges and wastewaters in one way is  
29 a challenging issue in the water treatment field. Herein we present a waste-to-resource strategy  
30 for rational fabrication of low-cost ceramic membranes, which simultaneously addresses the  
31 treatment of heavy metal-laden sludges and the separation of oil-in-water (O/W) emulsions. A  
32 thermal conversion mechanism is proposed for complicated reactions between simulated  
33 nickel-laden wastewater sludge and bauxite mineral. In addition to full stabilization and  
34 recycling of heavy metal wastewater sludges, rational tailoring of ceramic membrane structures  
35 can also be realized to achieve high water flux, favorable mechanical and surface properties.  
36 With rational structure design, the tailored spinel-based ceramic membranes exhibited high  
37 rejection and high flux ( $7473 \text{ LMH}\cdot\text{bar}^{-1}$ ) simultaneously for separation of oily wastewater,  
38 outperforming other reported state-of-the-art ceramic membranes. The membrane fouling  
39 mechanism revealed the dominance of cake layer formation at low cross flow velocities, while  
40 a combined model of cake layer formation and pore blocking dominated membrane fouling at  
41 high cross-flow velocities. The proposed strategy can be potentially extended toward design of  
42 functional ceramic membranes derived from other heavy metal wastewater sludges and for  
43 other water treatment applications.

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48 **Keywords:** Wastewater sludge; Ceramic membrane; Oily wastewater; High flux; Membrane  
49 fouling.

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53 **1. Introduction**

54 Sludges generated from industrial wastewater treatment often contain elevated  
55 concentrations of heavy metals such as copper, nickel, zinc, chromium and manganese, which  
56 are detrimental to the environment and human health (Duruibe et al., 2007). These hazardous  
57 heavy-metal containing sludges are often disposed of in controlled landfills by treating with  
58 cements (Song et al., 2013), a method which is generally considered unsustainable in the long  
59 run. Sorption and cementation, the dominate mechanisms for heavy metal stabilization in  
60 controlled landfills, are not sufficient in preventing their leaching in acidic environments  
61 (Christensen et al., 2001; Slack et al., 2005). Consequently, a more effective heavy metal  
62 stabilization strategy is highly needed.

63 Compared to landfill treatment, the thermal conversion method offers more reliable heavy  
64 metal stabilization combined with a significantly reduced risks of leaching. This method  
65 involves the formation of stable ceramic phases such as spinel, during which heavy metals are  
66 incorporated irreversibly into acid-stable crystalline phases (Shih et al., 2006b; Tang et al.,  
67 2011a; Tang et al., 2011b). For example, Shih et al. investigated the stabilization of nickel with  
68  $\gamma$ -alumina, kaolinite and hematite. All the precursors showed high nickel incorporation  
69 efficiency when sintered at above 1250 °C (Shih et al., 2006a). The same group also studied the  
70 stabilization of copper and zinc in other work using the same method. It was found that these  
71 heavy metals can be efficiently stabilized in the spinel phases as well (Tang et al., 2011a). In  
72 addition, this method appeared to be feasible for real wastewater heavy metal-laden sludges  
73 (Tang et al., 2011b). Therefore, spinel-based heavy metal stabilization method can be  
74 potentially used to prepare a variety of ceramic products from metal-laden sludges.

75 In recent years, ceramic membranes have been increasingly employed for wastewater  
76 treatment because of their small footprint, no chemical pretreatment, low energy consumption  
77 and high removal efficiency (Dong et al., 2009; Hua et al., 2007; Lee and Kim, 2014; Salahi et

78 al., 2010). Due to their higher mechanical, chemical and thermal stability and anti-fouling  
79 property, ceramic membranes generally perform better than polymeric membranes, particularly  
80 for harsh applications such as the separation of oil/water (O/W) emulsions (Abadi et al., 2011;  
81 Dong et al., 2018; Zhu et al., 2016; Zhu et al., 2019). Inspired by the spinel-based stabilization  
82 method, a waste-to-resource strategy is proposed for the rational fabrication of low-cost ceramic  
83 membranes which simultaneously addresses the treatment of heavy metal laden sludges and the  
84 separation of O/W emulsions.

85 In the current study, we systematically elucidate the formation mechanism of acid-stable  
86  $\text{NiAl}_2\text{O}_4$  spinel during the preparation of hollow fiber ceramic membrane (HFCM) using a  
87 mixture of synthetic nickel-laden wastewater sludge (NiO) and naturally abundant bauxite  
88 mineral. Two different membrane structures (sandwich-structured HFCM (SS-HFCM) vs. long  
89 finger-like pore structured HFCM (LFS-HFCM)) were studied for O/W emulsion separation  
90 under various operating conditions. We show that the excellent surface hydrophilicity induced  
91 by the abundant metal hydroxyl groups combined with the special structural features of the  
92 LFS-HFCM led to high membrane permeate flux, outperforming other existing ceramic  
93 membranes. The current study provides a rational and cost-effective approach for the design  
94 and fabrication of high-performance ceramic membranes.

95

96 **2. Experimental section**

97 *2.1. Materials and chemicals*

98 Abundantly available bauxite (after 1600 °C calcination, Yangquan, Shanxi Province,  
99 China) and NiO (99%, analytical reagent, Sinopharm Chemical Reagent Co., Ltd., China) were  
100 used as the raw materials for the preparation of low-cost spinel-based hollow fiber ceramic  
101 membranes. The chemical composition of bauxite is shown in [Table S1 \(Supporting](#)  
102 [Information \(SI\)](#)), determined by semi-quantitative X-ray fluorescence spectroscopy (XRF,  
103 Axios-Advanced, PAN3 analytical, The Netherlands). Other characterization results of bauxite  
104 such as phase composition and particle size distribution can be found in our recent publication  
105 (Dong et al., 2018). Polyethersulfone (PES, E2010, BASF Chemical Company, Germany) and  
106 N-methyl-2-pyrrolidinone (NMP, CP Grade, Sinopharm Chemical Reagent Co. Ltd., China)  
107 were used as the polymer binder and the solvent respectively, to prepare the mixed polymeric  
108 solutions. Polyvinylpyrrolidone (PVP K-30, 45000Da, Sinopharm Chemical Reagent Co. Ltd.,  
109 China) was used as the additive. Deionized (DI) water was used as the internal coagulant while  
110 the mixtures of tap-water/ethanol with different ethanol volumes (0%, 30%, 60% and 90%)  
111 were used as the external coagulants, to accomplish the gelation and phase conversion processes  
112 of spun hollow fiber precursors.

113 *2.2. Membrane fabrication*

114 The spinel-based HFCMs were prepared by a dry-wet spinning technique ([Fig. S1](#)),  
115 involving immersion-induced phase inversion and drying-sintering processes. Systematic  
116 optimization of various suspension compositions and spinning parameters were conducted  
117 ([Table S2](#)). The details of the preparation are described in [SI](#) and other literature (Dong et al.,  
118 2018).

119 *2.3. Membrane characterization*

120 The crystalline phases of calcined bauxite and sintered HFCMs (1000-1300 °C) were  
121 characterized by X-ray diffraction (XRD, DX-2700, Dandong Haoyuan Instrument Co., Ltd.,

122 China, Cu K $\alpha$  radiation, working voltage 40 kV, working current 30 mA, scanning speed of 5.0°  
123 (2 $\theta$ ) · min<sup>-1</sup>). Here, each phase present in the XRD patterns were semi-quantitatively analyzed  
124 based on the normalized reference intensity ratio (RIR) method (Chung, 1974). The details of  
125 this method can be found in our previous work (Chen et al., 2016). Microstructures of green  
126 and sintered HFCMs were visually observed using a scanning electron microscope (SEM, S-  
127 4800, Hitachi Ltd., Japan). Surface porosity of hollow fiber membranes was quantified by  
128 ImageJ software (Vasanth et al., 2011), where SEM images were processed into black and red  
129 regions, which present ceramic particles and membrane pores, respectively. Other  
130 characterizations such as mechanical strength, pore size distribution, fourier-transform infrared  
131 spectroscopy (FTIR), X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS), transmission electron  
132 microscopy (TEM), selected area electron diffraction (SAED) and pure water flux were  
133 described in [SI](#).

#### 134 2.4. O/W emulsion separation by HFCMs

135 Membrane separation experiments of synthetic O/W emulsion wastewaters ([S1.3](#), [SI](#)) were  
136 carried out in a laboratory-made crossflow filtration apparatus ([Fig. S3](#)). The O/W emulsion  
137 with a concentration of 500 mg·L<sup>-1</sup> was prepared by dissolving a certain amount of oil into  
138 deionized water, then ultrasonicated for about 12 h in a sonicator tank at a temperature of 25 °C.  
139 To stabilize the emulsion systems, a surfactant (sodium dodecyl sulfonate) with a concentration  
140 of 0.1g·L<sup>-1</sup> was added into the mixture. Afterwards, the mixtures were vigorously magnetically  
141 stirred for 48 h until they appeared turbid and milky white, indicating good stability and  
142 homogeneity. The size distributions of oil emulsion droplets were measured by a Malvern  
143 Mastersizer analyzer (Mastersizer 2000, Malvern Instruments Ltd., UK) and the stability of the  
144 emulsion can be maintained for several days ([Fig. S2](#)). The filtration was conducted under a  
145 constant trans-membrane pressure of 0.1 bar at three cross-flow velocities of 0.56 m·s<sup>-1</sup>, 1.12  
146 m·s<sup>-1</sup> and 1.67 m·s<sup>-1</sup>, respectively. All the experiments were conducted at room temperature

147 (25 °C). Oil concentrations in the permeate samples varied with time were obtained by  
148 measuring the absorbance with 10 min interval. The permeate flux ( $J$ ,  $L \cdot m^{-2} \cdot h^{-1}$ ) and oil  
149 rejection ( $R$ ) were calculated according to the following equations by weighing permeate every  
150 10 min in a digital balance and by measuring absorbance in a UV-visible spectrophotometer  
151 (SPECORD250 PLUS, Analytik Jena, Germany), respectively.

$$152 \quad J = \frac{V}{A \cdot \Delta t} \quad (1)$$

$$153 \quad R = \frac{C_f - C_p}{C_f} \quad (2)$$

154 Where,  $A$  ( $m^2$ ) is the effective membrane area,  $V$  ( $m^3$ ) is the volume of permeate,  $\Delta t$  (s) is the  
155 sampling time,  $C_f$  ( $mg \cdot L^{-1}$ ) and  $C_p$  ( $mg \cdot L^{-1}$ ) are the concentrations of oil in feed and permeate,  
156 respectively.

157 After each separation run, the membranes were cleaned using the following protocol. The  
158 membranes were first washed with de-ionized water for 5 min, then with 1 wt. % NaOH solution  
159 for 30 min to remove the oil droplets adhered on the surface and in the porous structure.  
160 Subsequently, the membranes were washed with 1 wt. % HCl solution for 30 min and finally  
161 rinsed with de-ionized water for 5min.

162

### 163 **3. Results and discussion**

#### 164 *3.1. Recycling of wastewater sludge for spinel formation*

165 In order to recycle heavy metals in wastewater sludge in an efficient and safe way, in this  
166 work, nickel oxide (simulated nickel-laden wastewater sludge) and bauxite are considered and  
167 sintered at high temperatures to produce ceramic membrane via the formation of a more stable  
168 spinel phase in ceramic matrix.

169 Formation evolution of the spinel phase is first confirmed by XRD analysis. **Figs. S4a** and  
170 **S4b** illustrate the XRD patterns and quantification of various phase contents of the spinel-based  
171 HFCMs sintered from 900 to 1300 °C for 2 h. There is no nickel aluminate spinel phase formed

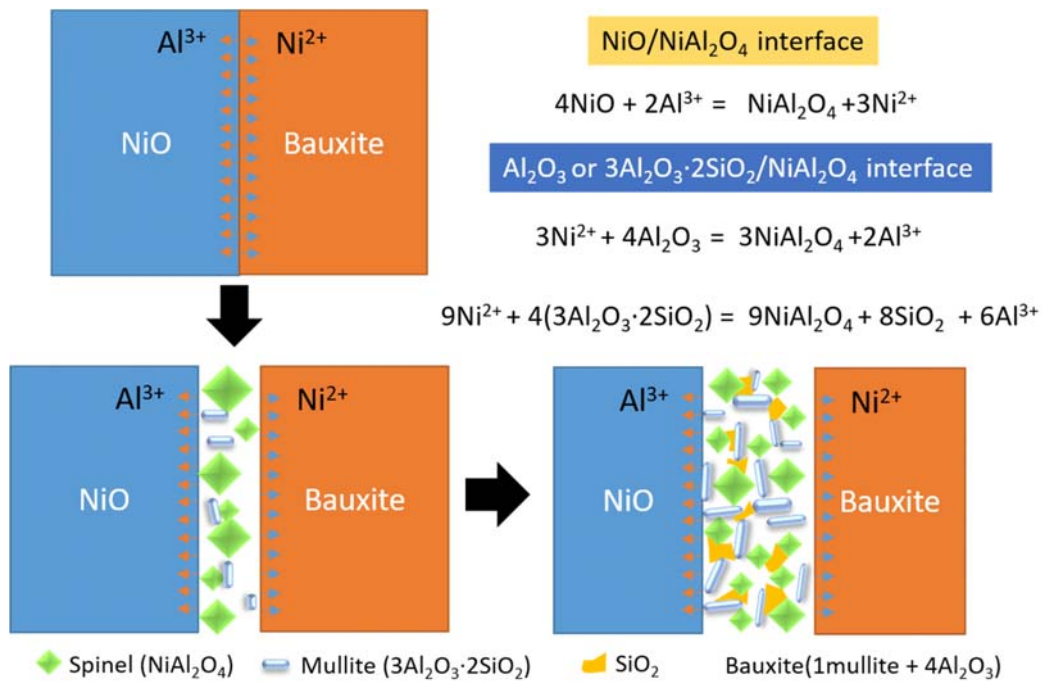
172 in the samples sintered at temperatures below 1000 °C. After sintering at 1050 °C, NiAl<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>  
173 spinel phase can be readily identified in the samples with a content of ~31 wt. % due to the  
174 solid-state reaction between nickel oxide and mullite or corundum. When further increasing the  
175 temperature up to 1100 °C, spinel becomes the dominant phase with a content as high as 88.4  
176 wt. %, which is also indicated by the significantly increased reflection intensity of the spinel  
177 phase from 1050 to 1100 °C (Fig. S4a). Above 1150 °C, only NiAl<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> spinel phase can be  
178 detected at ~100 wt.% content, meaning that nickel oxide fully reacted with corundum and  
179 mullite to effectively and completely realize its thermal conversion and stabilization above this  
180 temperature.

181 Morphology and structure of the individual spinel phase are also readily observed by  
182 electron microscopy characterizations including SEM, EDS, TEM. After 15 wt. % HF solution  
183 etching, both residual rod-like mullite and the formed octahedral NiAl<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> spinel crystals can  
184 be visually observed by SEM (Fig. S4(c)), where the local chemical compositions were further  
185 determined by SEM-EDS analysis (Fig. S4(d)). The molar ratios of Al/Ni and Al/Si in the  
186 detected spinel and mullite crystals are 2.3 and 3.9, which are slightly higher than the theoretical  
187 values of 2 (NiAl<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>) and 3 (3Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>·2SiO<sub>2</sub>) (Table S3), due to the influence of surrounding  
188 substances such as  $\alpha$ -Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> around the EDS-analyzed micro regions. The formation of NiAl<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>  
189 spinel structure was further confirmed by TEM analysis (Fig. S4e), which also shows an  
190 octahedral morphology, as clearly observed in the SEM image (Fig. S4c). An individual grain  
191 was once again identified by the corresponding SAED patterns (Fig. S4f), which can be  
192 exclusively attributed to the NiAl<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> phase, without any indications of residual NiO, which is  
193 in good agreement with the XRD results (Fig. S4a).

194 In acidic aqueous environment, after stabilization with bauxite, the leaching stability of  
195 NiAl<sub>14</sub> and NiAl<sub>12</sub> membranes is much better than that of NiO (Fig. S5). Compared with the  
196 other Ni-based spinel products stabilized using  $\gamma$ -Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> and kaolinite, the as-formed nickel



197 aluminate spinel using bauxite as precursor in this study has excellent acidic stability (a low  
 198 leaching level of 26 mg/L), which is much better (than  $\gamma$ -Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>) or at least comparable (with  
 199 kaolinite) (Fig. S6a). More especially, using bauxite, lower stabilization cost can be realized  
 200 (78% of  $\gamma$ -Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> and 76% of kaolinite) due to lower stabilization temperature (1150 °C) and  
 201 cheaper material cost (Table S4, Fig. S6b). All these characteristics fully indicate that bauxite  
 202 mineral is a promising but cost-effective candidate for nickel thermal conversion.

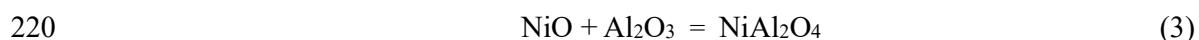


203  
 204 **Fig. 1.** Schematic diagram of thermal conversion reaction mechanism for spinel NiAl<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> formation via  
 205 high temperature reaction between NiO and bauxite mineral.

206        Revealing reaction paths of various phases is important to gain a deeper understanding of  
 207 the thermal conversion mechanism, since minerals and wastes generally have complicated  
 208 phase and chemical compositions. Based on the comprehensive detailed analysis of XRD and  
 209 microscopy characterization (SEM, TEM and EDS), the thermal conversion mechanism of  
 210 spinel NiAl<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> is more clearly understood, as depicted in Fig. 1. The nucleation and subsequent  
 211 growth of NiAl<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> crystals begin from the solid interface between nickel oxide and bauxite  
 212 (both mullite and alumina) as two parent phases, where Ni and Al ions counter-diffused through

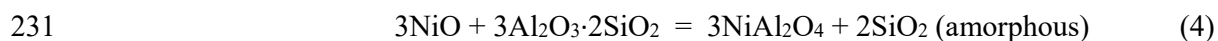
213 spinel lattice to maintain continuous crystal growth. Three distinct stages can be identified for  
214 spinel NiAl<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> formation from NiO and calcined bauxite (with mullite and corundum as  
215 crystalline phases) (Leblud et al., 1981). The first stage occurred between 1000 °C and 1050 °C,  
216 the reaction between NiO and α-Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> (eq 3) was much more favored as compared to that  
217 between NiO and thermally more stable mullite (eq 4), which is further fully evidenced by the  
218 unchanged phase content of mullite with increasing temperature (Fig. S4b).

219 1000-1050 °C



221 The second stage occurred at the temperature window of 1050-1150 °C. As the calcination  
222 temperature was increased to 1050 °C, the solid state reaction between mullite and NiO was  
223 initialized and then the growth rate of spinel increased more rapidly at this stage. Furthermore,  
224 the consumption of NiO for spinel formation sintered at 1050-1150 °C was more significant  
225 than that in the first stage (< 1050°C). This can be attributed to the acceleration of reaction rate  
226 of the two phases at higher temperatures. Also, amorphous silica produced by the reaction of  
227 mullite and NiO became liquid phase at this temperature and thus acted as a flux agent, thereby  
228 significantly facilitating mass transfer and phase reaction (Shih et al., 2006a). Therefore, a  
229 higher reaction rate occurred for corundum and nickel oxide.

230 1050-1150 °C



232 Above 1150 °C (the third stage), a complete transformation of nickel oxide into pure  
233 NiAl<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> structure was accomplished while no residual corundum and mullite phases were found.

234 Chemical compositions of the precursors played an important role on morphology and size  
235 of the produced spinel. Mullite precursor facilitated greater mass transfer rates at high  
236 temperatures, thus resulting in more significant surface diffusion rate and faster reaction rate,  
237 but smaller grain sizes (Fig. S4c). Compared with our previous studies about copper (Li et al.,

238 2015a) and zinc (Li et al., 2015b), heavy metal stabilization with bauxite, the spinel phase  
239 formed in the NiO-bauxite system is more stable and proceeds without the generation or  
240 decomposition of intermediate phases in the reaction process (Table S5). Further discussion of  
241 our results and those with only  $\gamma$ -Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> and kaolinite for stabilization of nickel-laden solid state  
242 wastes (Shih et al., 2006a; Shih et al., 2006b) was given in the Table S5, SI.

243 These above-mentioned results indicate that the method presented in this work appears to  
244 be feasible and promising not only for the highly efficient stabilization of nickel-laden  
245 wastewater sludge into spinel-based ceramic membranes at lower costs, but also disclosing a  
246 possible way to rationally design and prepare low-cost functional ceramic membranes via a  
247 waste-to-resource strategy, the latter will be further discussed in the following sections and SI.

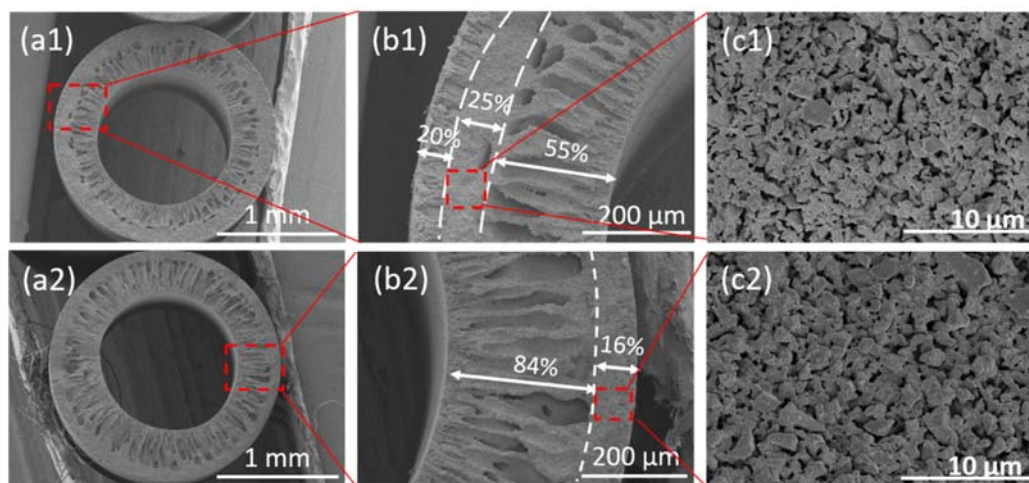
### 248 *3.2. Rational design of spinel-based ceramic membranes*

249 The HFCMs with highly controllable structure morphology consisting of an adjustable  
250 sponge-like region and finger-like macro-voids could be precisely designed and prepared by  
251 the dry-wet spinning technique, which is an efficient way to prepare a highly asymmetric  
252 membrane in one step (Fig. 2) (Wei et al., 2008). To obtain high performance robust ceramic  
253 membranes with ideal structures featuring suitable pore size, high permeability and acceptable  
254 mechanical properties, dry-wet spinning parameters (such as solid state loading, air gap and  
255 external coagulant components) and sintering temperature were comprehensively studied and  
256 discussed in detail (section S3, SI) to obtain optimized structural morphology and properties  
257 for subsequent highly efficient O/W emulsion separation. A higher solid-state loading promoted  
258 the formation of more regular lumen structures in the fibers (Fig. S7). A longer air-gap distance  
259 increased the amount of long inner finger-like macro-voids (Fig. S8). Increasing the content of  
260 ethanol in the external coagulant further significantly promoted the formation of morphology  
261 with longer and larger inner finger-like macro-voids (Fig. S9). Membrane structures featuring  
262 long and large-sized finger-like macro-voids endow high flux with low permeation resistance.

263 Two representative membranes: SS-HFCM (fiber 3) and LFS-HFCM (fiber 7) with typically  
264 different cross-sectional structures are presented for further study.

265 The finger-like macro-voids originate from the inner, or outer or both inner/outer surfaces  
266 while the sponge-like area is formed in the intermediate area or on one side, which provides the  
267 majority of mechanical strength and separation function. By comparing SS-HFCM with LFS-  
268 HFCM, it can be concluded that the composition of external coagulant has a great effect on the  
269 distribution and ratio of sponge-like area and finger-like macro-voids in the cross section of  
270 hollow fiber membrane (Kingsbury and Li, 2009). LFS-HFCM with 60 vol. % ethanol in the  
271 external coagulant has much longer and larger-sized inner finger-like macro-voids (84%) than  
272 SS-HFCM (55%), obtained by using pure water as external coagulant. The sponge-like area of  
273 LFS-HFCM (16%) is thinner than that of SS-HFCM (25%), which significantly reduced the  
274 permeation resistance with the shorter transport path, showing comparable pore size but higher  
275 water flux (Figs. 3a and 3b). The average pore size of LFS-HFCM (0.35  $\mu\text{m}$ ) is very slightly  
276 smaller than or comparable with that of SS-HFCM (0.36  $\mu\text{m}$ ) (Fig. 3a), which are in the  
277 microfiltration category. However, the pure water flux (Fig. 3b) of LFS-HFCM is almost two  
278 times higher than that of SS-HFCM at all cross-flow velocities. This can be attributed to the  
279 highly asymmetric structure of LFS-HFCM membrane with a very high finger-like/sponge-like  
280 ratio of  $\sim 5.25$  ( $\sim 3$  for SS-HFCM), which significantly reduced the water permeation path with  
281 lower mass transport resistance. Similar results were reported by Zhang (Zhang et al., 2010)  
282 where YSZ (yttria-stabilized zirconia) hollow fiber membranes with long finger-like macro-  
283 voids were fabricated by the dry-wet spinning method using ethanol as an external coagulant.  
284 The surface porosities of LFS-HFCM are always higher than those of SS-HFCM at all sintering  
285 temperatures, whereas lower but acceptable bending strengths of LFS-HFCM are observed than  
286 those of SS-HFCM except for 1300  $^{\circ}\text{C}$ . After sintering at 1250  $^{\circ}\text{C}$ , besides high water flux,  
287 LFS-HFCM has a high surface porosity of  $50.92 \pm 3.2$  %, and sufficient mechanical strength

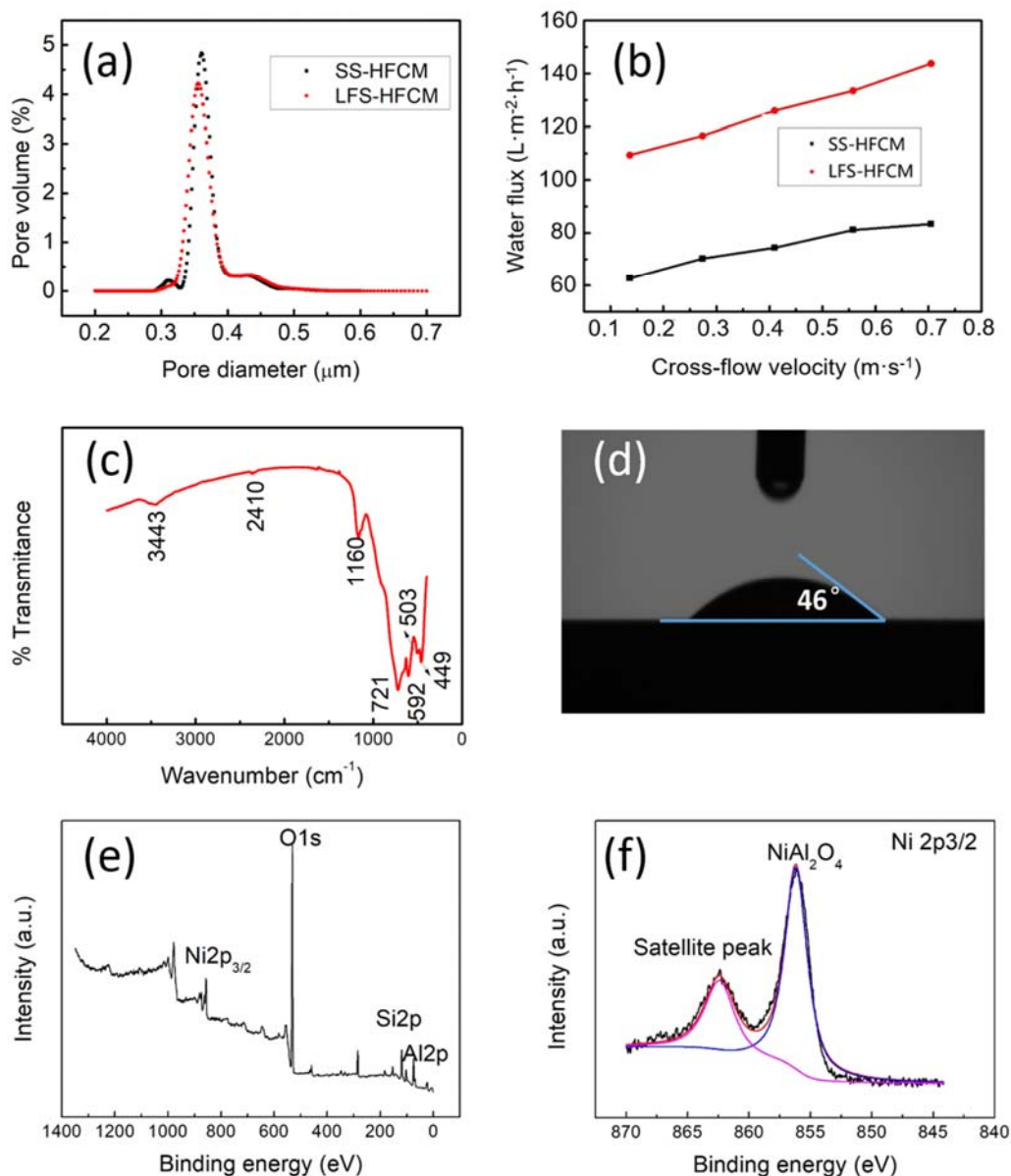
288 (35.64 ± 6.31 MPa) for separation applications (Fig. S11).



289

290 **Fig. 2.** Cross sectional SEM images of HFCMs with different magnifications, sintered at 1250 °C for 2  
291 h: SS-HFCM (a1-c1) and LFS-HFCM (a2-c2). SS-HFCM and LFS-HFCM were prepared with pure  
292 water and 60 vol. % ethanol and 40 vol. % water mixture as external coagulant at a fixed air-gap distance  
293 of 15 cm, bore fluid flow rate of 20 mL·min<sup>-1</sup> and solid state loading of 60 wt. %, respectively.

294 Understanding the surface property of ceramic membranes is important for O/W emulsion  
295 separations. Metal oxides with abundant MeO-H (Me=Ni, Al, Si, Ti etc.) groups are considered  
296 to be all hydrophilic due to chemisorption or hydrogen-bond interactions between MeO-H  
297 group and water molecules (Lu et al., 2016). The water contact angle of LFS-HFCM is 46°,  
298 which indicates that the spinel-based HFCMs are very hydrophilic due to the inherent surface  
299 Ni-OH and Al-OH groups (Fig. 3d). The surface metal-hydroxyl groups are further confirmed  
300 by FT-IR with a characteristic IR stretching vibration at 2410 cm<sup>-1</sup> (Fig. 3c). Thus, during water  
301 treatment, metal hydroxyl groups on the membrane surface readily bond with a monolayer of  
302 water molecules. This hydrophilic (oleophobic) membrane surface characteristic is very  
303 beneficial for the treatment of O/W emulsions due to the low membrane fouling propensity of  
304 oil droplets (Obaid et al., 2017).



305

306 **Fig. 3.** Pore size distribution (a) and pure water flux (b) of SS-HFCM and LFS-HFCM sintered at  
 307 1250 °C for 2 h, (c) FT-IR spectra, (d) water contact angle, (e) XPS survey Al K $\alpha$  photoelectron spectrum  
 308 and (f) XPS Ni<sub>2p<sub>3/2</sub></sub> spectrum of LFS-HFCM sintered at 1250 °C for 2 h.

309 **Figs. 3e** and **3f** give the XPS survey spectra of LFS-HFCM and the corresponding binding  
 310 energies (BEs) of the Ni 2p<sub>3/2</sub> level. The Ni 2p<sub>3/2</sub> primary peak is positioned within a BE range  
 311 of 856.0–856.5 eV and a satellite peak at 862.4–862.8 eV (Zhang et al., 2017). It is noted that  
 312 the BE of Ni 2p<sub>3/2</sub> in pure NiO is ~854.5 eV (Guo et al., 2004), while for NiAl<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> spinel the

313 BE of Ni 2p<sub>3/2</sub> appears at ~856.1 eV. Again, this illustrates that Ni<sup>2+</sup> ions were completely  
314 chemically incorporated into the spinel lattice to achieve heavy metal stabilization during the  
315 high temperature sintering of ceramic membranes, as proven in the XRD patterns of Fig. S4a.  
316 The other XPS spectra such as O 1s, Al 2p and Si 2p are shown in Fig. S12. The O1s spectrum  
317 shows the presence of four different oxygen species. In addition to bulk oxygen in crystal  
318 structures of ceramic membranes (spinel and mullite), the surface of LFS-HFCM contains  
319 hydroxyl groups (9.93%) with an O1s binding energy of 532.1 eV, which is consistent with FT-  
320 IR results, further confirming the inherent hydrophilic characteristic of the prepared ceramic  
321 membranes.

### 322 3.3. Separation performance and membrane fouling mechanism

#### 323 3.3.1. Effect of cross-flow velocity on permeate flux and oil rejection

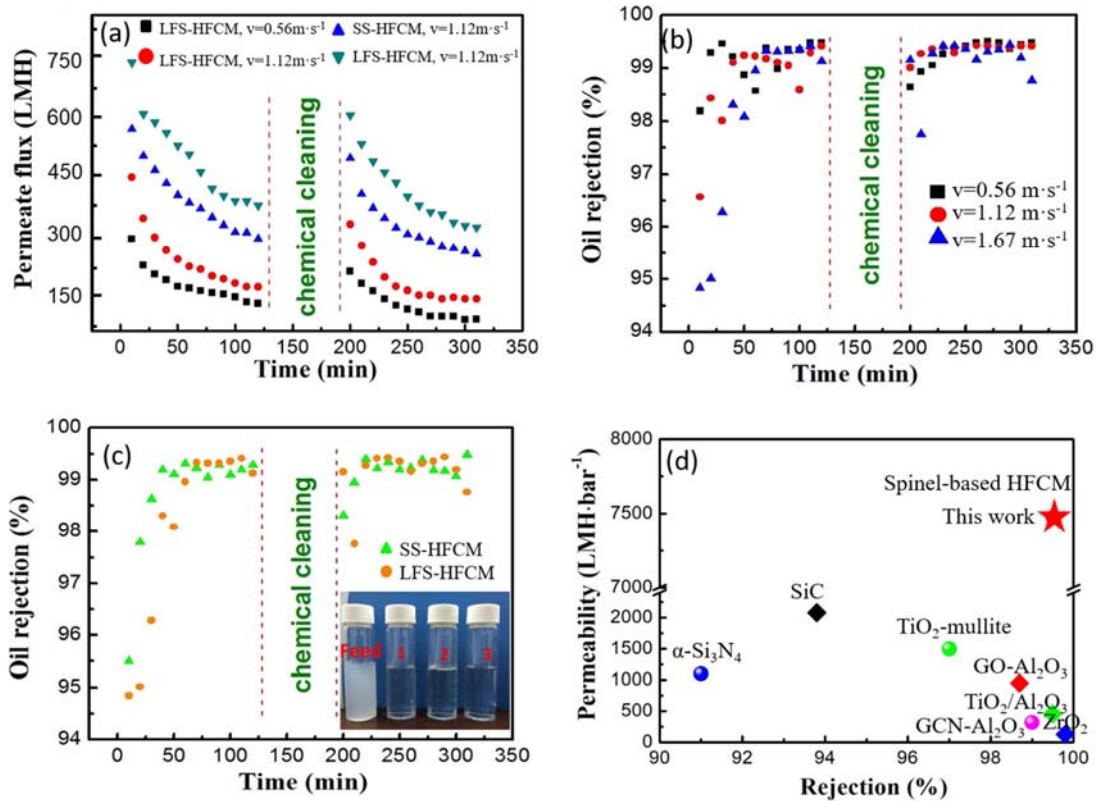
324 In general, the attachment strength between hydrophobic organic compounds (such as oil  
325 droplets) and membrane surface is determined largely by their surface structure characteristic  
326 (Prince et al., 2016). Because of the hydrophilicity (WCA = 46°) of the spinel-based ceramic  
327 membrane surface, water molecules transit through the membrane surface and then enter into  
328 the pores more readily than hydrophobic oil droplets (Li and Elimelech, 2004). O/W emulsion  
329 separation experiments with a feed containing 500 mg·L<sup>-1</sup> machine oil, using SS-HFCM and  
330 LFS-HFCM, demonstrated different flux and oil rejection behavior (Fig. 4). Both fiber  
331 membranes experience a rapid permeate flux decline during the first 10 min, which could be  
332 attributed to the initial formation of a fouling layer at the membrane surface (Ahmad et al., 2005;  
333 Chen et al., 2016). Then, the permeate flux declines more gradually before reaching a steady  
334 value after about 100 min, indicating a stable dynamic oil layer was formed. Flux declines are  
335 the result of increasing fouling resistance, caused by the formation of a dynamic oil layer and  
336 concentration polarization on the membrane surface, and pore blocking within the porous  
337 ceramic structure (Vasanth et al., 2013). After a certain filtration time, the thickness of oil layer



338 did not increase further due to the hydrodynamic action of cross-flow and consequently the flux  
339 was stable thereafter. An increase in cross-flow velocity enhances permeate flux dramatically  
340 during the separation process (Fig. 4a), while a lower oil rejection is observed during the first  
341 50 min (Fig. 4b). The initial permeate flux for LFS-HFCM increases from 316 to 747 LMH  
342 with an increase in cross-flow velocity from 0.56 to 1.67 m·s<sup>-1</sup>. Higher cross-flow velocities  
343 increase turbulence and mass transfer coefficient inside the membrane tube, consequently  
344 mitigating concentration polarization on the ceramic membrane surface. Moreover, increasing  
345 cross-flow velocity contributes to an increase in the shear force of the feed fluid, thus  
346 significantly inhibiting the accumulation of oil droplets on the membrane surface and further  
347 diminishing the thickness of the oil fouling layer, which acts as an additional barrier to reject  
348 oil droplets (Kumar et al., 2015). In the whole separation run, the flux of LFS-HFCM is always  
349 higher than that of SS-HFCM (Fig. 4a), due to its more permeable structure consisting of a  
350 thinner sponge-like region and longer finger-like macro-voids, which reduce permeation  
351 resistance significantly (as clearly observed in Fig. 2b2) (Zhang et al., 2010). LFS-HFCM  
352 maintains a slightly decreased, but still high stable oil rejection of ~99.51% after 50 min when  
353 a stable oil cake layer is steadily formed (Fig. 4c). The higher rejection of SS-HFCM is ascribed  
354 to its thicker sponge-like separation layer, resulting in a longer permeation path and a higher  
355 adsorption of oil droplets inside the membrane pores at the beginning of the filtration process.  
356 Thus, LFS-HFCM shows better O/W separation performance than SS-HFCM in terms of  
357 permeate flux owing to its superior microstructure morphology. After filtration by LFS-HFCM  
358 at a cross-flow velocity of 1.67 m·s<sup>-1</sup>, the permeate becomes visually cleaner with very low  
359 turbidity (like pure water), as compared to the feed (Fig. 4c). In order to mitigate membrane  
360 fouling for flux recovery, unlike polymeric membranes, a simple chemical cleaning method (1  
361 wt. % NaOH and 1 wt. % HCl) was applied on the more robust ceramic membrane for flux  
362 regeneration. After cleaning, the flux at different cross-flow velocities were recovered



363 efficiently. The recovery rate of flux for LFS-HFCM at a cross-flow velocity of  $1.67 \text{ m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$  was  
 364 as high as  $\sim 90\%$  of original flux.



365  
 366 **Fig. 4.** Spinel-based HFCMs for O/W emulsion separation, (a) Time-dependent permeate fluxes before  
 367 and after chemical cleaning for SS-HFCM and LFS-HFCM sintered at  $1250 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$  at different cross-flow  
 368 velocities ranging from  $0.56$  to  $1.67 \text{ m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ , (b) variation of oil rejection for LFS-HFCM at different cross-  
 369 flow velocities ranging from  $0.56$  to  $1.67 \text{ m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ , (c) comparison of oil rejection between SS-HFCM and  
 370 LFS-HFCM at a cross-flow velocity of  $1.67 \text{ m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ , and the inserted photos of feed and permeates after  
 371 filtration by LFS-HFCM at a cross-flow velocity of  $1.67 \text{ m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ : (1) first time filtration, (2) second time  
 372 filtration after membrane regeneration and (3) tap water and (d) comparison of permeability and oil  
 373 rejection between the existing state-of-the-art ceramic membranes reported in the literature and high  
 374 flux spinel based ceramic membranes fabricated in this work.

375 Besides possessing excellent rejection, the LFS-HFCMs prepared in this work have a much  
 376 higher flux than inorganic ceramic membranes described in the literature (Fig. 4d and Table 1).

377 Although they have very high oil rejection all above 91%, the flux of the LFS-HFCMs in our  
 378 work is ~5, ~3.6, ~6, ~7.8 and ~85 times higher than those of TiO<sub>2</sub>-mullite, SiC, α-Si<sub>3</sub>N<sub>4</sub>, GO-  
 379 Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> and ZrO<sub>2</sub>, respectively. The LFS-HFCMs in our work have a highly asymmetrical  
 380 structure consisting of very thin sponge-like layer (16%) and long finger-like macro-voids (84%)  
 381 with a total membrane thickness of only 0.38 mm (Fig. 3b2). Such a rationally designed  
 382 membrane structure could significantly reduce permeation resistance with much shorter liquid  
 383 transport path, endowing much higher permeation flux while still maintaining high rejection.

384 **Table 1**

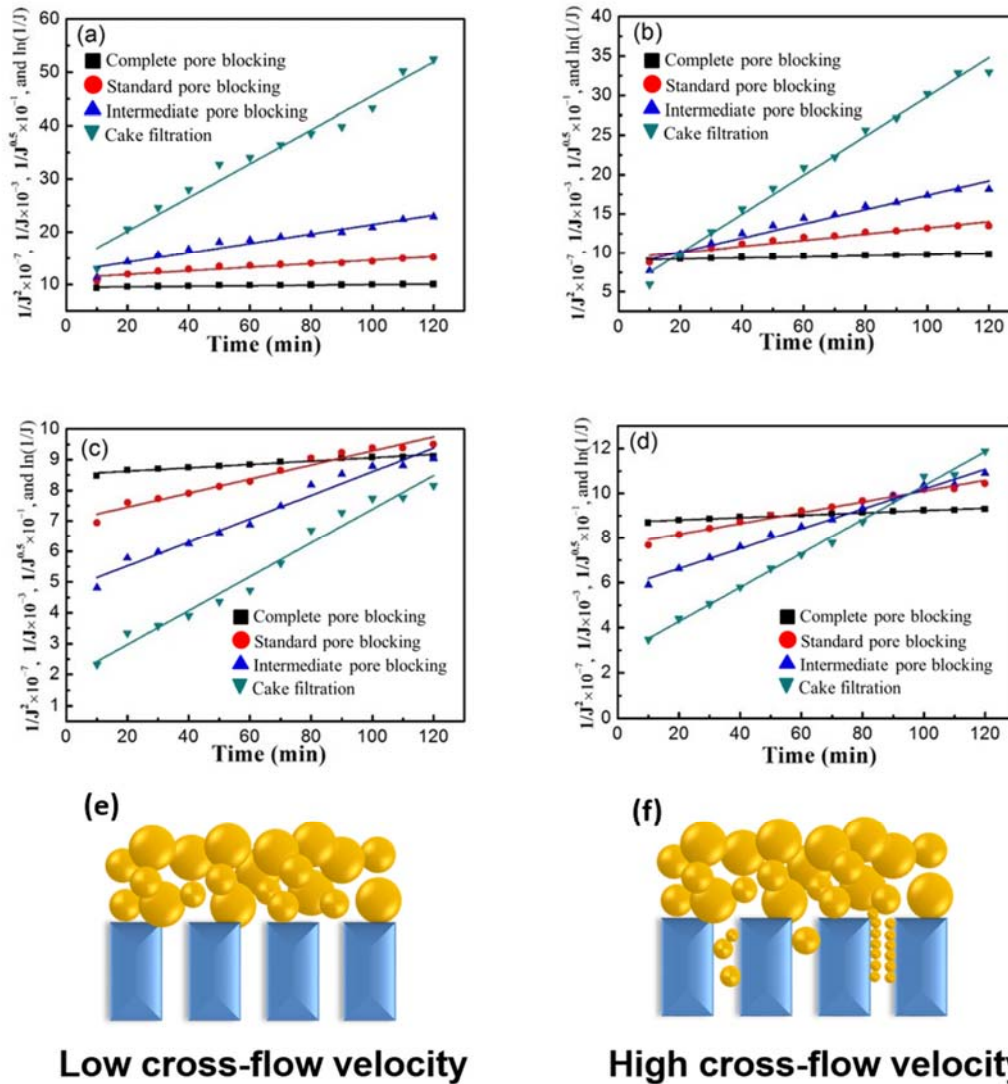
385 Performance comparison of HFCMs with those reported in the literature for O/W emulsion  
 386 wastewater treatment.

| Membrane material                                | Mean pore size (μm) | Configuration | C <sub>f</sub> (mg·L <sup>-1</sup> ) | CFV (m·s <sup>-1</sup> ) | TMP (bar) | Normalized flux (LMH·bar <sup>-1</sup> ) | R <sub>d</sub> (%) | Refs no.                |
|--|---------------------|---------------|--------------------------------------|--------------------------|-----------|--|--------------------|-------------------------|
| Spinel-based membranes                           | 0.36                | Hollow fiber  | 500                                  | 1.67                     | 0.1       | 7473                                     | 99.5               | This work               |
| TiO <sub>2</sub> -mullite                        | 0.11                | Hollow fiber  | 200                                  | 0.15                     | 0.025     | 1497                                     | 97 <sub>TOC</sub>  | (Zhu et al. 2016)       |
| α-Si <sub>3</sub> N <sub>4</sub>                 | 0.68                | Hollow fiber  | 1000                                 | 0.03                     | 1         | 1100                                     | 91                 | (Abadikhah et al. 2018) |
| GCN-Al <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>               | 0.26                | Hollow fiber  | 1000                                 | ~                        | 2         | 320                                      | 99                 | (Alias et al. 2018)     |
| SiC  | 0.27                | Tubular       | 4800                                 | 0.5                      | 1.5       | 2081                                     | 93.8               | (Fraga et al. 2017)     |
| GO-Al <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>                | 0.2                 | Tubular       | 1000                                 | 5 <sup>a</sup>           | 1         | 950                                      | 98.7               | (Hu et al. 2015)        |
| TiO <sub>2</sub> /Al <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub> | 0.2                 | Tubular       | 4000                                 | 5                        | 0.24      | 460                                      | 99.5               | (Chang et al. 2014)     |

387  $C_f$  = oil concentration in the feed, CFV = cross flow velocity, TMP = trans-membrane pressure,  $R_d$  = oil

388 rejection coefficient, GCN – graphitic carbon nitride, GO – graphene oxide,  $a - m^3 \cdot h^{-1}$ .

389 3.3.2. Membrane fouling mechanism



390

391 **Fig. 5.** Plots of flux functions vs time for four different pore blocking models at a fixed trans-membrane  
 392 pressure of 0.1 bar: (a) LFS-HFCM at a cross-flow velocity of 0.56 m·s<sup>-1</sup>, (b) LFS-HFCM at a cross-  
 393 flow velocity of 1.12 m·s<sup>-1</sup>, (c) LFS-HFCM at a cross-flow velocity of 1.67 m·s<sup>-1</sup>, and (d) SS-HFCM at  
 394 a cross-flow velocity of 1.67 m·s<sup>-1</sup>, and fouling mechanism at low cross-flow and high cross-flow

395 velocities for O/W emulsion separation: (e) cake formation and (f) cake formation and pore blocking.

396 **Fig. 5** presents the correlations of different pore blocking models for SS-HFCM and LFS-  
397 HFCM at various cross-flow velocities (0.56, 1.12, 1.67 m·s<sup>-1</sup>) with a constant applied pressure  
398 of 0.1 bar. The cake filtration model offers the best fit as compared with other models for LFS-  
399 HFCM at two low cross-flow velocities (0.56, 1.12 m·s<sup>-1</sup>). This is also supported by the  
400 parameters of four filtration models, such as correlation coefficients (R<sup>2</sup>), slope and initial flux  
401 values summarized in **Table S6**. Correlation coefficients (R<sup>2</sup>) values for the cake filtration model  
402 is the highest value among those for other models, indicating that this model appears to be the  
403 best fit in this work for predicting the fouling mechanism of O/W emulsion separation. Similar  
404 results have been reported by Kumar et al. (Kumar et al., 2015), who also point out that the best  
405 fouling model for oily wastewater microfiltration by tubular ceramic membrane is the cake  
406 filtration model. When cross-flow velocity increases up to 1.67 m·s<sup>-1</sup>, R<sup>2</sup> values of four models  
407 are much closer, especially for SS-HFCM, indicating that pore blocking is partially responsible  
408 for flux decline at higher cross-flow velocities. It is believed that at higher cross-flow velocities,  
409 the membrane fouling can be explained better with a combined model (pore blocking and cake  
410 filtration mechanism) (Corbatón-Báguena et al., 2015; Rezaei et al., 2011; Yazdanshenas et al.,  
411 2010). To explain this phenomenon in a better way, we also have calculated Reynolds number  
412 (Re) at different cross-flow velocities (**Table S7**). As can be seen from **Table S7**, Re value  
413 increases with cross-flow velocities. Larger the Re, higher the shear stress. Accordingly,  
414 increasing cross-flow velocity resulted in an increase of mass transfer coefficient, decreasing  
415 mass boundary layer. At cross-flow velocities of 0.56 and 1.12 m·s<sup>-1</sup>, the laminar flow model  
416 dominated in the hollow fiber. Thus the mass boundary layer was still very thick and a cake  
417 layer was easily formed on the membrane surface. At a higher cross-flow velocity (1.67 m·s<sup>-1</sup>),  
418 the flow model was in a transition state between laminar and turbulent, where the thickness of  
419 boundary layer decreased significantly but still existed on the membrane surface. Rezaei et al.

420 (Rezaei et al., 2011) also found that there was a more significant reduction of cake resistance  
421 with Reynolds numbers higher than 1750. On the other hand, the permeate flux increased at  
422 higher cross-flow velocity as the boundary layer became thinner, which resulted in a higher  
423 permeate drag force imparted on oil droplets and consequently caused the deformation and  
424 squeeze of oil droplets across the membrane pores (Tummons et al., 2017). Kirschner et al.  
425 found that when the permeate flux approached and passed a threshold flux, a model combining  
426 pore blocking and cake filtration appeared to give the best agreement with experimental data  
427 (Kirschner et al., 2019). This phenomenon was also confirmed in a study with SEM images  
428 where the blockage of top layer and formation of cake layer above it were both observed  
429 (Yazdanshenas et al., 2010). This can also explain the more rapid decline rate of flux and  
430 decrease in oil rejection, as observed at the early stages of filtration at a cross flow rate of 1.67  
431  $\text{m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$  for SS-HFCM and LFS-HFCM in Fig. 4.

### 432 3.3.3. Cost and environment risk assessment

433 By using bauxite, besides lower stabilization cost than alumina and kaolinite (Fig. S6), our  
434 work also demonstrated that a lower cost for membrane fabrication can be achieved compared  
435 with other membrane materials such as alumina and zirconia (Fig. S14). This indicates that the  
436 use of bauxite and heavy-metal-laden wastes is a promising strategy not only for a more  
437 economic and safe heavy-metal stabilization, but lower fabrication cost for membranes, which  
438 have outstanding flux and rejection performance for water treatment.

439 Although spinel has previously been used as a porous membrane for microfiltration and  
440 ultrafiltration (Fung and Wang, 2014; Pflanz et al., 1992), considering the presence of metal  
441 ions such as Al, Ni, Ca and Fe in the starting materials for membrane preparation, in order to  
442 fully assess any possible environmental risk of the prepared spinel-based HFCMs in wastewater  
443 treatment, the concentration of some key metal ions in the permeate was measured (Table S8).  
444 Only very low levels of these metal ions were detected, consistently meeting the drinking water

445 criteria issued by World Health Organization (Guidelines for drinking-water quality fourth  
446 edition, WHO, 2011). The very low levels of these metal ions present in the permeate are  
447 attributable to the stabilization of major component metal ions such as Ni and Al into the spinel  
448 crystalline lattice during the ceramic membrane sintering process, along with stabilization of  
449 trace amounts of other metal ions such as Ca, Fe and Mg via solid dissolution. Therefore, the  
450 spinel-based HFCMs prepared by the waste-to-resource method for recycling of heavy metal-  
451 laden solid-state wastes are considered as promising membranes for water treatment from the  
452 viewpoints of environment, economic, safety and performance.

453

#### 454 **4. Conclusions**

455 In this work, a new waste-to-resource conceptual design strategy for the development of  
456 cost-effective and high performance robust functional ceramic membranes is presented for not  
457 only recycling of wastewater sludge but for the treatment of oil-in-water emulsion wastewater.  
458 Besides highly efficient and safe stabilization of heavy metal into ceramic lattice via high  
459 temperature sintering, functional ceramic membranes were further structurally designed as  
460 stabilized products with excellent oil-in-water separation performance. Two representative  
461 membranes: SS-HFCM (fiber 3) and LFS-HFCM (fiber 7) with typically different cross-  
462 sectional structures were compared for O/W emulsion separation. LFS-HFCM had a much  
463 higher flux than SS-HFCM due to the highly asymmetric structure with a super-high finger-  
464 like/sponge-like ratio of  $\sim 5.25$ . The pore blocking model was used to analyze the membrane  
465 fouling mechanism. The results indicate that dynamic oil layer formation was the main reason  
466 for fouling at low cross-flow velocities, while a combined model of oil layer formation and pore  
467 blocking dominated fouling at high cross-flow velocities. Furthermore, compared with existing  
468 state-of-the-art ceramic membranes, the prepared membranes with microfiltration function had  
469 better performance but a lower cost, which not only can be directly extended to other separation

470 applications such as the effective removal of bacteria, virus and suspended fine solids from  
471 various wastewater streams after further optimization of membrane structure and performance,  
472 but also can be considered as robust supports for further fabricating both catalytic membrane  
473 reactors and finer-pore separation membranes such as ultrafiltration and nanofiltration  
474 membranes for water purification, desalination and even gas separation etc.. Therefore, this  
475 method puts forward a new direction for safe and high-value added recycling of heavy metal-  
476 laden sludges and shows a promising strategy for treating liquid waste by solid-state waste,  
477 achieving dual environmental and economic benefits.

478

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488

489

#### 490 **Appendix A. Supplementary data**

491 Supplementary data related to this article can be found in the Supporting Information

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