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Preparation and characterization of PSF/PEI/CaCO₃ nanocomposite membranes for oil/water separation

Seda Saki¹ · Nigmet Uzal²

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Abstract

Ultrafiltration (UF) is one of the significant advanced processes for oily wastewater treatment due to its clear advantages, for instance, ease in operation and efficient separation. The main drawback of these processes is the fouling problem and many researchers' effort on fabrication of high-performance membranes with higher hydrophilicity and antifouling properties. In this study, flat-sheet polysulfone (PSF)/polyethylenimine (PEI)/CaCO₃ nanocomposite membranes were prepared by phase inversion method for oil/water emulsion separation. Structural properties of membranes were characterized by SEM, FT-IR, contact angle, tensile strength, and atomic force microscopy analysis. Increasing the CaCO₃ nanoparticle loading exhibited the increased the water flux and BSA rejection. PSF/PEI/10 wt% CaCO₃ nanocomposite membranes have 145 L/m² h water flux at 2 bar with a contact angle of 84° and with 92% BSA rejection. All prepared CaCO₃ nanocomposite membranes reached similar oil rejections at above 90%. Besides the higher water flux and oil removal efficiencies, 10 wt% of CaCO₃ nanoparticle-blended PSF membranes has notable antifouling capacity with the highest flux recovery ratio (FRR) and lowest flux decay ratio (DR) values. The results showed that there is a great potential to use PSF/PEI/CaCO₃ nanocomposite membranes for the treatment of oil water emulsions with higher permeability and antifouling capacity.

Keywords CaCO₃ nanoparticles · Nanocomposite membrane · Oil rejection · Antifouling

Introduction

Industrial wastewaters containing high oil should be treated before discharging through receiving environments due to its serious environmental problems (Ibrahim et al. 2001; Shi et al. 2016). In the treatment of oily wastewaters, application of conventional physicochemical treatment methods is limited due to low separation efficiencies, high energy consumption, and operating costs (Lin et al. 2012; Tummons et al. 2016). In recent years, ultrafiltration (UF) has been used commonly for purification of oily water due to low energy requirements,

continuous operation, and higher removal efficiencies (Chang et al. 2001; Gryta et al. 2001; Kasemset et al. 2017). Nevertheless, membrane fouling is the major problem of membrane processes and, to overcome these problems, special membranes can be designed and prepared with polymeric materials and inorganic nanoparticles to enhance oil separation performance (Jhaveri and Murthy 2016; Li et al. 2006).

Polysulfone (PSF) is a popular membrane polymer for its use in water and wastewater treatments due to its mechanical robustness, structural and chemical stability, and thermal resistance (Yang et al. 2007; Yu et al. 2009). Besides the advantages of PSF, it needs to be modified to reduce its hydrophobic characteristics and increase its permeability, porosity, and antifouling capacity for treating wastewaters (Fenu et al. 2010; Kumar et al. 2013; Li and Chu 2003; van Reis and Zydney 2007). Thus, hydrophilic polymers (polyvinyl pyrrolidone, polyethylene glycol, polyvinyl alcohol) can be blended in the membrane matrix to create micropores and increase hydrophilicity (Zhao et al. 2011a). Polyethylenimine (PEI) is shown to be an attractive macrovoid formation agent with special

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✉ Nigmet Uzal
nigmet.uzal@agu.edu.tr

¹ Materials Science and Mechanical Engineering, Abdullah Gül University, 38080 Kayseri, Turkey

² Department of Civil Engineering, Abdullah Gül University, 38080 Kayseri, Turkey

functions in terms of biocompatibility, chemical reactivity, and hydrophilicity (Park et al. 2012; Wu et al. 2014). However, the addition of hydrophilic polymers, including PEI, can decrease the mechanical strength, stability, and selectivity of the membrane (Ba et al. 2009). To overcome these problems in membranes, blending the polymer with inorganic nanoparticles offers several advantages, like higher selectivity, maintaining high permeate flux, and thermal and mechanical resistance (Abdullah et al. 2016) as in order to optimize the membrane performance (Ng et al. 2013).

Yang et al. (2007) showed that TiO₂ nanomaterial-blended PSF nanocomposite membranes gave better membrane properties in terms of water permeate flux, hydrophilicity, as well as mechanical strength and fouling resistance (Yang et al. 2007). Yi et al. (2011) fabricated PVDF UF membrane incorporated with nanosized TiO₂/Al₂O₃ to improve the antifouling resistance. Their results showed that TiO₂/Al₂O₃ addition provides better antifouling capacity and hydrophilicity and also desirable flux recovery has been obtained (Yi et al. 2011). In another study, Zhang et al. (2013) used PSF membranes with phosphorylated TiO₂-SiO₂ (PTS) particles for oily wastewater treatment. PTS particles improved the PSF membrane hydrophilicity, antifouling capacity, and mechanical strength significantly. The contact angle of the 10 wt% PTS embedded membrane decreased from 78.0° to 45.5° with 92% oil rejection and 116 L/m² h flux value at 0.1 MPa (Zhang et al. 2013). Similarly, Zhang et al. (2011) conducted a study for the enhancement of the hydrophilicity and antifouling capability of PSF membranes assisted with sulfonated zirconia particles (SZP) for treating oily wastewater. Experiments showed that the oil concentration in permeate decreased from 80 to 0.67 mg/L for 15 wt% SZP/PSF membrane with satisfied recycling standards (Zhang et al. 2011).

CaCO₃ nanoparticles have been attracted considerable attention in water and wastewater treatments because of its larger specific surface, great biocompatibility, and low cost (Shan et al. 2007). Additionally, CaCO₃ surface properties can improve water permeation due to its carboxylic groups and surface polarities (Wang et al. 2008). Within this context, PSF/PEI/CaCO₃ nanocomposite membranes were prepared via phase inversion process with PEI and CaCO₃ nanoparticle additives to increase flux and hydrophilicity of membranes and to improve their performance for oily water treatment. CaCO₃ nanoparticles were used in membrane matrix with different weight percentages of 1, 2, 5, and 10 wt%. The effect of concentration of CaCO₃ nanoparticles on the structural properties and filtration performance of the membranes was also investigated. To the best of our knowledge, there are no reported data involving PSF/PEI/CaCO₃-blended substrate to fabricate polymeric

nanocomposite membranes for oily water treatment. The findings herein provide new insight on the role of PSF/PEI/CaCO₃ nanocomposite membranes in oil/water separation, which may contribute for the development of better nanocomposite membranes for water based filtration applications.

Experimental

Materials

PSF (average molecular weight of 60,000) was purchased from Acros Organics. An aqueous solution of branched PEI with a weight-average molecular weight of 25,000 was obtained from Sigma-Aldrich and used as a pore former. Dimethylformamide (DMF; Merck, anhydrous, 99.8%) and *N*-methyl-2-pyrrolidone (NMP; Merck) were used as solvents. Hydrophilic CaCO₃ nanoparticles with 100 nm were supplied from Nanografi, Turkey, and used as additives for the PSF/PEI solutions. Bovine serum albumin (BSA) was used as a foulant and supplied from Amresco Inc. (USA). Sodium dodecylsulfate (SDS) salt was used as an emulsifier to encourage the suspension of water and oil phases and was purchased from SERVA Electrophoresis GmbH, Germany. Vacuum pump oil (G-19) was purchased from Edwards (UK). Ethanol was purchased from Merck. All of the organic and inorganic reagents were analytical grade.

Preparation of membranes

Commercial nanoparticles of CaCO₃ (100 nm) were first dissolved in NMP solution at four different concentrations of 1, 2, 5, and 10 wt%. The mixture was then sonicated for 2 h. Next, the CaCO₃ nanoparticles were dissolved with 20 wt% PSF and 2 wt% PEI in DMF and NMP mixture in a ratio of 7:3 (w/w) to form membrane casting solutions. The final solution was then mixed for 24 h at

Table 1 Casting solution compositions of PSF/PEI/CaCO₃ nanocomposite membranes

Membrane	PSF (wt%)	PEI (wt%)	CaCO ₃ (wt%)
PSF	20	0	0
PSF/PEI	20	2	0
1 wt% CaCO ₃	20	2	1
2 wt% CaCO ₃	20	2	2
5 wt% CaCO ₃	20	2	5
10 wt% CaCO ₃	20	2	10

400 rpm using a magnetic stirrer to make the solution homogeneous. The polymer suspension was then sonicated for at least 2 h. The composition of the casting solutions is shown in Table 1.

Membrane characterization

Structural properties of membranes were characterized by scanning electron microscopy (SEM), Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy (FT-IR), porosity, viscosity, contact angle, tensile strength, and atomic force microscopy (AFM). The filtration performances were evaluated by measuring water flux, BSA, and oil rejection.

Viscosity measurements

The average viscosity of the dope solution was measured with a Rapid Visco Analyzer (Pertem, RVA 4500). The viscosity was determined at 25 ± 5 °C. To ensure the complete uniformity of the samples to be analyzed, the rotation of the RVA was set to 60 rpm for 120 s.

SEM

SEM affords the optical information of the membrane morphology in terms of pore structure, distribution, and density. The top-surface and cross-section morphologies of the membranes were observed using a Zeiss Evo LS10 scanning electron microscope. The membranes were carefully sectioned with an average 0.5 mm width and 3 mm length and then mounted onto the SEM grid. Before the analysis, each sample was coated with platinum, and the samples were analyzed at 10 kV.

Membrane hydrophilicity

Membrane surface hydrophilicity was quantified by measuring contact angle meter (Attention-Theta Lite, Biolin Scientific, Finland) with sessile drop method. Three microliters of deionized (DI) water was used to compare the hydrophilicity of the pure PSF, PSF/PEI, and PSF/PEI/CaCO₃ membranes. For each measurement, at least three readings from different surface locations were taken, and the average values are reported with [standard deviations](#). All of the membranes were fully dried before measuring the contact angle to avoid water interaction.

Porosity

For the porosity measurements, dry membranes were immersed in ethanol for 2 h, and the liquid on the surfaces of the membranes was removed using filter paper. The

membrane porosity (ε) was calculated using Eq. 1 (Lohokare et al. 2011):

$$\varepsilon = \frac{(\omega_1 - \omega_2)/d\omega}{\frac{\omega_1 - \omega_2}{d\omega} + \omega_2/dp} \quad (1)$$

where ω_1 is the weight of the wet membrane (g), ω_2 the weight of the dry membrane (g), $d\omega$ is the density of ethanol (0.789 g/cm³), and dp is the polymer density (1.24 g/cm³).

FT-IR

The FT-IR spectroscopy is an easy method to determine of the relative amounts of different functional groups of polymeric membranes with time resolution down to nanoseconds. FT-IR spectra were employed for identification of PEI and CaCO₃ nanoparticles using an FT-IR spectrometer (Thermo Nicolet Avatar 370). Prior to the FT-IR measurements, the samples were dried in a drying oven for 15 min at 120 °C.

Mechanical strength

The mechanical strength of the prepared membranes was measured using an AGS-J tensile testing machine (Shimadzu, Japan). The measurements were carried out according to the ASTM D 882 standard by applying a 500-N load at a cross-head speed of 1 mm/min. All the samples were sectioned with dimensions of 6×2 cm². The sample thicknesses were measured with an electronic micrometer with ± 0.1 μm precision (no. 293-561, Mitutoyo, Japan).

AFM analysis

Atomic force microscopy was used to determine the surface morphology and surface roughness (average surface roughness (R_a), root mean square roughness (R_q), and maximum height of the profile (R_{max})) of the prepared membranes at nanoscale. Membrane surface roughness was characterized by MultiMode 8-HR, Veeco operated in tapping mode (Model: RTESP-300). The membranes were dried overnight at 80 °C to evaporate the liquid completely from the membrane surfaces and pores. The analysis was performed using a $5\text{-}\mu\text{m} \times 5\text{-}\mu\text{m}$ image size and a 3.4-Hz scan rate. The roughness parameters of each membrane were reported as the average of at least three measurements on membranes.

Water filtration tests

A dead-end stirred cell filtration system (Sterlitech, HP4750) was used to determine the membranes' intrinsic separation properties (i.e., water flux and rejection). Filtration cell

connected with a nitrogen gas cylinder and consisted of a filtration cell with a volume of 300 mL. The effective membrane area for the system was 14.6 cm². DI water was used as a feed solution for filtration test, and the feed side of the system was pressurized by nitrogen gas. In the water filtration test, transmembrane pressure (TMP) was at 2 bar for PSF, PSF/PEI, and PSF/PEI/CaCO₃ membranes, stirring speed was at 300 rpm, and the temperature was kept at 25 ± 5 °C. The water fluxes of the prepared membranes were calculated using Eq. 2:

$$J = \frac{V}{A \times \Delta t} \quad (2)$$

where J is the water flux (L/m² h), V is the permeate volume (L), A is the effective membrane area (m²), and Δt is time (h). Oil/water emulsion refilled the stirred cell reservoir.

BSA rejection experiments The membranes' BSA rejection performance was determined using aqueous solutions containing 2.5 g/L of BSA at 2 bar TMP in the dead-end filtration module (Jamal et al. 2014). The solutions were prepared using DI water at room temperature. BSA concentrations were analyzed using UV–visible spectroscopy at a wavelength of 280 nm. The BSA rejections (R) were calculated by Eq. 3:

$$\%R = 1 - \frac{C_p}{C_f} \times 100 \quad (3)$$

where C_p is the concentration of BSA in the permeate, and C_f is the concentration of BSA in the feed solution. The volume reduction ratio (VRR) is calculated using the following Eq. 4:

$$VRR = \frac{V_0}{V_R} \quad (4)$$

where V_0 and V_R are the initial feed volume and retentate volume, respectively.

Oil rejection experiments The vacuum pump oil (G-19) was used for preparation synthetic oil/water emulsion. The oil rejection tests were conducted at 300 rpm stirring speed and at 2 bar TMP in the dead-end filtration module. The emulsion was prepared with mixing of oil and surfactant SDS in a ratio of 9:1 (w/w) and 500 mL DI water. The emulsion was mixed for 30 min and stored at room temperature.

After the clean membrane pure water flux (J) was calculated, solution reservoir was filled with oil/water emulsion and oil/water emulsion flux (J_1) was calculated by using Eq. 2. After filtration of oil/water emulsion, solution reservoir was emptied and the membranes were cleaned with DI water for 20 min and refilled with the DI water; cleaned membrane water flux (J_2) was calculated in the similar with Eq. 2. Oil concentration of wastewater samples were

analyzed using UV–visible spectroscopy at a wavelength of 283 nm.

The oil rejections (R) and VRR were calculated using Eqs. 3 and 4.

Fouling resistance was evaluated using oil/water emulsion flux decay ratio (DR) (Geng et al. 2017) and flux recovery ratio (FRR) (Chen et al. 2009; Zhao et al. 2011b) and calculated using the following equations (Eqs. 5 and 6):

$$DR = \frac{J - J_1}{J} \times 100 \quad (5)$$

$$FRR = \frac{J_2}{J} \times 100 \quad (6)$$

where J (L/m² h) is the water flux before fouling, J_1 (L/m² h) is the oil/water emulsion flux, and J_2 (L/m² h) cleaned membrane water flux.

Results and discussions

Membrane morphology

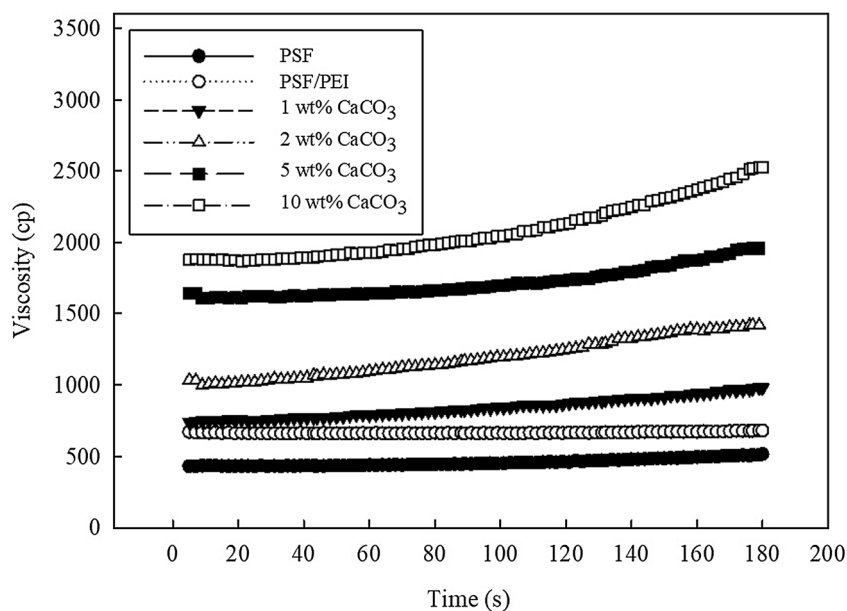
Viscosity of membrane dope solutions

Viscosity is one of the most important parameter for the membrane fabrication because it affects the solvent–non-solvent exchange rate and so the final morphology of formed membranes (Alpatova et al. 2013). PSF/PEI and PSF/PEI/CaCO₃ nanocomposite membranes viscosity values are shown in Fig. 1. The viscosity values of casting solutions were increased significantly with increasing CaCO₃ nanoparticles loading because of higher shear stress. As shown in Fig. 1, increasing the CaCO₃ concentration from 1 to 10 wt% increased the viscosity from 680 to 2530 cp. The highest viscosity was obtained for the PSF/PEI/CaCO₃ solution containing 10 wt% CaCO₃ nanoparticles. This result can be explained in terms of the adsorption between the polymeric chains and the exposed hydroxyl groups at the surface of the nanoparticles, which have high specific surface area and surface energy (Aerts et al. 2000; Yang et al. 2007). Nair et al. (2013) also showed that the addition of CaCO₃ nanoparticles in PSF membrane increases the viscosity values (Nair et al. 2013). In another study showed that the addition of CaCO₃ nanoparticles in isotactic polypropylene matrix was responsible for increasing the shear viscosity of dope solution with increasing CaCO₃ content (Dangtungee et al. 2005).

SEM images

Top and cross-section structures of prepared PSF/PEI/CaCO₃ nanocomposite membranes were investigated by SEM to provide a better insight for the characterization and development

Fig. 1 The casting solution viscosity values of PSF, PSF/PEI, and PSF/PEI/CaCO₃ nanocomposite membranes



of membranes. Figure 2 shows top surface images of 20 wt% PSF and PSF/PEI membrane with 2 wt% PEI addition to the polymer matrix. However, 20 wt% PSF has uniform surface without nodules and the surface pore structure was completely changed and had small pores when 2 wt% PEI was added to the polymer matrix.

Surface images of the PSF/PEI membranes with different concentrations of CaCO₃ (1, 2, 5, 10 wt%) are shown in Fig. 3. As shown in Fig. 3, although the concentration of CaCO₃ nanoparticles was high, agglomeration problem was not observed. Chan et al. (2002) also reported similar results when CaCO₃ content was lower than 20 wt% in membrane matrix. However, over 20 wt% CaCO₃ loading aggregation on membrane surface was reported (Chan et al. 2002). Besides no aggregation, the increased CaCO₃ nanoparticles result in the development of more porous structure on the PSF membrane surface.

Cross-section images of PSF/PEI/CaCO₃ nanocomposite membranes are given in Fig. 4. Cross-section structures of PSF/PEI/CaCO₃ nanocomposite membranes changed and

new pore structures formed with CaCO₃ addition to the polymer matrix. Compared with Fig. 4a, d, the higher viscosity induces slower exchange between solvent and non-solvent for the formation of porous structure increasing with CaCO₃ concentration. The hydrophilic PEI and CaCO₃ content in membrane matrix should have resulted in fast exchange because of higher viscosity which resulted microporous membranes structure during the phase inversion (Chung et al. 2016). Another possibility can be the increasing concentration of CaCO₃ resulted in more porous structure, and this is resulted in a decrease in the mechanical and thermal resistance of the membrane solution (Vo et al. 2017).

Membrane hydrophilicity and pure water flux

Hydrophilicity of PSF, PSF/PEI, and PSF/PEI/CaCO₃ nanocomposite membranes was determined and is given in Table 2. The increase of CaCO₃ in membrane matrix decreased the contact angle values from 92° to 80° for pure PSF membrane and for PSF/PEI/CaCO₃ (5 wt% CaCO₃), respectively. This

Fig. 2 SEM surface images of 20 wt% PSF membranes containing different concentrations of PEI. **a** 0 wt%. **b** 2 wt%

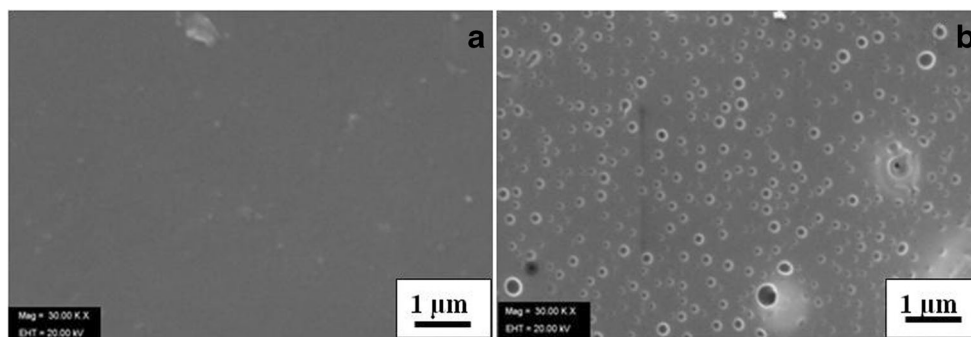
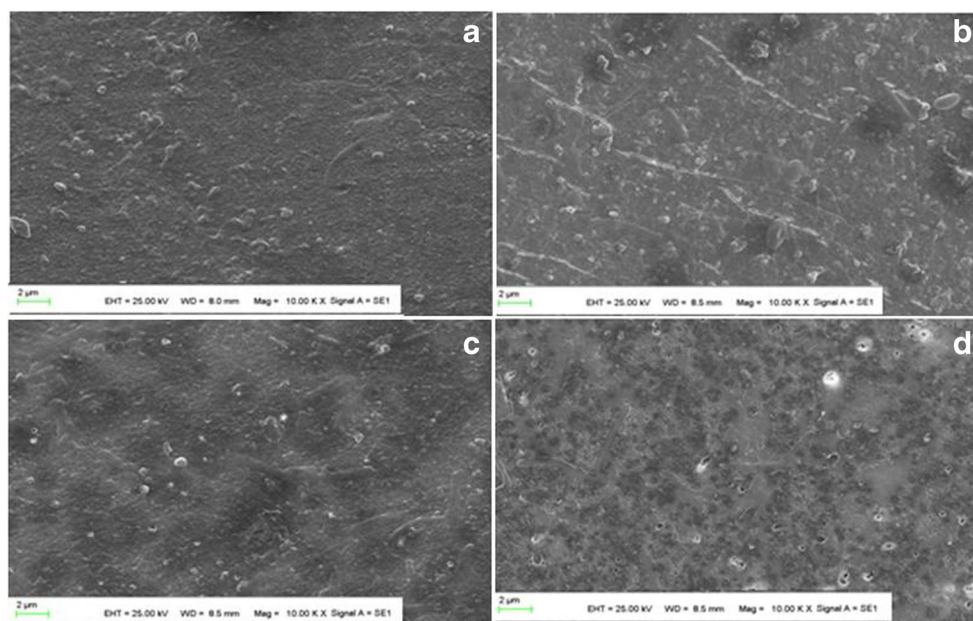


Fig. 3 Surface SEM images of PSF/PEI membrane containing different concentrations of CaCO_3 nanoparticles. **a** 1 wt%. **b** 2 wt%. **c** 5 wt%. **d** 10 wt%



hydrophilicity improvement can be attributed to the formation of OH groups which formed due to hydroxylation on the membrane surface (Cui et al. 2008).

The pure PSF membrane showed the lowest water flux of $3.1 \text{ L/m}^2 \text{ h}$, and the highest water flux was obtained for the membranes with 10 wt% CaCO_3 nanoparticles as $145 \text{ L/m}^2 \text{ h}$. PSF/PEI/10 wt% CaCO_3 nanocomposite membrane pure water flux improved over 50 times higher than pure PSF membrane. This result could be explained by the improvement of the hydrophilicity and porosity of PSF/PEI/ CaCO_3 membranes by addition of CaCO_3 (Celik et al. 2011; Kim et al. 2012). According to the results given in Table 2, although the

contact angle values were slightly decreased with addition of CaCO_3 nanoparticles, water flux values were enhanced with the increase in CaCO_3 loading.

Porosity

Membrane porosity is generally dependent on the mass transfer of the casting solution during the phase inversion process (Hong and He 2014) and solvent and non-solvent exchange rate. CaCO_3 could be easily dispersed with different weight ratios in membrane structure and very promising alternative nanoparticle for water treatment (Abebe et al. 2015; Yu et al.

Fig. 4 Cross-section SEM images of PSF/PEI membrane containing different concentrations of CaCO_3 nanoparticles. **a** 1 wt%. **b** 2 wt%. **c** 5 wt%. **d** 10 wt%

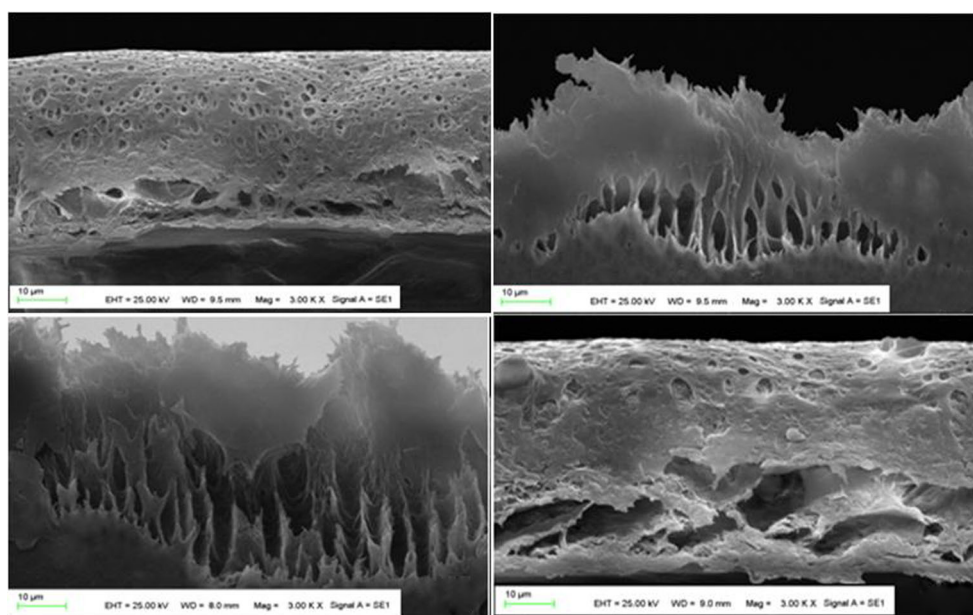


Table 2 Contact angle, pure water flux (2 bar), and porosity of PSF, PSF/PEI, and PSF/PEI/CaCO₃ nanocomposite membranes

Substrate	CA (°)	Water flux (L/m ² h)	Porosity (%)
PSF	92 ± 5	3.1 ± 0.2	27 ± 3
PSF/PEI	85 ± 4	180 ± 13	58 ± 5
1 wt% CaCO ₃	87 ± 7	45 ± 12	74 ± 8
2 wt% CaCO ₃	86 ± 5	48.7 ± 8	76 ± 3
5 wt% CaCO ₃	80 ± 6	48 ± 26	75 ± 6
10 wt% CaCO ₃	84 ± 8	145 ± 21	70 ± 2

2013). It can be seen that in Table 2, porosity values were significantly increased with CaCO₃ loading when compared to the PSF and PSF/PEI membranes. PSF and PSF/PEI dense structure causes the lowest porosity with 27 and 58%, respectively. All PSF/PEI/CaCO₃ nanocomposite membranes have similar porosity values, and the maximum porosity was observed as 76% for PSF/PEI/CaCO₃ membrane with 2 wt% of CaCO₃ content. The interaction between the polymer and the solvent molecules declined by the obstruction of nanoparticles and resulted in more and easy diffusion of solvent molecules from the polymer matrix to the coagulation bath. Besides this, with the addition of CaCO₃, the total solid content was increased and the porosity was decreased (Vatanpour et al. 2012).

Mechanical properties

Hydrophilic CaCO₃ addition in polymer matrix could enhance the membrane morphology as well as mechanical properties especially tensile strength. In the evaluation of UF membranes

for the practical applications, the mechanical strength of the membranes is the key factor (Xu et al. 2014). The mechanical properties of the polymeric materials can be developed significantly with nanoparticle addition because of improvement of the compatibility between the filler and polymer (Chan et al. 2002). CaCO₃ has been used as an important nanofiller in polymeric materials (Osman et al. 2004). Figure 5 illustrates strain–stress curve of PSF and PSF/PEI/CaCO₃ membranes. According to the results, tensile stress increased with CaCO₃ addition. The tensile strength of pure PSF was 4.1 MPa, and the tensile strength was increased to 7.8 MPa when the CaCO₃ content is increased to 10 wt%.

FT-IR

The surface chemical compositions of PSF/PEI/CaCO₃ nanocomposite membranes were determined by FT-IR spectroscopy and are shown in Fig. 6. The PSF characteristic peaks were around 1149 and 1168 cm⁻¹ (SO₂ symmetrical stretching), 1244 cm⁻¹ (aryl-O-aryl C–O stretching), 1582 cm⁻¹ (SO₂ asymmetric stretching), 1677 cm⁻¹ (asymmetric–CH₃), and 2151 cm⁻¹ (C=C) (Dehghani Kiadehi et al. 2015; Rupiasih et al. 2013). All prepared nanocomposite membranes showed a band at 2969 cm⁻¹ which is corresponding to CH₂ stretching (Kurapati and Raichur 2013) and it is caused by the main polymer (PSF) in membrane matrix. After CaCO₃ addition, the characteristic vibration peaks of CaCO₃ were obtained at the peak intensities of 704, 871, and 1408 cm⁻¹ (Zhi et al. 2014). The –OH bending vibrations of CaCO₃ nanoparticles were attributed at 1650 cm⁻¹ (Abdolmohammadi et al. 2012). At the same time, a shoulder

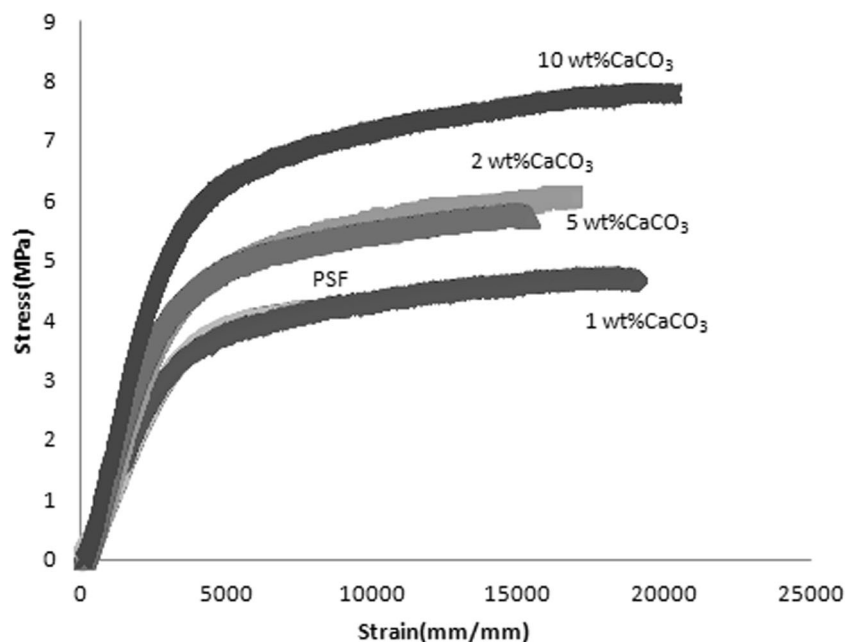
Fig. 5 Strain–stress curve of PSF and PSF/PEI/CaCO₃ membranes

Fig. 6 FT-IR spectrum of PSF and PSF/PEI/CaCO₃ nanocomposite membranes

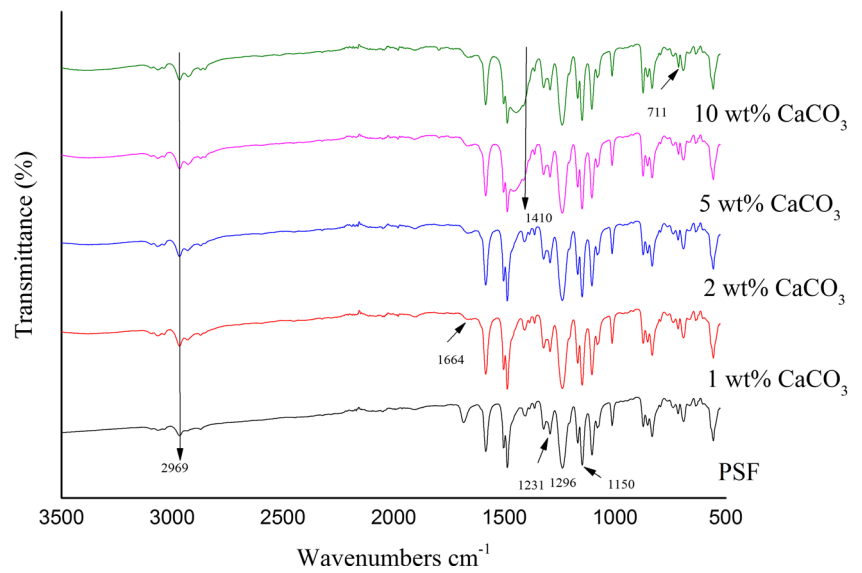
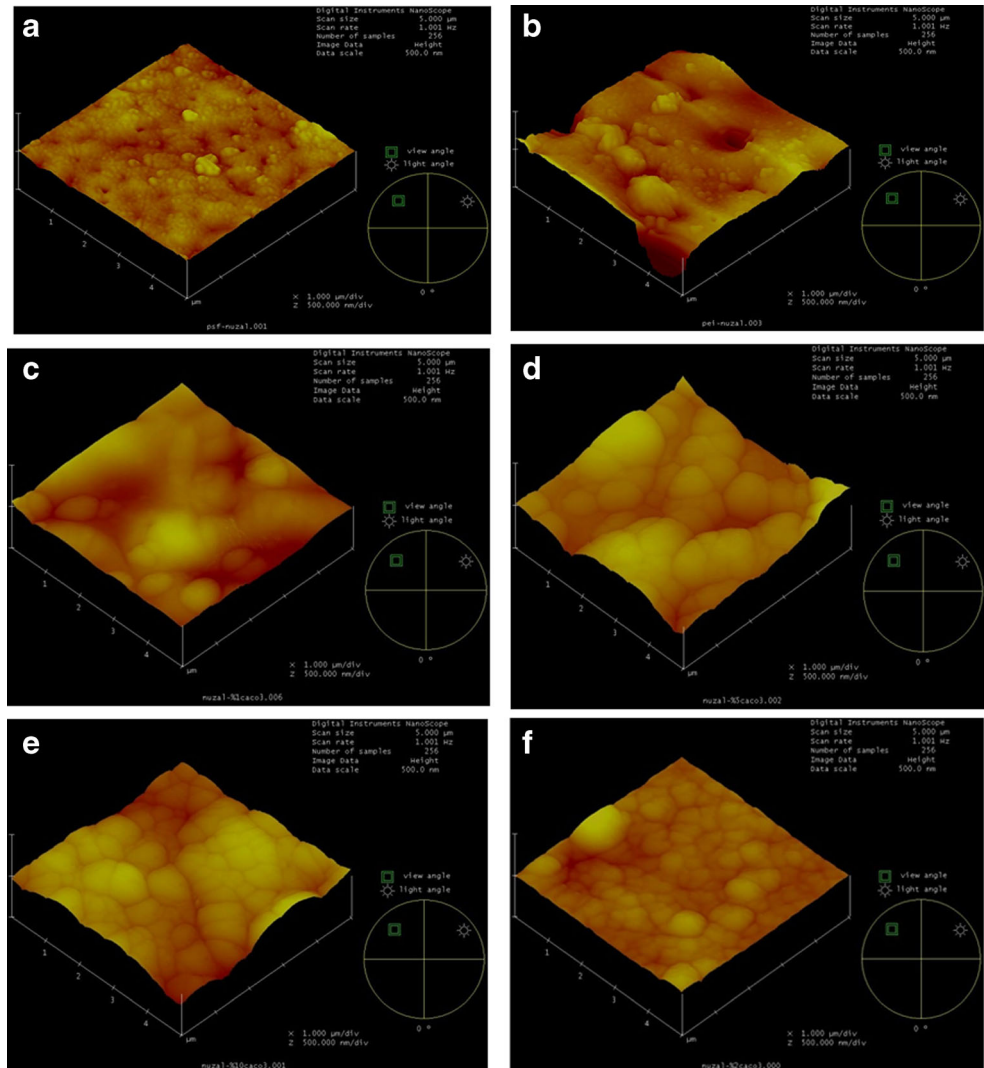


Fig. 7 AFM images of **a** PSF, **b** PSF/PEI, and PSF/PEI/CaCO₃ nanocomposite membranes containing CaCO₃ nanoparticles. **c** 1 wt%, **d** 2 wt%, **e** 5 wt%, **f** 10 wt%



peak was obtained near 1408 cm^{-1} which corresponds the amorphous structure of CaCO_3 . In addition, the peak at 1664 cm^{-1} is assigned to the vibration of water molecules bounded on the CaCO_3 particles (Hou et al. 2014; Lam et al. 2007; Zhi et al. 2014). As seen in Fig. 6, the merged peaks became more obvious with the increase in concentration of CaCO_3 from 5 to 10 wt% and this is the evidence of the successful linkage of CaCO_3 in PSF.

AFM

The three-dimensional images of AFM analysis are shown in Fig. 7 and clearly observed from AFM images that PSF membrane smoother structure changed significantly with the addition of CaCO_3 nanoparticles.

The roughness parameters, R_q , R_a , and R_{max} , are given in Table 3. The surface roughness of the PSF/PEI/ CaCO_3 nanocomposite membranes was apparently higher than that of the pure PSF membrane. Zhang et al. (2013) reported that the membrane with high surface roughness increases surface area and causes cavities, both promoting permeation. This could be due to the contaminants accumulating on the membranes surface resulted as a rough surface and permeation was increased. Thus, increase in membrane-surface roughness does not have a negative effect on membrane performance. PSF/PEI membrane showed higher R_a value than PSF/PEI/1 wt% CaCO_3 and PSF/PEI/2 wt% CaCO_3 membranes, and Khayet (2004) explain that higher solvent evaporation time of PEI during phase inversion process (Khayet 2004).

BSA rejection

The BSA flux and BSA rejection values of prepared PSF, PSF/PEI, and PSF/PEI/ CaCO_3 membranes are given in Table 4. The BSA rejection values of the pure PSF and PSF/PEI membranes were 94 and 97%, respectively. It is observed that all of the prepared membranes rejected more than 90% of the BSA, and PSF/PEI/2 wt% CaCO_3 nanocomposite membrane showed the highest BSA rejection with 98%. According to the results, PSF/PEI/ CaCO_3 nanocomposite membranes

showed UF characteristics due to over 90% BSA rejection ratios (Yan et al. 2005).

Oil rejection

To evaluate the oil rejection performance of PSF/PEI/ CaCO_3 nanocomposite membranes, synthetic vacuum oily solution (1000 ppm) was used in experiments. Although PSF membranes showed the lowest oil rejection ratio with 88%, all PSF/PEI/ CaCO_3 nanocomposite membranes rejected oil over 99%. The oil water fluxes decreased with time due to the accumulation on the membrane surface, which shows that water mass transfer was limited. In the serial filtration operation, the deposition and re-suspension of oil reached equilibrium on the membrane surface, so that a stable flux was obtained. The stable oil/emulsion fluxes for PSF/PEI/ CaCO_3 nanocomposite membranes were 28, 26, 32, and 98 $\text{L/m}^2\text{ h}$ at 2 bar for the membranes with 1, 2, 5, and 10 wt% CaCO_3 nanoparticles loading, respectively.

Figure 8 shows the pure water flux measurements before and after synthetic oily water filtration and oily water fluxes of PSF, PSF/PEI, and PSF/PEI/ CaCO_3 membranes. The oily water flux decreased considerably in comparison with pure water flux. This flux decline widely resulted in membrane fouling. Oil droplets adsorption and deposition on the membrane surface was built up rapidly, and membrane fouling was occurred directly. Membranes were cleaned for 20 min with pure water. After that, flux recovery was calculated to express the anti-fouling resistance of the membranes with FRR (Teli et al. 2012; Yan et al. 2005).

Oil rejection, FRR, and DR values of PSF, PSF/PEI, and PSF/PEI/ CaCO_3 membranes are given in Table 5. According to the results; all PSF/PEI/ CaCO_3 nanocomposite membranes showed higher FRR values than pure PSF and PSF/PEI membranes. The maximum FRR of 100% was observed with 1 and 10 wt% of CaCO_3 nanoparticle incorporated PSF/PEI/ CaCO_3 membranes. This could be explained by the hydroxylation of CaCO_3 nanoparticles on membrane surface with increasing the hydrophilicity and weakening the interactions between

Table 3 The roughness properties of PSF, PSF/PEI, and PSF/PEI/ CaCO_3 nanocomposite membranes

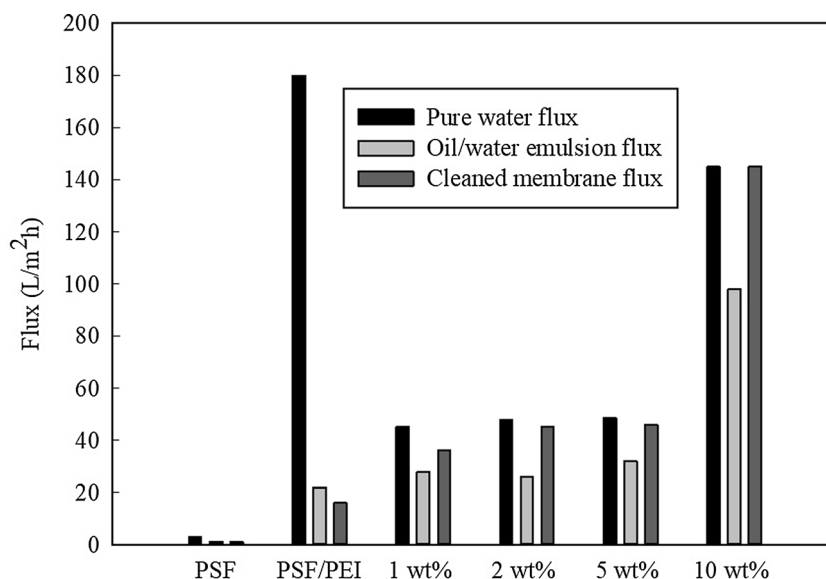
Substrate	R_q (nm)	R_a (nm)	R_{max} (nm)
PSF	12	9	137
PSF/PEI	57	40	522
1 wt% CaCO_3	35	25	316
2 wt% CaCO_3	24	18	153
5 wt% CaCO_3	44	32	308
10 wt% CaCO_3	59	48	386

Table 4 The BSA flux and rejection of PSF, PSF/PEI, and PSF/PEI/ CaCO_3 nanocomposite membranes

Substrate	BSA flux ^a ($\text{L/m}^2\text{ h}$)	Rejection (%)
PSF	0.9	94
PSF/PEI	20.2	97
1 wt% CaCO_3	7.3	96
2 wt% CaCO_3	18.1	98
5 wt% CaCO_3	8.2	95
10 wt% CaCO_3	78	92

^a The flux for BSA protein solution was measured at 2 bar

Fig. 8 Pure water, synthetic oily water, and cleaned membrane fluxes of PSF, PSF/PEI, and PSF/PEI/CaCO₃ membranes



oil and membrane surface (Cui et al. 2008). Ten weight percent of CaCO₃ nanoparticle membranes has notable antifouling capacity with the highest FRR and lowest DR values. Ahmad et al. (2011) fabricated PSF/SiO₂ nanocomposite membrane for oil/water emulsion separation and reported that increasing SiO₂ nanoparticle concentration from 1 to 3 g resulted as a decrease in DR values from 98 to 86% and increase in FRR values from 10 to 34% (Ahmad et al. 2011). In another study, although PSF/hydrous aluminum oxide (HAO) membrane eliminated all the oil molecules (100% rejection) with excellent permeation flux of 1194 L/m² hbar, the maximum FRR value was reported of 67% (Jamshidi Gohari et al. 2015). The results showed that CaCO₃ nanoparticles could be more effective for oil/water emulsion separation which improved not only oil rejection but also its antifouling capacity.

Conclusions

In this study, PSF/PEI/CaCO₃ nanocomposite membranes with improved separation and antifouling performance were

developed for oily water treatment. Within this context, effect of hydrophilic and low-cost CaCO₃ nanoparticle on membrane structure and physicochemical properties were evaluated. According to the results of the experiments, the porosity, viscosity, water flux, and tensile strength of the PSF/PEI/CaCO₃ nanocomposite membranes were improved with the loading of CaCO₃ nanoparticles. Ten weight percent of CaCO₃ nanoparticle loading exhibited the highest water flux of 145 L/m² h at 2 bar with a contact angle of 84° and porosity of 70% with 92% BSA rejection. All CaCO₃ nanocomposite membranes reached similar oil rejections at over 90%. Besides this, PSF/PEI/CaCO₃ nanocomposite membranes with 10 wt% of CaCO₃ nanoparticles have notable antifouling capacity with the highest FRR and lowest DR values of 100 and 32%, respectively. These results have demonstrated that there is a great potential to use these PSF/PEI/CaCO₃ nanocomposite membranes in oily water treatment with higher permeability and antifouling capacity.

Table 5 Oil rejection ratio (%), FRR (%), and DR (%) values of PSF, PSF/PEI, and PSF/PEI/CaCO₃ membranes for synthetic oil/water emulsion filtration

Substrate	Oil rejection (%)	DR (%)	FRR (%)
PSF	88	61	32
PSF/PEI	99	87	48
1 wt% CaCO ₃	> 99.9	37	82
2 wt% CaCO ₃	> 99.9	46	94
5 wt% CaCO ₃	> 99.9	33	95
10 wt% CaCO ₃	> 99.9	32	100

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