

1 **Flexible Superhydrophobic Metal-based Carbon Nanotube**
2 **Membrane for Electrochemically Enhanced Water**
3 **Treatment**

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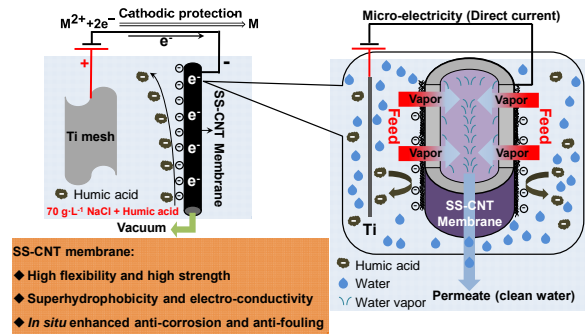
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27 **ABSTRACT**

28 Treatment of highly saline wastewaters via conventional technology is a key
29 challenging issue, which calls for efficient desalination membranes featuring high flux
30 and rejection, low fouling and excellent stability. Herein, we report a high-strength and
31 flexible electro-conductive stainless steel-carbon nanotube (SS-CNT) membrane,
32 exhibiting significantly enhanced anti-corrosion and anti-fouling ability via a micro-
33 electrical field-coupling strategy during membrane distillation. The membrane
34 substrates exhibited excellent mechanical strength (244.2 ± 9.8 MPa) and ductility,
35 thereby overcoming the critical bottleneck of brittleness of traditional inorganic
36 membranes. By employing a simple surface activation followed by self-catalyzed
37 chemical vapor deposition, CNT was grown *in situ* on SS substrates via a tip-growth
38 mechanism to finally form robust superhydrophobic SS-CNT membrane. To address the
39 challenging issues of significant corrosion and fouling, by using a negative polarization
40 micro-electrical field-coupling strategy, simultaneously enhanced anti-fouling and anti-
41 corrosion performance was realized for treatment of organic high salinity waters while
42 exhibiting stable high flux and rejection via an electrostatic repulsion and electron
43 supply mechanism. This application-oriented rational design protocol can be potentially
44 used to extend toward high performance composite membranes derived from other
45 electro-conductive metal substrates functionally decorated with CNT network and to
46 other applications in water treatment.

47 INTRODUCTION

48 Membrane-based desalination is an effective way to mitigate the global challenge of
49 water scarcity by purifying unconventional sources such as seawater, brackish water, or
50 wastewaters to augment fresh water supplies.¹⁻³ Recently, membrane distillation (MD)
51 has been broadly explored as a competitive emerging technology against other
52 conventional methods such as reverse osmosis or electrodialysis, especially for
53 challenging desalination applications.^{4,5} MD offers promising advantages, such as
54 excellent separation efficiency, excellent tolerance to high salinity, ultra-high salt
55 enrichment and potential opportunities for resource and energy extraction.⁶⁻⁸ By using
56 low-grade waste heat or emerging heat resources such as solar and joule heating,⁹⁻¹¹
57 MD can be highly attractive in terms of lower energy cost, particularly for more
58 challenging feedwaters (e.g., high salinity brines).

59 Existing MD membranes generally involve hydrophobic polymeric membranes and
60 hydrophobically-modified inorganic membranes,¹²⁻¹⁴ where surface hydrophobicity is
61 effectively imparted via organic material-based surface grafting. Nevertheless, these
62 two membrane types usually suffer from insufficient long-term stability, leading to
63 undesirable issues such as wetting, fouling, and loss of flux and rejection under harsh
64 operating environments.¹⁵⁻¹⁷ In recent years, some efforts have been made to focus on
65 developing advanced polymer-based membranes with novel inorganic nanomaterials
66 such as silicon dioxide (SiO₂) or ZnO, which effectively enhanced mechanical
67 properties and surface hydrophobicity to fulfill the potentials of MD process.^{18,19}
68 Although inorganic ceramic membranes can offer outstanding thermal and chemical

69 stabilities in harsh desalination applications,²⁰⁻²³ their brittleness and poor
70 processability greatly limit their practical applications. Beyond conventional MD
71 application, high-strength MD membranes have a great potential especially in novel
72 high-pressure MD processes such as thermal osmosis energy conversion process and
73 PRO-MD coupled process.^{9,24} In contrast, metal-based membranes, e.g., made from
74 stainless steel (SS) powders, are mechanically stronger and more flexible, which makes
75 them ideal candidates to fully address these mechanical issues.^{25,26} Nevertheless, SS
76 membranes can be prone to membrane fouling and corrosion, which needs to be
77 systematically addressed to allow their wide-spectrum applications.^{25,27} In addition,
78 more cost-effective rational design strategies for preparing superhydrophobic SS
79 membranes need to be further developed.

80 Herein, we report a mechanically strong and flexible superhydrophobic SS-metal-
81 based carbon nanotube membrane featuring promising anti-fouling and anti-corrosion
82 functions for electrochemically enhanced water treatment. A novel method is proposed
83 to prepare a superhydrophobic SS hollow fiber (SSHF) membrane through *in situ*
84 growth of carbon nanotubes (CNTs). By taking advantage of self-catalysis by SS during
85 chemical vapor deposition (CVD), we prepared a superhydrophobic network layer of
86 CNT using a simple surface activation, obviating the need for external catalyst addition
87 (Figure S1). The resulting membrane was robust, mechanically stronger and flexible.
88 We further take advantage of the high electro-conductivity of both SS and CNT to
89 simultaneously enhance anti-fouling and anti-corrosion performance for treating high
90 salinity waters containing organic foulant (humic acid). Specifically, in this novel

91 protocol, we demonstrate that the application of a negative polarization micro-electric
92 field is able to maintain stable high flux and solute rejection. Our study offers a simple,
93 yet highly effective approach for rational design of stable and high-performance
94 desalination membranes, featuring multi-functionality under electrochemically *in situ*
95 enhanced membrane separation process.

96

97 **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

98 **Materials.** 316L stainless steel powder (SS, $D_{50} = 10.5 \mu\text{m}$ (Figure S2), Antai
99 Technology Co., Ltd., USA), polyethersulfone (PES, Bei-Shi-De Synthetic Plastics
100 Company, China) and N-methyl-2-pyrrolidone (NMP, Sinopharm Chemical Reagent
101 Co., Ltd., China) were used as raw material, polymeric binder and solvent, respectively
102 to form a suspension. Polyvinylpyrrolidone (PVP, Sinopharm Chemical Reagent Co.,
103 Ltd., China) was then used to enhance the viscosity of the suspension.^{28,29} The SS powder
104 and PES were fully dried at 60 °C for 48 h, while all other chemicals were used without
105 further treatment. All the gases (ethylene, hydrogen and nitrogen, purity $\geq 99.999\%$)
106 were purchased from Dalian Guanghui Gas Co., Ltd, China.

107 **Preparation of SS-CNT membrane.** A dry-wetting spinning technique involving
108 immersion-induced phase inversion and dry-sintering process was applied to prepare
109 SSHF membrane substrates (Supporting Information S2).^{30,31}

110 The SSHF membrane substrates were soaked in water and then oxidized at 60 °C for
111 more than 48 h in order to destroy their surface passive layers. Subsequently, *in situ*
112 reduction was carried out at 700 °C for 70 min in H_2 at a flow rate of $40 \text{ mL} \cdot \text{min}^{-1}$ to

113 activate surface metal catalysis. A mixture of hydrogen and ethylene gases at a flow
114 rate of $40 \text{ mL}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$ was used during CVD, where the final reaction temperature was
115 fixed at $700 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ for 1 h, leading to *in situ* growth of CNT on/inside SS substrates, to
116 form SS-CNT membranes. After CVD reaction, hydrogen gas at a flow rate of 20
117 $\text{mL}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$ was used to cool the reactor to room temperature ($25 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$).

118 **Membrane Characterization.** Electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) of
119 SSHF membrane substrate was performed in an electrochemical workstation
120 (CHI660D, Shanghai Chenhua Company, China). The microstructure and surface
121 morphology of the membranes were observed using a scanning electron microscope
122 (SEM, QUANTA 450, American FEI Company, USA) equipped with energy dispersive
123 spectrometer (EDS) analysis. Static water contact angle measurements were determined
124 using an optical contact angle and interface tension meter (KINO SL 200KB, Corona
125 Inc., USA). The crystal phases were characterized through an X-ray diffraction device
126 (XRD, D/Max 2400, Japanese Institute of Neo-Confucianism) with a $\text{Cu K}\alpha$ radiation
127 source in the 2θ range of $5\text{--}80^\circ$. Surface chemical characterization was carried out by
128 X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS, ESCALAB XI+, Thermo Company, Britain).
129 The structure of CNTs was observed by high-resolution transmission electron
130 microscope (HRTEM, JEOL 2010, Japan) at an accelerating voltage of 200 kV. The
131 iron ion contents per unit membrane area were measured for the oxidized SS-CNT
132 membrane surfaces under different voltages (+2 V, 0 V, -2 V) after 6 h operation by
133 Inductively Coupled Plasma (ICP, Optima2000DV, Perkin Elmer Enterprise
134 Management Co., Ltd, USA). Other characterization techniques, such as mechanical

135 strength, nitrogen performance, and pure water flux of SSHF membrane substrate are
136 described in [Supporting Information S2.2](#).

137 **Membrane distillation performance tests.** The vacuum membrane distillation
138 (VMD) performance was evaluated in a laboratory-made VMD cross-flow test unit
139 using simulated seawater (35 g·L⁻¹ NaCl), high salinity water (70 g·L⁻¹ NaCl), or high
140 salinity water with organics (70 g·L⁻¹ NaCl and 30 mg·L⁻¹ humic acid) as the feed
141 solutions. Feed solutions were maintained at 75 °C and were circulated using a
142 peristaltic pump (60 rpm), while the permeate vapor was condensed via an ice-water
143 bath (0 °C) under vacuum (-0.03 MPa). The mass and conductivity of permeate water
144 were measured at a time interval of 1 h. The permeate flux (J , L·m⁻²·h⁻¹) of produced
145 water, and the salt rejection (R) can be calculated by the following equations:¹⁷

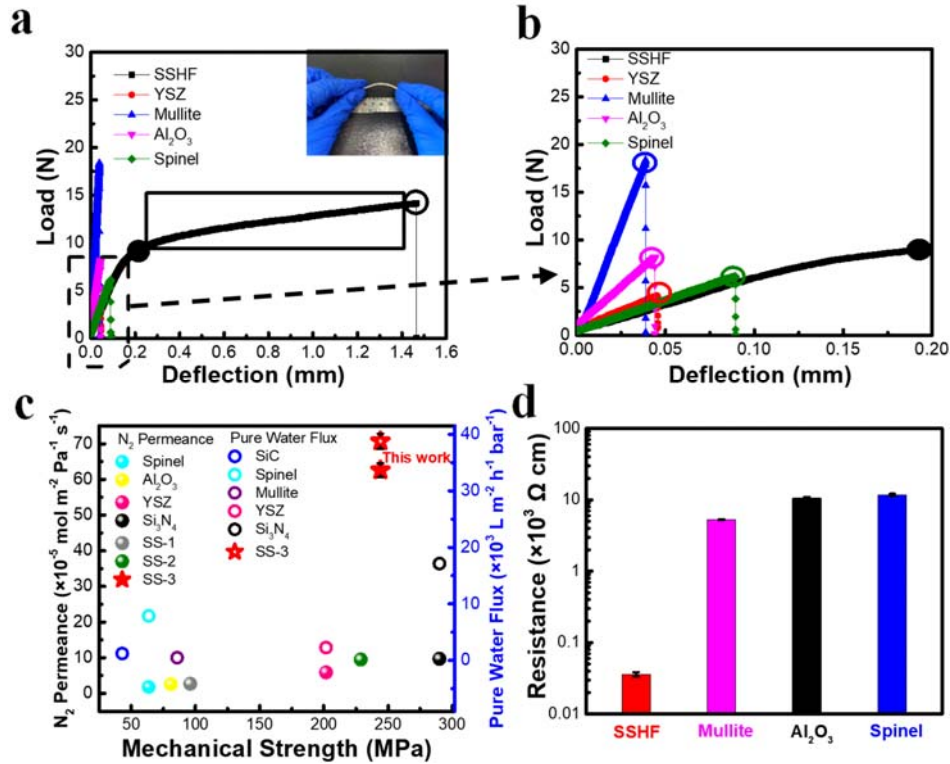
$$146 \quad J = \frac{\Delta m}{A \cdot \rho \cdot \Delta t} \quad (1)$$

$$147 \quad R = \left(1 - \frac{C_p}{C_f}\right) \times 100\% \quad (2)$$

148 where Δm (kg) is the weight of the permeate solution at a given time Δt (h), A (m²) is
149 the effective area of the membrane, and ρ is the water density (0.9982 kg·L⁻¹, 20 °C).
150 C_f and C_p are the conductivities (mS·cm⁻¹) of the feed and permeate solutions,
151 respectively.

152 **RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

153 **Mechanical and Electrical Properties of Substrates**



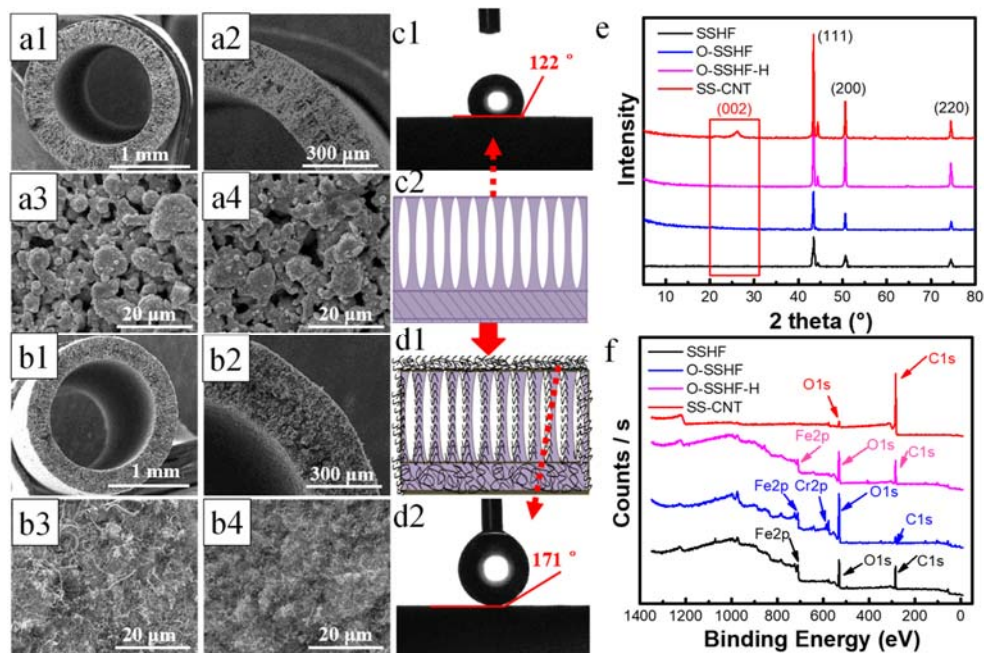
154
 155 **Figure 1.** (a, b) Comparisons of bending fracture behavior between SSHF membrane substrates and
 156 ceramic membranes (Dashed line box: elastic deformation zone; solid line box: plastic deformation
 157 zone; solid circle: yield point; hollow circle: breaking point.). (c) Comparison in nitrogen (N₂)
 158 permeance (solid circle), pure water flux (hollow circle) with mechanical strength between SS
 159 membrane substrates (this study: SS-3; other studies: SS-1,³² SS-2³¹) and existing ceramic
 160 membranes (spinel,¹⁷ alumina (Al₂O₃),³³ yttria stabilized zirconia (YSZ),³⁴ silicon carbide (SiC),³⁵
 161 Si₃N₄³⁶ and mullite³⁷). (d) Comparison in electrical resistance of the SSHF membrane substrate
 162 (1050 °C) in this work and other ceramic membranes (Al₂O₃, mullite, spinel^{17,37}).

163 Different from conventional brittle inorganic ceramic membranes, the SSHF
 164 membrane substrate exhibited a nonlinear load-deflection response due to its excellent
 165 metallic ductility (Figure 1a). It is noted that ceramic membranes have the same load-
 166 deflection curve geometries as the tested SSHF membrane substrate in the elastic

167 deformation zone (Figure 1b). Interestingly, however, unlike ceramic membranes
168 having only an elastic deformation zone followed by failure, the bending fracture
169 behavior of SSHF membrane substrate can be divided into two zones: elastic
170 deformation and plastic deformation. This much better ductile behavior allows it to
171 accommodate a maximum deflection of nearly 1.5 mm, showing 1-2 orders of
172 magnitude improvement over conventional ceramic membranes (Figure 1b), indicating
173 much better fracture tolerance and flexibility than ceramic membranes. Moreover, in
174 spite of being sintered at a lower temperature of 1050 °C (compared to 1400-1700 °C
175 that is typically used for ceramic membranes), the SS membrane substrate had higher
176 bending strength (244.2 ± 9.8 MPa) and fracture energy (447 ± 71 KJ/m³), outperforming
177 many existing ceramic and SS membranes (except for Si₃N₄ membrane, see Figure
178 1c).³⁶ These mechanical properties of the SSHF membrane substrate (excellent
179 mechanical strength and high flexibility) are beneficial for membrane module assembly.
180 More robust flexible SS-based membranes can potentially address the challenging
181 issues of membrane damage especially in practical industrial operation processes
182 usually involving high pressure and vigorous vibration, where hollow fiber ceramic
183 membranes cannot perform well due to their inherent brittleness and insufficient
184 flexibility.^{25,37-39} In addition, SSHF membrane substrate also exhibited better N₂
185 permeance and pure water flux than ceramic counterparts such as spinel, Al₂O₃, YSZ,
186 SiC and mullite,^{17,33-35,37} and other SS membrane substrates^{31,32} (Figure 1c). Its electro-
187 resistance (~ 35.9 Ω cm, see Figure 1d) was 2-3 orders of magnitude lower compared
188 with other ceramic membranes (Al₂O₃, mullite, spinel),^{17,37} allowing its coupling with

189 electrochemical methods to achieve enhanced MD performance (see Section
 190 “Electrochemically Enhanced Anti-fouling and Anti-corrosion Performance”).

191 ***In Situ* Growth of Carbon Nanotubes**



192
 193 **Figure 2.** Cross-sectional SEM images (a1, b1), locally enlarged cross-sectional SEM images (a2,
 194 b2), inner surface SEM images (a3, b3), and outer surface SEM images (a4, b4) of SSHF substrate
 195 (a) and SS-CNT membrane (b); water contact angles measured at room temperature (~25 °C) on the
 196 membrane surface of SSHF substrate (c1) and SS-CNT membrane (d2); simplified half structural
 197 models of cross-sectional structures of SSHF substrate (c2) and SS-CNT membrane (d1) (light
 198 purple color, SSHF substrate; black color, CNT); and XRD patterns (e) and XPS spectra (f) of raw
 199 SSHF, SSHF membrane substrate after oxidation (O-SSHF), O-SSHF membrane substrate after
 200 reduction (O-SSHF-H) and SS-CNT membrane fabricated via CVD without additional nano-
 201 catalyst.

202 Since the SS powders inherently contain Ni and Fe elements,^{40,41} a self-catalyzed
 203 chemical vapor deposition, after a simple surface activation, was used to grow CNTs *in*
 204 *situ* on the SS substrate without external catalyst addition. An asymmetric sandwich
 205 structure with porous inner/outer surfaces is observed for SSHF substrate (Figures 2a1-
 206 2a4), exhibiting a hydrophobic nature (water contact angle ~122°, Figure 2c1).

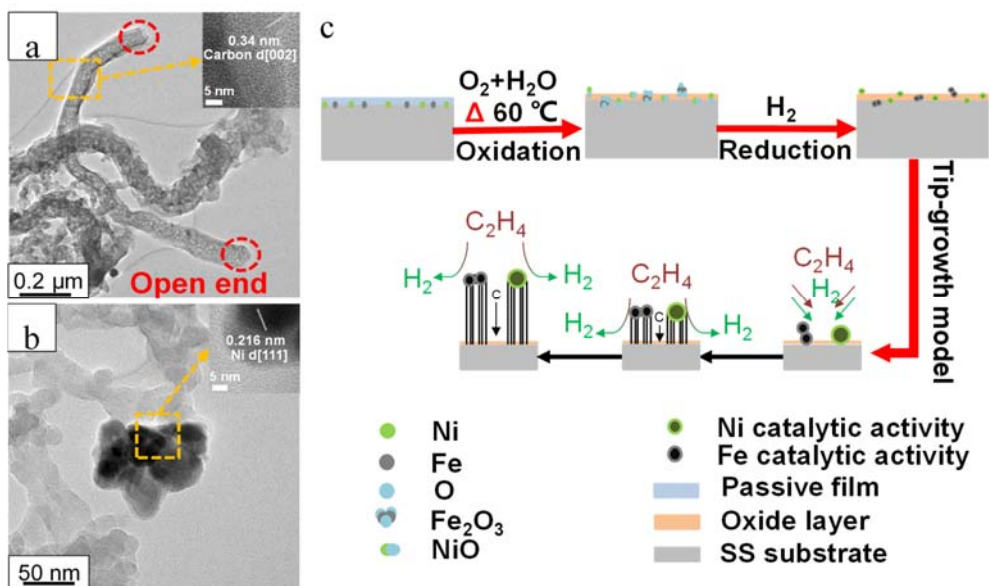
207 Different from traditional membrane structures, this highly porous asymmetric
208 structure, combined with superhydrophobic and superporous CNT surface, could
209 effectively reduce conductive heat loss across the membrane.³⁸ Thermal cracking of
210 ethylene via self-catalyzed CVD led to the formation of a superporous CNT layer
211 (Figures 2b3 and 2b4). Simplified half-structural models of cross-sectional structures
212 of SSHF substrate and SS-CNT membrane are illustrated in Figures 2c2 and 2d1. For
213 SS-CNT membrane, the average pore size is 0.57 μm , while the liquid entry pressure
214 (LEP) is 0.4 bar (Figure S4). The *in situ* growth of the CNT layer increased the water
215 contact angle of the membrane from $\sim 122^\circ$ (hydrophobicity) to $\sim 171^\circ$
216 (superhydrophobicity) (Figure 2d2). Such an excellent superhydrophobicity
217 characteristic is beneficial for MD (Table S4), because it inhibits pore penetration and
218 wetting by water, while enabling rapid vapor transport through the membrane pores.^{16,42}

219 Revealing *in situ* growth mechanism of CNT is important to gain a deep
220 understanding on both the catalytic function of true active components and CNT growth
221 model on SS substrate surface.⁴³ Growth of CNTs to form SS-CNT membrane involves
222 two key stages (Figure 3c):

223 (1) surface activation of catalytic sites via a simple oxidation and reduction process.⁴⁴

224 Due to the presence of thin passive surface layers, the sintered SS substrates are inert
225 to gaseous hydrocarbons.⁴¹ The water-soaked SSHF membrane substrates were heated
226 at 60 $^\circ\text{C}$ for 48 h to sufficiently oxidize their passive layers into oxide layers on SSHF
227 substrate surfaces, which is confirmed by a stronger oxygen signal in the XPS spectra
228 (Figure 2f). Subsequent reduction treatment in H_2 reduced surface metal oxides (NiO
229 and Fe_2O_3) into active metallic catalysts.⁴⁵ The oxidation and reduction process did not

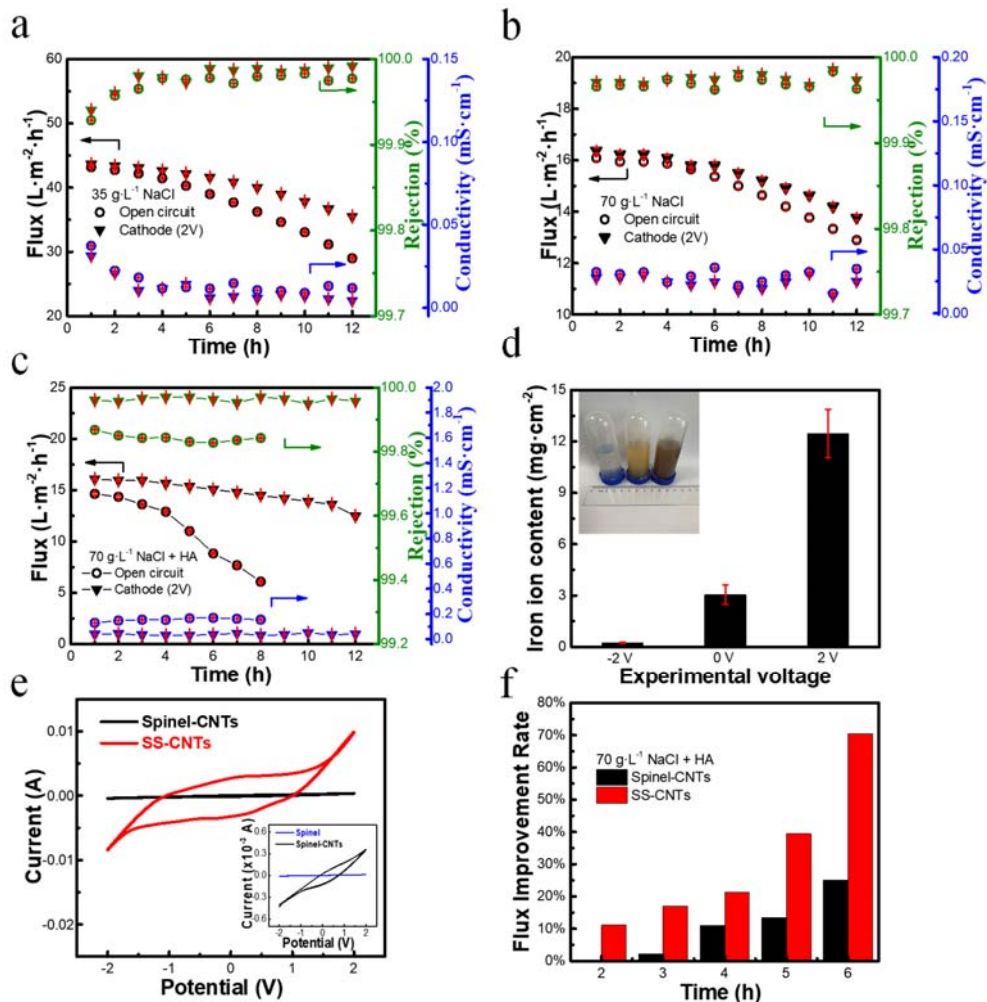
230 introduce new impurity phases, which is fully confirmed by the membranes having a
 231 typical austenitic steel structure as well as the original SSHF substrate (Figure 2e).
 232 Although it is hard to identify metallic elements via XRD, zero-valence state active
 233 metallic catalysts (Ni and Fe) can be confirmed by TEM (Figures S5b2-d2).
 234 (2) *In situ* nucleation and growth of CNT via self-catalyzed CVD.^{46,47} A dominant
 235 reflection (002), corresponding to carbon element is observed for SS-CNT membrane
 236 (Figure 2e). TEM results clearly reveal that the resulting nanocarbon materials were
 237 hollow, with the CNTs having open ends (red arrow) rather than solid carbon nanofibers
 238 (Figure 3a). An interplanar d-spacing of ~ 0.34 nm is observed between two tube walls,
 239 which is characteristic of (002) reflections of CNTs (Figure 3a inset).⁴⁸ CNTs
 240 containing metallic Ni nano-catalyst on the tip was confirmed, indicating a tip growth
 241 model mechanism is dominant (Figure 3b).



242
 243 **Figure 3.** (a) TEM image of CNTs with open end. (b) TEM image of CNTs with catalyst particles
 244 on the tip. (c) *In situ* growth mechanism of CNTs on a SSHF membrane substrate based on a strong
 245 interaction between SSHF membrane substrate and its inherent Ni and Fe catalyst via a tip-growth

246 model.

247 Electrochemically Enhanced Anti-fouling and Anti-corrosion Performance



248

249 **Figure 4.** VMD performance (flux, salt rejection and distillate conductivity) of the SS-CNT

250 membranes for the treatment of high salinity water under open circuit and negative polarization ((a)

251 35 g·L⁻¹ NaCl, (b) 70 g·L⁻¹ NaCl, (c) 70 g·L⁻¹ NaCl + 30 mg·L⁻¹ HA). (d) Comparison in the iron

252 ion content of the oxidized surface per unit membrane area of the SS-CNT membranes under

253 different voltages after 6 h operation for treatment of 70 g·L⁻¹ NaCl feed solution (the inset shows

254 the photographs of the ferric oxide suspensions for corrosion oxidation of SS-CNT membrane

255 surfaces under different voltages (-2 V, left; 0 V, middle; +2 V, right) after 6 h operation). (e)

256 Comparison in CV curves of SS-CNT membrane and spinel-CNT membrane (the inset shows the

257 CV curves of spinel-CNT membrane and spinel substrate¹⁷). (f) Comparison in flux improvement

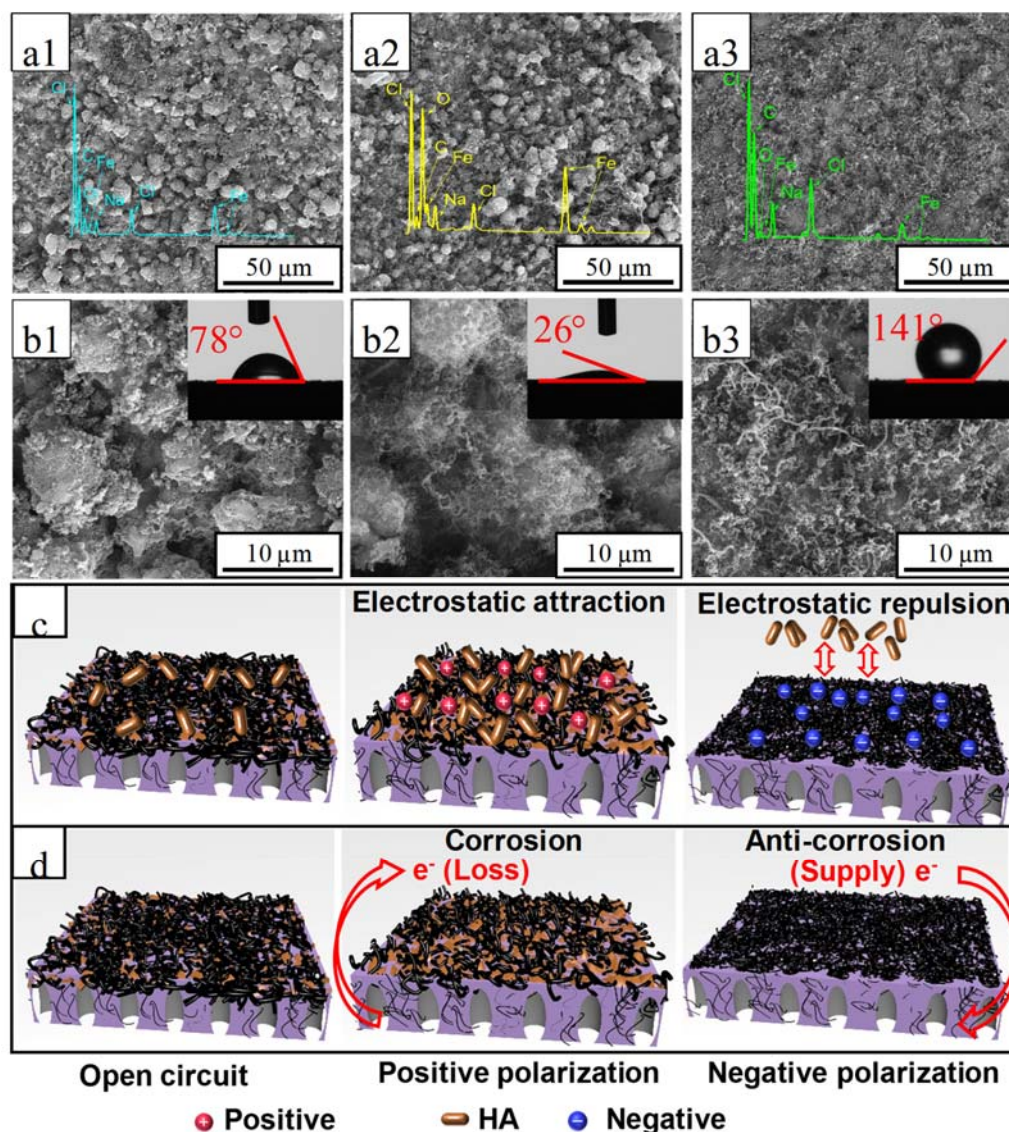
258 percent under negative polarization during 6 h operation of SS-CNT membrane and spinel-CNT
259 membrane for treatment of organic high salinity waters ($70 \text{ g}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ NaCl and $30 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ HA).

260 Membrane fouling and corrosion are among the key challenges for membrane
261 distillation treatment of high salinity water when using metallic-based membranes. In
262 order to address this issue, desalination performance was systematically investigated in
263 vacuum membrane distillation process under a micro-electrical field-assisted strategy
264 (Figure 4). For simulated seawater ($35 \text{ g}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ NaCl), the water flux of SS-CNT
265 membrane decreased from 43.2 to $29.0 \text{ L}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$, while salt rejection was maintained
266 at high level (above $\sim 99.9\%$) during 12 h operation at open circuit (i.e., without micro-
267 electrical field assistance) (Figure 4a), due to membrane fouling and corrosion. In
268 comparison, a micro-electrical field-assisted MD system was exploited to efficiently
269 achieve less flux loss and high salt rejection, where the SS-CNT membrane was applied
270 as cathode under at -2.0 V negative polarization (Figure 4a). An increase in salt
271 concentration from 35 to $70 \text{ g}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ resulted in a decrease in water flux (Figure 4b) with
272 operating time under two cases (open circuit and negative polarization), while
273 maintaining high salt rejection (above $\sim 99.9\%$). Similarly, under negative polarization
274 (-2.0 V), the SS-CNT membrane presented a higher water flux ($13.8 \text{ L}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$) after 12
275 h operation (Figure 4b) than that under open circuit. However, when applied as anode
276 at $+2.0 \text{ V}$ under positive polarization, the SS-CNT membrane underwent significant
277 corrosion, resulting in rapid wetting and without salt rejection, even at less than 1 h
278 operation. After 6 h VMD operation, higher Fe content under positive polarization was
279 confirmed than at open circuit and negative polarization by SEM-EDS Fe element
280 mapping analysis (Figure S6). When using high salinity water with organics (NaCl 70

281 $\text{g}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$, HA $30\text{ mg}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$) as the feed (Figure 4c), due to more serious membrane fouling
282 and corrosion, the water flux was significantly decreased by $\sim 58.4\%$ at open circuit
283 after 8 h operation. This co-existence of fouling and corrosion also resulted in relatively
284 low salt rejection (but all still higher than 99.8%) due to the enhanced membrane
285 surface wetting from superhydrophobicity to hydrophlicity via more hydrophilic HA
286 accumulation and corrosion-induced surface oxidation during the VMD process (see
287 Figure 5, following section). Significantly improved water flux ($14.5\text{ L}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$) was
288 observed at -2.0 V for 8 h, much higher (~ 2.4 times) than that ($6.1\text{ L}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$) under
289 open circuit. The relatively high salt rejection (above $\sim 99.9\%$) is mainly attributed to
290 membrane wetting inhibition with simultaneously-enhanced anti-corrosion and anti-
291 fouling ability via electrostatic repulsion and electron-supply cathodic protection
292 mechanisms (see Figure 5, following section). The anti-corrosion function under
293 negative polarization is readily confirmed by the result of iron ion content in the
294 oxidized surface per unit membrane area of SS-CNT membrane during 6 h operation
295 (Figure 4d). Compared with the iron ion content ($3.1\text{ mg}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}$) under open circuit, a
296 higher iron ion content ($12.5\text{ mg}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}$) was observed under positive polarization,
297 indicating a significant corrosion. Interesting, a much lower iron ion content (only 0.2
298 $\text{mg}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}$) was obtained under negative polarization due to significantly mitigated
299 corrosion behavior. In addition, compared with spinel-CNT membrane,¹⁷ metal-based
300 SS-CNT membrane exhibited lower resistance and thus higher electrical conductivity
301 (Figure 4e). Moreover, after 6 h operation under negative polarization, the water flux
302 improvement percent of SS-CNT membrane was 2.8 times higher than that of spinel-

303 CNT membrane, indicating a more promising electrochemically enhanced performance
 304 stability (Figure 4f). Therefore, a micro-electrical field-coupling strategy under
 305 negative polarization is confirmed to be a highly efficient approach for treatment of
 306 high salinity water containing HA, due to enhanced *in situ* anti-fouling and anti-
 307 corrosion functions.

308 **Mechanistic Insights into Electrochemically Enhanced Water Treatment**



309
 310 **Figure 5.** SEM images (a1-a3, b1-b3), EDS spectra (inserted, a1-a3) and water contact angles
 311 (inserted, b1-b3) of the SS-CNT membranes for treatment of the organic high salinity feed (70 g·L⁻¹
 312 ¹ NaCl, 30 mg·L⁻¹ HA) after 6 h VMD operation at different electro-chemical conditions: (1) 0 V

313 open circuit, (2) +2.0 V positive polarization, (3) -2.0 V negative polarization. Anti-fouling (c) and
314 anti-corrosion (d) mechanistic models of the SS-CNT membranes under different electrochemically-
315 assisted protocols.

316 Herein, mechanistic insights are provided to understand the simultaneously-
317 enhanced anti-fouling and anti-corrosion performances during VMD of SS-CNT
318 membranes under a micro-electrical field-coupling process. Different alterations in the
319 order of superhydrophobicity-hydrophobicity-hydrophilicity reflect a synergistic effect
320 of membrane fouling and corrosion under different electro-chemical conditions.
321 Inherently, HA is negatively charged and hydrophilic in neutral saline water because of
322 its plentiful oxygen-containing group (such as COO^-) while CNTs are also negatively
323 charged.^{49,50} A significant decrease in the water contact angle from 171° (Figure 2d2
324 inset) to 78° (Figure 5b1 inset) was observed after 6 h operation under open circuit,
325 indicating serious membrane fouling-corrosion due to the accumulation of more
326 hydrophilic HA molecules (Figure 5a1). Under positive polarization, however, a highly
327 hydrophilic surface (water contact angle = 26°) of SS-CNT membrane was observed,
328 indicating severe membrane fouling and corrosion. This is the result of an electrostatic
329 attraction, which occurs between positively-charged SS-CNT membrane surface and
330 negatively-charged HA molecules, consequently leading to the accumulation of much
331 more HA on the membrane surface (Figure 5b2 inset). In this case, more severe
332 corrosion was further verified by the EDS analysis (Table S3), which shows a higher
333 Fe content in the form of Fe_2O_3 (Figure 5a2 inset) than in open circuit (Figure 5a1 inset).
334 Under negative polarization, interestingly, membrane fouling was significantly
335 mitigated due to a stronger electrostatic repulsion between the negatively-charged SS-

336 CNT membrane surface and negatively-charged HA molecules, which is beneficial for
337 treatment of high salinity water containing HA (Figure 5c). This is well verified by a
338 high water contact angle of 141° of the tested SS-CNT membrane after 6 h operation
339 under -2.0 V (Figure 5b3 inset), indicating much less HA coverage on the membrane
340 and that corrosion was significantly mitigated. When the SS-CNT membrane was
341 operated under open circuit, corrosion was observed due to the formation of microcells
342 on the membrane surface in the environments of highly corrosive chloride ion aqueous
343 solutions,^{27,51} resulting in a loss of electrons from the SS substrates of SS-CNT
344 membranes. The corrosion was significantly accelerated when the SS-CNT membrane
345 acts as an anode (under positive polarization), due to a much more rapid loss of more
346 electrons from the membrane (Figure 5d). By comparison, when the membrane acts as
347 a cathode under negative polarization, cathodic protection played a key role in anti-
348 corrosion via providing a continuous supply of electrons from Ti anode to SS-CNT
349 membrane (Figure 5d). Therefore, via an enhanced electrostatic repulsion and electron
350 supply mechanism, co-enhancement in anti-fouling and anti-corrosion was
351 simultaneously realized in a negative polarization micro-electrical field-coupling MD
352 process.

353 **IMPLICATIONS**

354 The current study demonstrates that by employing a simple surface activation of Ni
355 and Fe inherently active components, followed by self-catalyzed CVD without external
356 catalyst addition, CNT was functionally constructed *in situ* on flexible high-strength SS
357 substrates via a tip-growth mechanism to form robust superhydrophobic electro-

358 conductive SS-CNT membranes. A negative polarization micro-electric field strategy
359 coupled with the MD process is demonstrated to simultaneously enhance anti-fouling
360 and anti-corrosion performance for the treatment of organic high-salinity water, which
361 maintains stable flux and solute rejection for a prolonged period of operation. In such a
362 protocol, anti-fouling is realized via enhanced electrostatic repulsion between the
363 membrane surface and humic acid carrying the same negative charges, while anti-
364 corrosion is improved via an electron supply mechanism from Ti anode. Our findings
365 will provide practical guidance for the rational design and fabrication of other metal-
366 based carbon nanotube membranes for electrochemically enhanced wastewater
367 treatment. Inspired by these new phenomena, we can conclude that co-enhancement in
368 anti-fouling and anti-corrosion ability of SS-CNT membrane under negative
369 polarization is expected to be more effective specifically for treating negatively-charged
370 organic wastewater via the MD process. However, for the treatment of positively-
371 charged organic wastewater, anti-corrosion under cathodic protection would be more
372 preferential than anti-fouling for practical applications. Besides demonstrating
373 promising results in the MD application, this electrochemically conducting SS-CNT
374 membrane is also expected to extend toward other potential applications such as
375 membrane evaporation, membrane contactors and membrane adsorption with more
376 interesting electro-chemical functions for the efficient treatment of various emerging
377 organic pollutants such as antibiotics, pharmaceutical and personal care products, and
378 endocrine disrupting compounds in water. To address the issue of thermal conductivity,
379 further studies are needed in the near future for the rational design of both SS-CNT

380 membranes and membrane modules with more favorable structures to significantly
381 reduce conductive heat transfer in MD. In addition, stainless steel membranes exhibited
382 superior robustness and stability during long-term water filtration process up to 80 h,²⁶
383 which appears promising for longer-term desalination durability for practical
384 applications.

385 **ASSOCIATED CONTENT**

386 **Supporting Information**

387 S1. Illustration of the preparation and VMD process of SS-CNT membrane ([Figure](#)
388 [S1](#)); S2. Preparation and characterization of SSHF membrane substrate ([Figure S2](#),
389 [Table S1](#), [Figure S3](#)); S3. Properties and cost of SS-CNT membrane ([Figure S4](#), [Table](#)
390 [S2](#)); S4. TEM and HRTEM images of CNTs ([Figure S5](#)); S5. EDS element mapping
391 analysis of oxidized SS-CNT membrane surfaces ([Figure S6](#), [Table S3](#)). S6. Evaluation
392 of energy consumption. S7. Performance comparison with other membranes ([Table S4](#)).

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400 **Notes**

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