

1 **Mechanism of formation of hollow fiber membranes for membrane distillation: 1.**

2 **Inner coagulation power effect on morphological characteristics**

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1 **Abstract**

2 Hollow fiber membrane morphology and inner surface structure were analyzed based on  
3 the thermodynamic and kinetics of the phase inversion process. Different nonsolvent  
4 mixtures formed by *N,N*-dimethyl acetamide (DMAC) and distilled water were  
5 considered. By means of Hansen solubility parameters, lower interaction between the  
6 nonsolvent and the mixed solvent (DMAC/trimethyl phosphate, TMP) was observed  
7 when greater amount of DMAC was added in the nonsolvent. The spinning solution  
8 became thermodynamically more stable and kinetically showed slower coagulation  
9 rates, being both related to the resultant membrane formation. In this first study  
10 poly(vinylidene fluoride-co-hexafluoropropylene) (PVDF-HFP) hollow fiber  
11 membranes were prepared by the dry/wet spinning technique employing the above cited  
12 nonsolvent mixtures as an internal coagulant. Their effect on the internal structure of the  
13 membrane evolved towards a more open-porous inner surface when increasing the  
14 solvent content in the bore liquid. Various characterization techniques were used in  
15 order to analyze the adequacy of these membranes for desalination by direct contact  
16 membrane distillation (DCMD). It was found that all the properties together with the  
17 permeability of the hollow fibers improved when the coagulation power of the  
18 nonsolvent was reduced.

19

20 **Keywords:**

21 Hollow fiber membrane; Membrane Distillation; Membrane morphology; Mixed  
22 solvent; Nonsolvent coagulation power; Solvent-nonsolvent interaction

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## 1. Introduction

Membrane distillation (MD) is a non-isothermal process applied mainly to remove non-volatile solutes such as salts from water. Its driving force is the transmembrane water vapor pressure and the most commonly used MD configuration is direct contact membrane distillation (DCMD) [1]. However, one of the main drawbacks of this process is the unavailability of commercial membranes that meet all the MD requirements [2]. Therefore, the design of MD membranes is nowadays an attractive research topic [3-5], despite the great difficulty associated with understanding the mechanism of membrane formation [6]. Some of the main requirements of an adequate MD membrane are the high hydrophobicity, low thermal conductivity and high porosity [1-3].

Cui et al. [7] reported different hydrophobic fluoropolymers and copolymers that can be employed as suitable materials for MD membranes preparation, such as the well known and commonly used polyvinylidene fluoride (PVDF) [8, 9]. Fluoropolymers exhibit excellent properties as materials for a membrane for MD including thermal and chemical resistances [7]. The copolymer poly(vinylidene fluoride-co-hexafluoropropylene) (PVDF-HFP) stands out for its excellent hydrophobic character due to the hexafluoropropylene (HFP) group embedment, as confirmed by several researchers [10, 11]. Not only does the HFP incorporation improve the hydrophobic character of PVDF due to its fluorine content, but also the crystalline character of vinylidene fluoride (VDF) enhances the mechanical properties of the formed material [7]. Therefore, PVDF-HFP is an advisable copolymer to consider for the preparation of MD membranes as confirmed elsewhere [12-14]. The polymeric matrix selection is also important in terms of thermal conductivity. Nevertheless, there is not much difference between the thermal conductivity coefficients of the majority of the available

1 hydrophobic polymers. That is why the heat transfer by conduction through the  
2 membrane must be reduced by enhancing the void volume fraction (i.e. porosity) [2].  
3 High porosity always induces high MD permeability, as it has been confirmed in several  
4 studies [1, 2, 13]. Trying to pursue this objective, it is advised by several  
5 membranologists to introduce in the dope solution pore former additives such as  
6 polyvinylpyrrolidone (PVP), lithium chloride (LiCl), glycerol, polyethylene glycol  
7 (PEG), etc [12, 15].

8 Besides the aforementioned MD membrane main properties, a proper morphology  
9 also plays a key role on membrane performance. It would be enhanced if macro-void  
10 free structure, skinless and open-porous surfaces conform the membrane morphology  
11 [8, 9, 16]. First, in order to obtain the desired structure, it is necessary to analyze the  
12 membrane formation process via the thermodynamic and kinetics of the phase  
13 inversion, and to understand the consequence of the variation of each fabrication  
14 parameter [6, 17-20]. This is even more complicated for hollow fiber membrane  
15 preparation, because dry/wet spinning technique involves many fabrication parameters,  
16 which directly affect membrane morphology. One of the advantages of using MD  
17 hollow fiber membranes is the high packing density that can be easily achieved in  
18 tubular membrane modules [1-3].

19 Several hollow fiber preparation parameters such as spinning dope composition,  
20 spinneret dimensions, extrusion pressure, air gap distance, temperatures of the dope and  
21 coagulants solutions, coagulants flow rate and composition, take-up speed, etc., can  
22 modify the membrane structure [1, 21-23]. Although it has been already studied the  
23 effect of solvent/water mixture as nonsolvent on the membrane characteristics [24, 25],  
24 no study is found when the coagulant interacts with a mixed solvent instead of a single  
25 solvent for preparing PVDF-HFP hollow fiber membranes. The solvents mixture is

1 formed by two solvents, one is the same main solvent of the nonsolvent aqueous  
2 mixtures, and therefore different interaction forces compete between each other  
3 simultaneously. The nonsolvent-solvent exchange type during the phase inversion  
4 strongly affects hollow fiber membrane morphology and properties as well as  
5 membrane performance by MD process. In the first part of this study the solvent-  
6 nonsolvent interaction effect on the PVDF-HFP hollow fiber membrane formation  
7 mechanism and consequently on its structural cross-section and inner surface  
8 morphology have been deeply and exhaustively investigated.

## 9 **2. Experimental**

### 10 *2.1 Materials*

11 The copolymer poly(vinylidene fluoride-co-hexafluoropropylene) (PVDF-HFP;  $M_w =$   
12 455,000 g/mol), the solvents *N,N*-dimethyl acetamide (DMAC) and trimethyl phosphate  
13 (TMP) and the additive poly(ethylene glycol) (PEG;  $M_w = 6000$  g/mol) were used to  
14 prepare the spinning solution and were all purchased from Sigma-Aldrich. Isopropyl  
15 alcohol (IPA, Sigma-Aldrich) and POREFIL<sup>®</sup> (Porometer) were employed as wetting  
16 liquids for the measurements of the void volume fraction and porometry, respectively.  
17 Sodium chloride (NaCl) was employed to prepare the salt aqueous feed solutions for  
18 DMCD experiments and it was purchased from Panreac.

### 19 *2.2 Preparation of hollow fiber membranes*

20 The dry/wet spinning was the fabrication technique employed to prepare all the  
21 hollow fiber membranes in this study as it was described elsewhere [26, 27]. First, a  
22 unique spinning solution was prepared as follows. 5 wt% of the additive (PEG) was first  
23 dissolved in 76 wt% of the solvents mixture at 42°C and 100 rpm using a magnetic  
24 stirrer (IKA, RCT basic), and after getting an homogenous mixture, 19 wt% of PVDF-  
25 HFP was added to this mixture. Then, the whole solution was introduced in a thermal

1 bath (Stuart SBS40) maintained at 42°C under an orbital shaker until the whole  
2 copolymer was totally dissolved. The solvents mixture used to prepare this spinning  
3 solution was 40 wt% DMAC and 60 wt% TMP. This mixture was chosen based on the  
4 conclusions drawn in our previous study [17].

5 Table 1 summarizes the spinning parameters, which were maintained the same  
6 except the type of the internal coagulant. After spinning, in order to remove the residual  
7 solvents, the fabricated hollow fiber membranes were stored in water bath at room  
8 temperature for 48 h. Subsequently, the hollow fiber membranes were dried at room  
9 temperature before characterization tests. Several mixtures of DMAC and distilled  
10 water were used as internal coagulant, employing the following ratios: 0, 20, 40, 50 and  
11 60 wt% of DMAC. The corresponding fabricated hollow fiber membranes are termed  
12 here after 1IND0, 1IND20, 1IND40, 1IND50 and 1IND60, respectively.

### 13 *2.3 Spinning solution characterization prior to membrane fabrication*

#### 14 *2.3.1 Physical properties: surface tension, viscosity and Hansen solubility parameters*

15 The surface tension of the spinning solution was measured at room temperature by  
16 the pendant drop shape analysis. An optical contact angle meter (CAM 200) and a  
17 stainless steel needle with an outer diameter of 1.832 mm were employed to carry out  
18 the measurement, keeping constant the drop volume at 12.4  $\mu\text{L}$  for all the samples.

19 The viscosity of the spinning solution was determined by a Digital Viscometer  
20 (Brookfield, Model DV-I+) using the SC4-31 spindle at 4 rpm and a cylindrical sample  
21 container. The temperature of the spinning solution was maintained constant at 42 °C  
22 (i.e. the same temperature considered to prepare the hollow fiber membrane) by a  
23 thermostat (Techne, Model TU-16D).

1 Copolymer/solvent/nonsolvent interactions were analyzed via Hansen solubility  
 2 parameter (*HSP*) distance ( $R_{HSP}$ ), as it was explained in detail by Hansen [28] and  
 3 described elsewhere [17]. This parameter informs about the relative affinity between the  
 4 PVDF-HFP and the solvent, represented by  $R_{HSP}$  (P-S); and between nonsolvent  
 5 (DMAC/water coagulant mixtures) and the mixed solvent, represented by  $R_{HSP}$  (NS- $S_m$ ).

6 These  $R_{HSP}$  values were calculated from the following equations:

$$7 \quad R_{HSP}(P-S) = \sqrt{4(\delta_{d_P} - \delta_{d_S})^2 + (\delta_{p_P} - \delta_{p_S})^2 + (\delta_{h_P} - \delta_{h_S})^2} \quad (1)$$

$$8 \quad R_{HSP}(NS-S_m) = \sqrt{4(\delta_{d_{NS}} - \delta_{d_{S_m}})^2 + (\delta_{p_{NS}} - \delta_{p_{S_m}})^2 + (\delta_{h_{NS}} - \delta_{h_{S_m}})^2} \quad (2)$$

9 Before  $R_{HSP}$  calculation, it is necessary to know the *HSP* components, which includes  
 10 the polar component ( $\delta_p$ ), the dispersion force component ( $\delta_d$ ), and the hydrogen  
 11 bonding component ( $\delta_h$ ) [28]. In Table 2, the *HSP* components of all the pure  
 12 substances are listed [10, 28, 29], as well as the obtained values of both solvent mixture  
 13 ( $S_m$ ) and nonsolvent mixtures (NS), which were calculated from the following equations  
 14 (3) and (4), respectively [17, 30]:

$$15 \quad [\delta_{d_{S_m}}, \delta_{p_{S_m}}, \delta_{h_{S_m}}] =$$

$$16 \quad [a\delta_{d1} + b\delta_{d2} + c\delta_{d3}, a\delta_{p1} + b\delta_{p2} + c\delta_{p3}, a\delta_{h1} + b\delta_{h2} + c\delta_{h3}]/(a + b + c) \quad (3)$$

17 where the subscripts 1, 2 and 3 are for each compound present in the solvent mixture  
 18 (i.e. DMAC, TMP and PEG) and  $a$ ,  $b$  and  $c$  are the volume fraction of the different  
 19 compounds in the solvent mixture.

$$20 \quad [\delta_{d_{NS}}, \delta_{p_{NS}}, \delta_{h_{NS}}] = [d\delta_{d1} + e\delta_{d2}, d\delta_{p1} + e\delta_{p2}, d\delta_{h1} + e\delta_{h2}]/(d + e) \quad (4)$$

1 where the subscripts 1 and 2 are for each compound present in the nonsolvent mixture  
2 (i.e. DMAC and water) and  $d$  and  $e$  are the volume fraction of the different compounds  
3 in the nonsolvent mixture.

4 It is important to highlight that in this study, the additive PEG was also considered as  
5 compound in the solvents mixture, together with DMAC and TMP. This additive was  
6 treated as solvent (instead of a polymer) for copolymer/solvent/nonsolvent interactions  
7 [31, 32] and for thermodynamic experiments analysis [33]. The authors of these  
8 mentioned research studies considered that nonsolvent additives and solvents may be  
9 considered as unique component. Furthermore, this fact was confirmed via Fourier  
10 transform infrared spectroscopy (FTIR); which showed that after phase inversion, other  
11 than the solvents, PEG was completely removed from the membrane matrix.

12 As it is mentioned previously, the proportions of the nonsolvent mixture  
13 (DMAC/water) used as internal coagulant were changed for each spinning process.  
14 Therefore,  $R_{HSP}$  (NS- $S_m$ ) was the main parameter considered for comparisons and  
15 analysis. The lower is the distance  $R_{HSP}$  (NS- $S_m$ ), the weaker is the coagulant.

### 16 2.3.2 Thermodynamic experiment: cloud point

17 The thermodynamic behavior during phase inversion membrane formation process  
18 can be studied by the ternary phase diagram, where the system  
19 copolymer/solvent/nonsolvent was analyzed. The quantity of nonsolvent required to  
20 induce copolymer precipitation (i.e. cloud point) was plotted for the same spinning  
21 solution (i.e. same copolymer and mixed solvent) but for different nonsolvents  
22 (DMAC/water mixtures at different rates). The cloud point was measured by  
23 turbidimetric titration method [34]. 50  $\mu$ l of each nonsolvent mixture was added  
24 stepwise to the spinning solution, keeping constant the stirring at 150 rpm and the

1 temperature at 42 °C by a magnetic stirrer (IKA, RCT basic) until the dope solution  
2 became permanently turbid.

### 3 *2.3.3 Kinetics experiment: copolymer coagulation*

4 The solvent-nonsolvent exchange rate and the coagulation initiation of the spinning  
5 solution were studied by light transmittance test. The experimental device consists of a  
6 light-emitting diode (LED) tube lamp employed as light source and a set of Light  
7 Dependence Resistances (LDRs) as light detector. The spinning solution was cast and  
8 immersed in different nonsolvent (DMAC/water) coagulation baths and the transmitted  
9 light evolution was registered by a multimeter (KEITHLEY 199 SYSTEM  
10 DMM/SCANNER) connected to a computer. The whole set-up was designed, calibrated  
11 and automated by our research group. Both phase inversion initiation and coagulation  
12 rate of PVDF-HFP in each coagulation bath were determined by the resultant  
13 transmittance curve over the time.

### 14 *2.4 Characterization of hollow fiber membranes*

15 The morphology of the prepared membranes was studied by the field emission  
16 scanning electron microscope (FESEM, JEOL Model JSM-6335F). Previously, the  
17 samples were fractured in liquid nitrogen and then sputter-coated (BALZERS SCD 004)  
18 with a thin layer (~15 nm) of gold under 20 mA.

19 The inner and outer diameters of the hollow fibers were measured by an optical  
20 microscope (OLYMPUS BX60M) with a precision of  $\pm 1 \mu\text{m}$ . Both, the void volume  
21 fraction (i.e. porosity,  $\epsilon$ ) and the liquid entry pressure (*LEP*) in the membrane pores  
22 were determined following the methods described in previous studies [35, 36]. The  
23 porosity of the membranes was measured by the pycnometer gravimetric method as it

1 was explained in detail elsewhere [37]. In this case, *LEP* measurement was carried out  
2 using the procedure and set-up schematized in [17]. The *LEP* results inform about  
3 membrane hydrophobicity and its applicability in MD process. The transmembrane  
4 operating hydrostatic pressure during MD experiment must be always lower than the  
5 *LEP* value, in order to avoid wetting problems.

6 Another parameter related to the hydrophobic character of the membranes is the  
7 water contact angle. Both inner and outer surface contact angles of hollow fiber  
8 membranes were measured at room temperature,  $(30 \pm 1)$  °C, following the method  
9 described by Zhang et al. [38] based on surface tension effects.

10 The bubble pore size, the mean pore size and the smallest pore size of all the  
11 prepared hollow fiber membranes, as well as the cumulative filter flow curves were  
12 determined via gas-liquid displacement Porometer and its corresponding computer  
13 software (POROLUX™ 100, Porometer). POREFIL® (Porometer) was used as the  
14 wetting liquid. The whole followed procedure was described elsewhere [17, 39, 40].

15 Atomic force microscopy (AFM) was the technique employed to study the mean  
16 pore size, the pore size distribution and the roughness of both internal and external  
17 surfaces of the prepared hollow fibers. Nanoscope III equipped with 1553D scanner  
18 (Digital Instruments Inc., Santa Barbara, Ca) in a tapping mode, provided images,  
19 which were treated and analyzed following the same procedure detailed elsewhere [26,  
20 35, 40-42].

21 The melting ( $T_m$ ) and the crystallization ( $T_c$ ) temperatures as well as the enthalpy of  
22 melting ( $\Delta H_m$ ) and enthalpy of crystallization ( $\Delta H_c$ ) were obtained from the  
23 endothermic and exothermic peaks, respectively; which were determined by the  
24 Differential Scanning Calorimetry (DSC) (Mettler-Toledo DSC 1, STAR® System). The

1 measurements were carried out from 3.25 to 3.73 mg samples that were placed in  
2 standard aluminum pans of 100  $\mu\text{l}$  capacity in a nitrogen atmosphere at a flow rate of  
3 60-70 ml/min. The same speed was employed for both heating and cooling at a rate of  
4 15°C/min from 60°C to 200°C. The degree of the crystallinity of the samples was  
5 estimated as stated in other studies [17, 43, 44].

6 The mechanical properties of the hollow fiber membranes were determined at room  
7 temperature using an Instron dynamometer (model 3366), according to ASTM D 3379-  
8 75 specifications. A load cell of 50 N with a cross-head speed of 80 mm/min and an  
9 initial length of the fiber sample of 50 mm were employed. The tensile test of each  
10 membrane was repeated for five samples, and the corresponding characteristics were  
11 calculated as the average of the five measurements.

#### 12 *2.5 Direct contact membrane distillation experiments*

13 DCMD experiments were carried out using the experimental set-up and the  
14 procedure described in detail in [17]. Briefly, six PVDF-HFP hollow fibers were  
15 assembled in a shell-and-tube module with an effective length of 20 cm. The feed and  
16 permeate circulated tangentially to the membrane in a counter-current way. The feed  
17 solution was circulated through the lumen side of the membrane, while the permeate  
18 (distilled water) was circulated through the shell side of the module. First, prior to the  
19 DCMD experiments, a checking leak test was carried out by circulating distilled water  
20 through both the lumen and shell sides of the membrane module at the same  
21 temperature confirming that no mass was registered during at least five hours.  
22 Subsequently, DCMD experiments were performed with distilled water and a salt  
23 aqueous solution (NaCl, 3 wt%) as feed solutions. The feed inlet temperature was 80 °C  
24 and that of the permeate was 25 °C. The feed flow rate was kept at  $13.8 \pm 1.2$  kg/h, and

1 the permeate at  $20.7 \pm 0.6$  kg/h. The permeate flux was calculated based on the mass of  
2 water produced over time and the inner fiber surface area. The salt rejection factor was  
3 determined measuring the electrical conductivity of both the feed and permeate  
4 extracted at the beginning and at the end of each DCMD experiment.

### 5 **3. Results and discussions**

#### 6 *3.1 Spinning solution characterization prior to membrane fabrication*

##### 7 *3.1.1 Physical properties: surface tension, viscosity and Hansen solubility parameters*

8 The surface tension obtained for the used dope solution in this study was ( $30.45 \pm$   
9  $0.20$ ) mN/m. This is an important characteristic parameter to be considered as it affects  
10 the hollow fiber diameters and its thickness as consequence. The spinning solution  
11 viscosity is related to the kinetics of the phase inversion process, during solvent and  
12 nonsolvent interdiffusion. The viscosity of the dope solution prepared for this study was  
13 ( $3688 \pm 81$ ) mPa s, which is in the same order of magnitude as other used PVDF-HFP  
14 spinning dope solutions in other studies [10, 11, 15].

15 As it is summarized in Table 2 and represented in Fig. 1(a), the value of  $R_{HSP}$  for the  
16 pair nonsolvent and solvents mixture (NS- $S_m$ ) linearly decreased when DMAC amount  
17 in the nonsolvent mixture (DMAC/water) increased. This means that the interaction  
18 between nonsolvent and solvent was reduced with the increase of DMAC content,  
19 making the solvent-nonsolvent interdiffusion during the phase inversion process  
20 slower. It is because the coagulant became weaker when the quantity of solvent  
21 increased in DMAC/water mixture as Xu et al. [24] described.

22 Figure 1(a) also shows the intersection between  $R_{HSP}$  (P- $S_m$ ) value for the pair  
23 PVDF-HFP and DMAC40 and the  $R_{HSP}$  (NS- $S_m$ ) curve, which represents the DMAC

1 limit concentration in the nonsolvent mixture for coagulation power effectiveness. The  
 2 corresponding  $R_{HSP}$  (NS- $S_m$ ) of the nonsolvent mixtures D70 and D80 were almost  
 3 equal or even smaller than  $R_{HSP}$  (P- $S_m$ ), respectively. It means that the mixture D70  
 4 could hardly been able to induce the phase inversion of the copolymer, being impossible  
 5 its coagulation if the nonsolvent D80 was used. The conclusions obtained from the  
 6 Hansen solubility analysis could predict the possibility/impossibility of a membrane  
 7 phase inversion formation according the polymer/solvent/nonsolvent interactions.

8  $\Delta R_{HSP}$  (NS-S) dependence on the DMAC concentration in the nonsolvent mixture is  
 9 shown in Fig. 1(b).  $\Delta R_{HSP}$  (NS-S) represents the difference between the  $R_{HSP}$  value for  
 10 the pair nonsolvent mixture and mixed solvent (NS- $S_m$ ) and the  $R_{HSP}$  value for the pair  
 11 nonsolvent mixture and each individual solvent (NS- $S_i$ ). This parameter was calculated  
 12 from the following equation:

$$13 \quad \Delta R_{HSP}(NS - S)_i = R_{HSP}(NS - S_m) - R_{HSP}(NS - S_i) \quad (5)$$

14 where the subscript  $i$  is for each solvent, DMAC or TMP.

15 Interesting conclusions can be drawn from Fig. 1(b). Nonsolvent-solvent affinity  
 16 improved when the solvents mixture was used instead of each solvent individually. This  
 17 was expressed as the negative values of the calculated parameter  $\Delta R_{HSP}$  (NS-S) (i.e.  
 18  $R_{HSP}$  (NS- $S_m$ ) <  $R_{HSP}$  (NS- $S_i$ )).  $\Delta R_{HSP}$  (NS-S) < 0 were obtained for all the DMAC  
 19 concentrations in the nonsolvent mixture ranging from 28 to 75 wt% approximately, for  
 20 both DMAC and TMP solvents. However, for DMAC concentrations below 28 wt% in  
 21 the nonsolvent, using the TMP as individual solvent would enhance the nonsolvent-  
 22 solvent affinity; and for DMAC concentrations higher than 75 wt% in the nonsolvent,  
 23 DMAC would be more advisable to use as a single solvent (i.e. in both cases  $\Delta R_{HSP}$

1 (NS-S) > 0). On the other hand, in the concentration range 28 – 75 wt% DMAC,  
2  $|\Delta R_{HSP}(NS - S)_{TMP}| < |\Delta R_{HSP}(NS - S)_{DMAC}|$  for DMAC content in the nonsolvent  
3 lower than 50 wt% and  $|\Delta R_{HSP}(NS - S)_{TMP}| > |\Delta R_{HSP}(NS - S)_{DMAC}|$  for DMAC  
4 content greater than 60 wt%, as shown Fig. 1(b). Therefore, for low concentrations of  
5 DMAC in the nonsolvent below 50 wt%,  $R_{HSP}(NS-S_m)$  is closer to  $R_{HSP}(NS-S_{TMP})$  than  
6 to  $R_{HSP}(NS-S_{DMAC})$ . This means that for these DMAC concentrations, TMP is the  
7 predominant solvent of the mixture that intervenes more in the NS-S<sub>m</sub> interaction. An  
8 opposite but more pronounced behavior was observed for higher concentrations of  
9 DMAC (above 60 wt%), concluding that the solvent DMAC is the predominant solvent  
10 of the mixture influencing the NS-S<sub>m</sub> interaction. Furthermore, the calculated values of  
11  $\Delta R_{HSP}(NS-S)$  for each solvent were similar for DMAC concentrations in the nonsolvent  
12 mixture between 50 and 60 wt%. This indicates that in this range both solvents  
13 represented a similar power for nonsolvent-solvent interaction and their influences on  
14 the nonsolvent would be compensated. **Consequently, slower NS-S<sub>m</sub> exchange rate**  
15 **occurred, resulting in the most promising conditions for an appropriate membrane**  
16 **design as porous and sponge-like structure could be obtained.**

### 17 3.1.2 Thermodynamic and kinetics experiments

18 The thermodynamic of the spinning solution during the phase inversion process was  
19 represented in the ternary phase diagram (see Fig. 2). In this study, a unique dope  
20 solution was analyzed; however, the nonsolvent solution was changed increasing the  
21 amount of DMAC in DMAC/water mixture. It was observed that when the content of  
22 DMAC in water was increased, the cloud point shifted away from PVDF-HFP – solvent  
23 axis towards PVDF-HFP – nonsolvent axis; and this effect was much more pronounced  
24 for the highest DMAC concentrations (70 and even more for 80%). It means that larger

1 quantity of nonsolvent was needed for PVDF-HFP precipitation. The results of these  
2 thermodynamic experiments agrees with the  $R_{HSP}$  (NS- $S_m$ ) trend in Fig. 1(a), showing  
3 that increasing the amount of DMAC in water, the nonsolvent become weaker and  
4 consequently the coagulation process starts later. Xu et al. [45] observed the same  
5 direction displacement of the binodal line when the content of DMAC in the nonsolvent  
6 increased for the system poly(ether imide) (PEI)/DMAC/DMAC+water. This result  
7 showed a delayed demixing phase separation process when greater quantity of DMAC  
8 was used in the internal coagulant.

9 The kinetics experiments were carried out via light transmission test, employing the  
10 same dope solution and changing the nonsolvent mixture. The obtained demixing  
11 curves are represented in Fig. 3. The curves show the appearance of three different  
12 stages during the coagulation process as it was also reported by Li et al. [31, 46]. In the  
13 first stage there is a slight decrease of the transmittance, showing a delay in the  
14 nonsolvent penetration into the copolymeric cast film. In the second stage, the curve's  
15 slope changes abruptly indicating the beginning and the rate of the demixing process.  
16 Finally, in the third stage the transmittance reduces approaching an asymptotic  
17 transmittance value indicating the end of the demixing process. By increasing the  
18 quantity of DMAC in the nonsolvent mixture, the registered time for the first stage  
19 became longer and the slope of the curve in the second stage decreased. These mean  
20 that due to the weaker coagulant, the initiation of the phase inversion was delayed and  
21 the coagulation rate became slower, being the three stages indistinguishable when the  
22 highest percentage of DMAC (60 wt%) was used in the nonsolvent mixture. This result  
23 is related to the solubility parameter difference and the thermodynamic results (i.e. the  
24 lower  $R_{HSP}$  (NS- $S_m$ ) is the longer the time to occur the cloud point is and the slower the  
25 coagulation is too). Both parameters indicated that increasing the amount of DMAC in

1 the nonsolvent mixture the coagulation started later and the process was slower. Similar  
2 light transmittance's curves tendency (i.e. lower precipitation rate) was obtained by  
3 Zhang et al. [47] when polyvinyl butyral (PVB) dope solutions came into contact with  
4 DMAC/water coagulation baths. Machado et al. [6] who studied the membrane  
5 formation mechanism of flat-sheet polysulfone (PSf) membranes explained that  
6 increasing the solvent concentration in the coagulation bath diminished the driving force  
7 responsible to leach out the solvent from the polymeric solution, inducing longer liquid-  
8 liquid demixing process as consequence.

9 It is to be noted that when employing higher quantities of DMAC (i.e. 70 and 80  
10 wt%) in the nonsolvent DMAC/water mixture for light transmittance experiments, it  
11 was impossible to observe membrane phase inversion. This may be attributed to the  
12 extremely weakness properties of these coagulants when higher quantity of DMAC  
13 (over 60 wt%) was used in DMAC/water nonsolvent mixture. As it was predicted by  
14  $R_{HSP}$  (NS- $S_m$ ) results (see the limit concentration of coagulation at Fig. 1(a)) and the  
15 cloud point experiments, with both mixtures the copolymer in the dope solution tends to  
16 be dissolved instead of coagulating. From the qualitative model developed for flat-sheet  
17 polymeric membranes by Machado et al. [6], the precipitation rate greatly decreased  
18 tending to dissolve the polymer for very high solvent concentration in the coagulation  
19 bath. Therefore, in light of all the previous characterization results, it was concluded  
20 that preparing PVDF-HFP hollow fiber membranes under the same experimental  
21 conditions and employing these mixed coagulants (i.e. D70 and D80) would be  
22 impossible. This was experimentally verified using these mixtures as bore liquids to  
23 prepare hollow fiber membranes. It was observed that the nonsolvent mixture D70 used  
24 as the internal coagulant of the spinning process was not able to form the hollow fiber  
25 membrane shape although phase inversion was occurred. Nevertheless, the copolymer

1 coagulation was impossible using D80 as the bore liquid and the phase inversion did not  
2 take place.

### 3 *3.2 Hollow fiber membrane characterization*

#### 4 *3.2.1 Morphology of the hollow fiber membranes prepared with different internal* 5 *coagulants*

6 The cross-section and the internal surface of the hollow fiber membranes were  
7 analyzed by SEM and the corresponding images can be seen in Fig. 4. These illustrate  
8 the effect of the internal coagulant by analyzing the evolution of the internal structure of  
9 the membranes prepared with different internal coagulants (i.e. different amount of  
10 DMAC in DMAC/water mixtures). In general, all the membranes present common  
11 asymmetric cross-section morphology, a sponge-like structure in the middle and a  
12 finger-like structure in the external and/or internal layers. When water was used as a  
13 bore fluid, long fingers ended by voids grew from the inner layer to the middle of the  
14 fiber cross-section, while short fingers appeared in the outer layer. Increasing DMAC  
15 concentration in DMAC/water mixture modified both the cross-section and the inner  
16 surface structure of the membranes. The fingers of the outer layer became longer while  
17 the fingers of the inner layer became shorter, changing therefore the thickness of the  
18 middle sponge-like structure. This effect on membrane morphology was also observed  
19 by Xu et al. [24] when low concentrations of DMAC (i.e. 0, 10, 20 and 30 wt%) in  
20 water were used as internal coagulant for the fabrication of the PVDF hollow fibers.  
21 Besides the structure of the PVDF-HFP membranes prepared for the present study, from  
22 SEM images a thinner hollow fiber cross-section was detected for the membranes  
23 prepared with higher DMAC content in the DMAC/water mixture. This will be  
24 explained in the following 3.2.2 section.

1 Porous inner surfaces were observed for all the fabricated membranes. The largest  
2 internal surface pore sizes were observed for the membranes 1IND50 and 1IND60,  
3 when the greatest amounts of DMAC were used in the bore liquid, as it will be  
4 confirmed by means of AFM analysis. The thermodynamic experiment results could  
5 explain the skinless inner surfaces of the prepared hollow fibers [45]. When DMAC  
6 concentration in the internal coagulant was increased, the cloud point was greater. This  
7 means that more quantity of nonsolvent can be incorporated to the dope solution,  
8 resulting in a greater amount of solvent in the nascent inner layer of the hollow fiber  
9 during the spinning process. The solvent inflow from the bore liquid may decrease the  
10 local polymer concentration on the inner interface, preventing the formation of the  
11 dense skin-layer and obtaining a more open-porous inner surface structure [25, 48]. It is  
12 worth quoting that a skinless and open microporous inner surface of the PSf hollow  
13 fiber membranes was detected by Rahbari-sisakht et al. [25] when 1-Methyl-2-  
14 pyrrolidone (NMP)/water mixture was used as the bore liquid. By increasing the NMP  
15 content from 50 to 90 wt%, the inner surface became more porous with larger pores.  
16 Zhang et al. [47] also observed a porous inner surface structures of PVB hollow fibers,  
17 when high solvent amounts were added in the internal coagulants. Furthermore, as it can  
18 be seen in Fig. 4, all the inner surfaces exhibited a stretched morphology due to the  
19 gravity force that elongated the fiber along the gap distance. This stretching effect was  
20 more pronounced when increasing the DMAC concentration in the bore liquid. The  
21 nascent hollow fibers prepared with a high amount of DMAC in the internal coagulant  
22 were not coagulated very fast along the air gap leading to a great stretching effect of the  
23 hollow fiber.

24 As it can be seen in Fig. 4, all the outer surfaces of the PVDF-HFP hollow fibers  
25 presented similar dense skin-layer as a consequence of the dry phase inversion step of

1 the spinning process (i.e. solvent evaporation along the air gap distance) [48-50]. The  
2 aforementioned consequences of the higher cloud point also explained the larger fingers  
3 observed at the outer layer of the fiber when DMAC content in the internal coagulant  
4 mixture was increased. By increasing the DMAC concentration in the bore liquid the  
5 nascent membrane was less coagulated along the gap distance. Then, when the hollow  
6 fiber reached the water bath, the coagulation process became faster and the inflow of  
7 water from the outer layer of the membrane induced the formation and growth of longer  
8 fingers from the external layer.

9 It is worth noting that the fingers of the internal layer disappeared when the highest  
10 quantity of DMAC (i.e. 60 wt%) was used, resulting in the most spongy inner layer (see  
11 IIND60 cross-section in Fig. 4) and the most open-porous inner surface structure (see  
12 IIND60 inner surface in Fig. 4). Therefore, it may be expected a higher MD  
13 performance for the membrane IIND60 [8, 18, 23, 51]. It is well known that a sponge-  
14 like structure corresponds to a lower coagulation rate whereas a finger-like structure  
15 represents a faster solvent-nonsolvent exchange during the coagulation process [17, 24,  
16 35, 46]. The observed changes of the inner structure of the hollow fibers are related with  
17 the characteristics of the dope solution discussed previously. The solubility parameter  
18 distance between the nonsolvent and the solvents mixture ( $R_{HSP}(\text{NS-S}_m)$ ) was decreased  
19 while the cloud point was increased and the coagulation rate was slower when the  
20 quantity of DMAC in DMAC/water mixture was increased. In other words the internal  
21 coagulant became weak with less interaction with the solvent, delaying the precipitation  
22 initiation and slowing down the coagulation during the phase inversion process [24, 52].  
23 Wang et al. [9] also justified the formation of the sponge-like structure near the inner  
24 skin of the PVDF hollow fiber membranes by the delayed phase inversion, caused by  
25 the use of the bore liquid mixture, NMP/water (80:20).

### 1 3.2.2 Structural properties of hollow fiber membranes prepared with different internal 2 coagulants

3 Table 3 summarizes the inner and outer diameters as well as the thickness of all the  
4 prepared hollow fiber membranes in this study. There is no clear effect on either the  
5 internal or external diameters when the amount of DMAC is increased. However, as it  
6 was observed from SEM cross-section images (Fig. 4), the thickness of the membranes  
7 certainly decreased. For 1IND50 and 1IND60 membranes, the thickness was half that of  
8 the 1IND0. Shi et al. [11] observed the same effect for the PVDF-HFP hollow fiber  
9 membranes. This result may be attributed to the decrease of the bore liquid coagulation  
10 power, when a greater solvent quantity was considered. These weaker internal coagulant  
11 mixtures were able to precipitate the spinning solution very slowly, as it was predicted  
12 by the dope solution characterization experiments, and through the air gap distance due  
13 to the stretching of the fiber that was not completely coagulated, the thickness was  
14 reduced as consequence.

15 The void volume fraction or porosity and *LEP* measurements of the hollow fiber  
16 membranes are shown in Table 3. The porosity of the membranes increased while the  
17 *LEP* decreased when larger amount of DMAC in water was used as internal coagulant  
18 mixture. The hollow fiber membrane 1IND0 was out of these trends. This is attributed  
19 to the large and numerous fingers of the inner layer that ended by voids in the middle of  
20 the fiber cross-section. These induced a higher porosity and a lower *LEP* as it was  
21 indicated in [16]. The fiber prepared with the highest amount of DMAC (i.e. membrane  
22 1IND60) resulted to be the most porous membrane. This was justified due to the above  
23 mentioned open-porous structure of the inner layer (see SEM cross-section morphology,  
24 Fig. 4). The void volume fraction of this membrane was greater than the highest value  
25 obtained by García-Payo et al. [13] for the PVDF-HFP hollow fiber membrane prepared

1 with the lowest copolymer concentration (i.e.17 wt%). A similar effect was detected by  
2 Rahbari-sisakht et al. [25] when a mixed bore liquid (NMP/water) was employed for  
3 PSf membrane fabrication. The overall porosity increased from 62.0 to 71.7 % when a  
4 50 wt% of NMP was employed instead of water.

5 As it can be observed in Fig. 4, when DMAC content in the bore liquid was  
6 increased the inner surface pore size became larger and bigger fingers were detected in  
7 the external layer of the fiber cross-section. These explain the decrease of the *LEP* with  
8 the DMAC content in the bore liquid. It is worth noting that the obtained *LEP* values  
9 were higher than 1 bar, confirming that all the prepared membranes can be applied in  
10 MD technology. These *LEP* values are in the same range as that reported for other  
11 PVDF-HFP fibers used for DCMD [13] but higher than those determined for all the  
12 PVDF-HFP hollow fiber membranes considered for the experimental design developed  
13 by Khayet et al. [21].

14 Both inner and outer contact angle measurements are also collected in Table 3. No  
15 clear trend was observed between these values and the internal coagulant mixtures used  
16 for hollow fiber membrane preparation. However, it can be observed that the inner  
17 contact angles were much larger than outer contact angles. The same result was  
18 observed by Zhang et al. [38] for fluorinated hydrocarbon hollow fiber when using the  
19 same contact angle measurement procedure. The very high inner contact angles  
20 obtained in this study show that the inner layers of these fibers have similar  
21 hydrophobicity to the polytetrafluoroethylene (PTFE) flat-sheet membrane reported by  
22 Zhang et al. [53]. The obtained results for the outer contact angles can be compared to  
23 the dynamic contact angles of other fibers measured by a tensiometer. All the  
24 membranes prepared in this study have similar outer contact angles to those of other  
25 PVDF-HFP hollow fibers [10], but higher than the water contact angle of the PVDF

1 commercial membrane analyzed by Shi et al. [11]. This result confirms the hydrophobic  
2 character enhancement of the PVDF-HFP membrane due to the HFP group addition to  
3 the PVDF chain.

4 The pore sizes of the hollow fiber membranes obtained by means of Porometry test  
5 are shown in Table 4. These values were higher than the average pore size of the PVDF-  
6 HFP hollow fiber membranes prepared by Wongchitphimon et al. [10]. When the  
7 amount of DMAC in the internal coagulant mixture was increased, the bubble pore size  
8 was gradually increased, while both the mean and smallest pore sizes became  
9 significantly bigger for the fibers prepared with the highest amount of DMAC in water  
10 as inner coagulant. This means that not only greater pore sizes were obtained, but also  
11 pore size distributions were wider, as shown in Fig. 5 when higher amount of DMAC  
12 was used in the internal coagulant. A similar effect was observed by Zhang et al. [54]  
13 for the yttria-stabilized zirconia (YSZ) fibers pore size distributions when NMP/water  
14 mixtures with higher amount of solvent were used as internal coagulants. The narrowest  
15 pore size distribution corresponded to the membrane prepared with pure water as  
16 nonsolvent. This was also observed in this study for PVDF-HFP hollow fibers. The  
17 mean pore size of the aforementioned YSZ membranes and the PSf hollow fibers  
18 prepared by Rahbari-sisakht et al. [25] also increased with increasing the NMP content  
19 in the bore liquid.

20 Figure 6 shows the 3D AFM images of the inner surface of the hollow fiber  
21 membranes prepared with different internal coagulant mixtures and Table 5 summarizes  
22 the roughness of both the inner and outer surfaces of hollow fibers. No tendency was  
23 detected for the mean roughness of the outer surface. If the standard deviations are  
24 taken into account, all the values can be considered similar, which is in accordance with  
25 the presence of the skin-layer in the external surfaces of all the prepared membranes

1 (see Fig. 4) as discussed earlier. Similar roughness values were obtained for the outer  
2 surface of other PVDF-HFP hollow fiber membranes, which were also prepared with a  
3 large air gap distance [13, 55]. Nevertheless, the inner surface of the membranes  
4 became significantly rougher when increasing the DMAC quantity in the bore liquid  
5 (DMAC/water mixture) up to 60 wt% (see 1IND60 in Fig. 6). This effect on the fiber  
6 surface roughness may be related to the open-pore, sponge inner layer structure, and  
7 formation of bigger nodules.

8 The mean pore size and the corresponding standard deviation of the inner surfaces  
9 were analyzed (Table 6). All these values were higher than those determined for the  
10 inner surface of other PVDF-HFP hollow fiber membranes prepared with different  
11 copolymer concentrations and distilled water as a bore liquid [13]. Greater pores were  
12 found on the internal surface of the membranes prepared with higher amounts of  
13 DMAC (50 and 60 wt%) in the bore liquid. This result was previously observed from  
14 the corresponding SEM surface images (see Fig. 4). Figure 7 shows the cumulative pore  
15 size distributions and the probability density functions of the corresponding surfaces. It  
16 can be seen that the curves of the membranes 1IND50 and 1IND60 shift towards bigger  
17 surface pore sizes coinciding with the mean values presented in Table 6.

18 Figure 8 and Table 7 summarize the thermal properties of the hollow fiber  
19 membranes measured by DSC. Both melting and crystallization temperatures and the  
20 corresponding enthalpies, of the hollow fiber membranes fabricated with different  
21 internal coagulants, were found to be similar to each other and to the copolymer, PVDF-  
22 HFP. This result proved that the bore liquid did not affect either the thermal properties  
23 or the crystallinity of the membranes. The melting temperatures as well as the  
24 corresponding enthalpies fell within the data range of PVDF-HFP, included in  
25 Handbook of Polymers [56], 125 – 164 °C and 36 – 65 J/g, respectively. It is to point

1 out that the maximum DCMD operating temperature considered in this study was 80 °C,  
2 much lower than both  $T_m$  and  $T_c$  obtained for all PVDF-HFP hollow fiber membranes;  
3 ensuring that the fibers did not suffer any thermal deterioration during DCMD process.

4 MD technology does not require the use of membranes with very high mechanical  
5 properties compared to other pressure-driven membrane processes (Microfiltration,  
6 Ultrafiltration, Nanofiltration and Reverse Osmosis). The transmembrane hydrostatic  
7 pressure applied in MD is smaller. However, it is important to know the mechanical  
8 characteristics of the membranes in order to guarantee a good packing of the  
9 membranes in modules [1, 3]. The obtained stress-strain experiments are plotted in Fig.  
10 9 and from these curves the main mechanical parameters were calculated (see Table 8).  
11 The Young's modulus ( $E$ ) represents the stiffness of the hollow fiber membranes. The  $E$   
12 parameter values summarized in Table 8 were higher than those reported by Shi et al.  
13 [11] and Wongchitphimon et al. [10] for other PVDF-HFP hollow fiber membranes. By  
14 increasing the DMAC concentration in the internal coagulant mixture,  $E$  was reduced  
15 and the membranes became more elastic. This effect may be related to the increase of  
16 fiber's porosity (see Table 3), facilitating the polymeric chains movement during the  
17 stress-strain experiments. The same behavior was detected by Shi et al. [11] when PVP  
18 was added into the PVDF-HFP spinning solution. Nevertheless, the  $E$  parameter  
19 obtained for the membrane prepared with the highest amount of DMAC in the bore  
20 liquid (1IND60) did not follow this tendency, it was higher than the Young's modulus  
21 of the hollow fiber 1IND50. In fact, these two membranes had similar porosities. Hence,  
22 it may be the change in membrane morphology the responsible of the elasticity  
23 difference. As it can be observed in Fig. 4, the fiber 1IND60 is totally free of fingers at  
24 the inner layer and exhibits larger sponge-like structure along its cross-section than the  
25 membrane 1IND50, making the fiber a little more rigid [15]. The yield and the tensile

1 stress at break were also analyzed, and both were decreased when the amount of DMAC  
2 was higher in the internal coagulant. These results indicate the reduction of the stress  
3 held before leaving the elastic region and fracture. The observed decrease of tensile  
4 stress at break may be due to the thickness decrease (see Table 3) when a weaker  
5 coagulant was used as a bore liquid [5, 39]. However, for both membranes, 1IND50 and  
6 1IND60, with a similar thickness, the yield and the tensile stress at break of 1IND60  
7 were slightly higher than those of the membrane 1IND50. This might be attributed to  
8 the inner layer sponge-like structure of 1IND60 and to its stronger and better  
9 interconnected inner surface. It is worth noting that all the prepared PVDF-HFP  
10 membranes had a tensile stress at break similar or even higher than the reported value of  
11 other hollow fibers [10, 11, 15, 57]. The strain at break of the hollow fiber membranes  
12 decreased following the same tendency than the tensile stress at break. These values  
13 were all lower than the strain at break data of PVDF-HFP fibers reported in other  
14 studies [10, 11, 15] but higher than the strain at break of the PVDF commercial hollow  
15 fiber (i.e.  $128 \pm 16$  %), tested by Shi et al [11]. It was stated that the observed ductile  
16 behavior improvement of all the PVDF-HFP fibers compared with PVDF ones was due  
17 to the amorphous group HFP embedment in the PVDF polymeric structure [11].

### 18 *3.3 DCMD experiments of hollow fiber membranes prepared with different internal* 19 *coagulants*

20 In order to compare the DCMD performance of the prepared membranes, the  
21 permeate fluxes ( $J$ ) and the salt rejection factors ( $\alpha$ ) are presented in Fig. 10. As it was  
22 expected, the obtained permeate fluxes when distilled water was used as feed were  
23 higher than those corresponding to the feed salt aqueous solution (NaCl, 3 wt%) and all  
24 hollow fiber membranes exhibited good salt rejection factors. It is worth noting the  
25 good fabrication reproducibility of the hollow fiber membranes prepared in this study. It

1 was confirmed by SEM that the membranes prepared in different batches had the same  
2 morphology, and as it is shown in Fig. 10, the obtained DCMD permeate fluxes are  
3 within the error range. The permeate fluxes presented in Fig. 10 were greater than the  
4 maximum DCMD fluxes reported for other PVDF-HFP hollow fiber membranes (i.e.  
5 1.3 kg/m<sup>2</sup>h for distilled water as feed at 45 °C and a permeate temperature of 20 °C; 6.5  
6 kg/m<sup>2</sup>h for distilled water as feed at 80 °C and a permeate temperature of 25 °C; 5.4  
7 kg/m<sup>2</sup>h for 3 wt% NaCl feed solution at 80 °C and a permeate temperature of 25 °C)  
8 [13, 55]. According to the membrane characterization results and the obtained DCMD  
9 fluxes, it can be concluded that the use of a mixed internal coagulant improves the  
10 hollow fiber morphology, properties and DCMD performance, as consequence. The  
11 permeate flux enhancement was not very noticeable when water was changed for 20  
12 wt% DMAC/water or 40 wt% DMAC/water mixtures as internal coagulants. Practically  
13 similar DCMD permeate fluxes were obtained for the membranes, 1IND20 and  
14 1IND40, which was totally in accordance with their similar main characteristics such as  
15 cross-section structure, inner surface morphology, and mean pore size. However, a  
16 sharp increase of the permeate flux was observed when the highest amounts of DMAC  
17 (50 and 60 wt%) were used in the bore liquid mixture (DMAC/water). The permeate  
18 fluxes of the membranes 1IND50 and 1IND60 were almost doubled due to various  
19 reasons. Compared to the membrane 1IND0, the thickness of 1IND50 and 1IND60  
20 membranes decreased around 50%, the porosity became nearly a 20% higher, and the  
21 pore sizes were approximately a 70% greater. Furthermore, these hollow fibers had  
22 more open porous inner surfaces with larger pores, and especially the membrane  
23 1IND60 exhibited a thicker sponge-like structure more open at the immediately inner  
24 layer with a higher mean roughness of the inner surface. All the aforementioned  
25 characteristics totally justified the observed greater permeate fluxes of these two hollow

1 fiber membranes, 1IND50 and 1IND60 [5, 13, 16, 17]. These DCMD permeate fluxes  
2 were similar to those exhibited by the optimal PVDF-HFP hollow fiber membrane  
3 developed by a statistical experimental design (i.e. 13.5 kg/m<sup>2</sup>h for 3 wt% NaCl feed  
4 aqueous solution at 75 °C and a permeate temperature of 20 °C) [21]. It is necessary to  
5 highlight that these hollow fiber membranes had excellent salt rejection factors, 99.76%  
6 (1IND50) and 99.94% (1IND60) although their maximum pore size were greater than  
7 that of the other fibers.

#### 8 **4. Conclusions**

9 The selection of the nonsolvent type for PVDF-HFP hollow fiber membrane  
10 preparation strongly affected the membrane morphology, its structural characteristics,  
11 and DCMD performance. It was demonstrated that the morphology of these fibers was  
12 determined by the quantity of DMAC in water used as an internal coagulant for their  
13 preparation. As it was predicted by the spinning solution characterization techniques,  
14 the resultant membrane morphology directly depends on the nonsolvent-solvent  
15 interactions and thermodynamic and kinetics of membrane phase inversion. The  
16 usefulness and validity of the Hansen solubility parameter distance analysis prior  
17 membrane preparation was demonstrated. This procedure can be applied to any phase  
18 inversion membrane prepared with different spinning solutions and coagulants  
19 minimizing therefore the number of the experiments.

20 It was observed that the higher was the quantity of DMAC in the nonsolvent mixture,  
21 the weaker was the internal coagulant, and the earlier and slower was the phase  
22 inversion of the membrane. Therefore, more porous inner surfaces with larger pore sizes  
23 were formed and the finger-like structure of the inner layer was reduced or even

1 disappeared forming an open-spongy structure when the greatest content of DMAC was  
2 used in the bore liquid.

3 Other structural characteristics of the hollow fibers were enhanced when the solvent  
4 concentration was increased in the internal coagulant such as the lower thickness, higher  
5 porosity, larger pore size, narrower inner surface pore size distribution and higher inner  
6 surface roughness. The larger bubble pore sizes resulted in lower *LEP* values.

7 In general, all the prepared membranes exhibited adequate thermal and mechanical  
8 properties for MD application. The most significant improvements were obtained for  
9 the hollow fibers prepared with the highest concentrations of DMAC in the bore liquid  
10 mixtures. The corresponding membranes (1IND50 and 1IND60) were the thinnest and  
11 the most porous with the largest pore sizes, leading to the greatest DCMD permeate  
12 fluxes and maintaining high salt rejection factors during desalination by DCMD. These  
13 results might be even improved if the skin-layer could be removed from the outer  
14 surface of these PVDF-HFP hollow fiber membranes. This is the main objective of the  
15 next research study [58].

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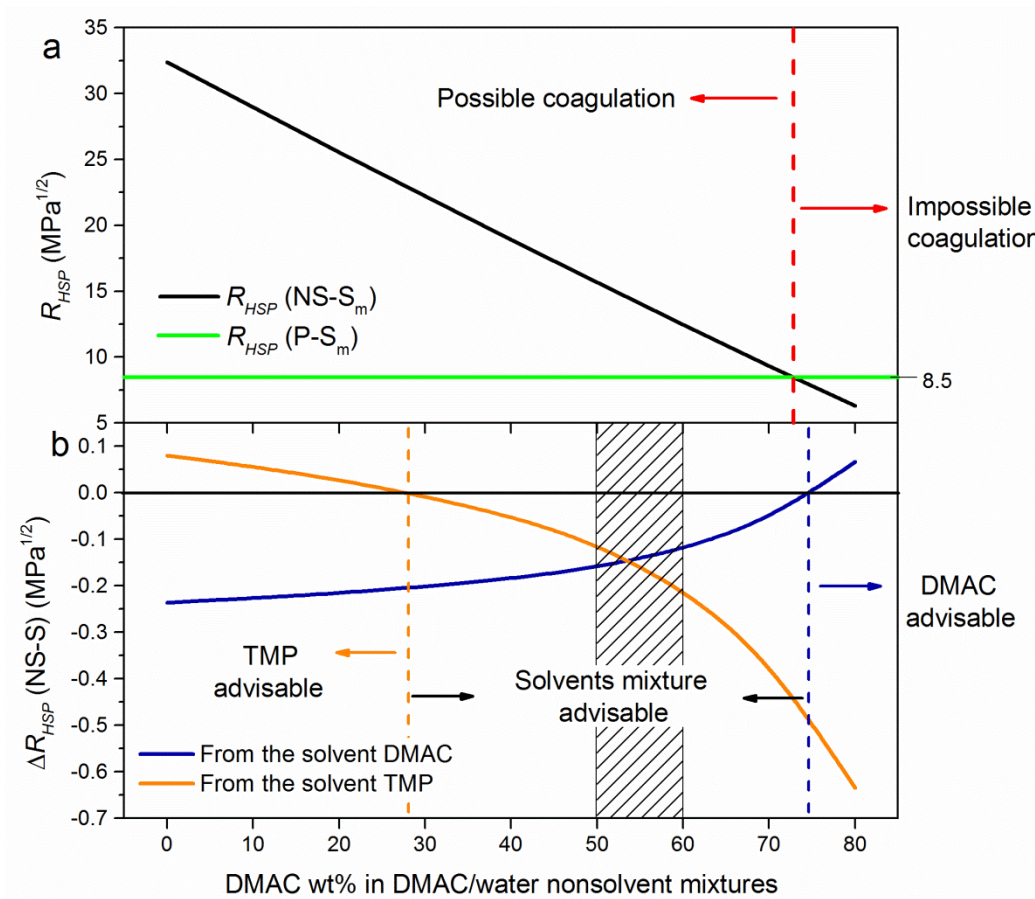
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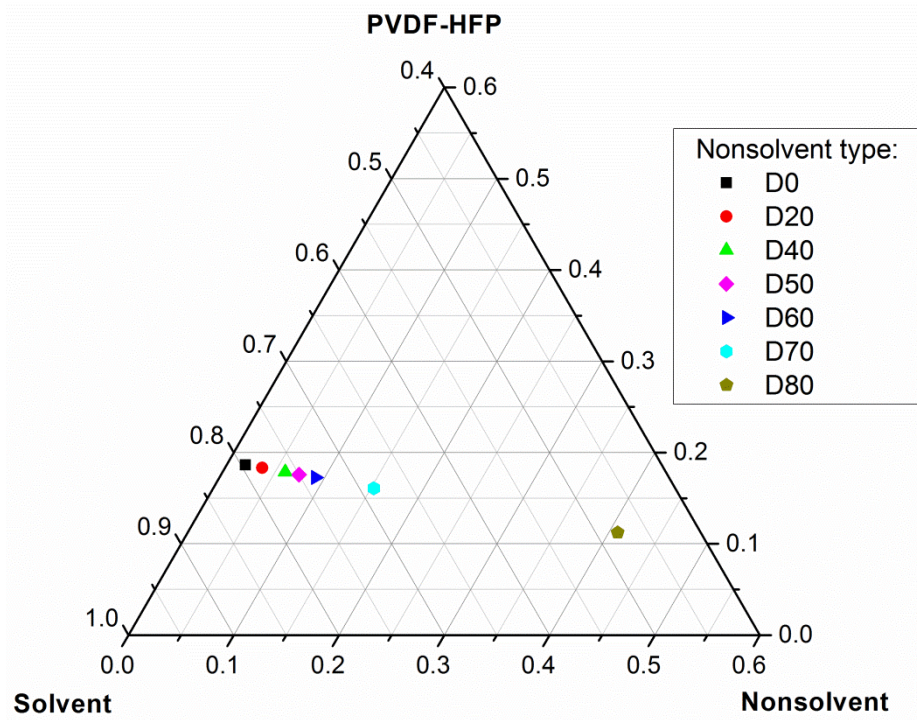
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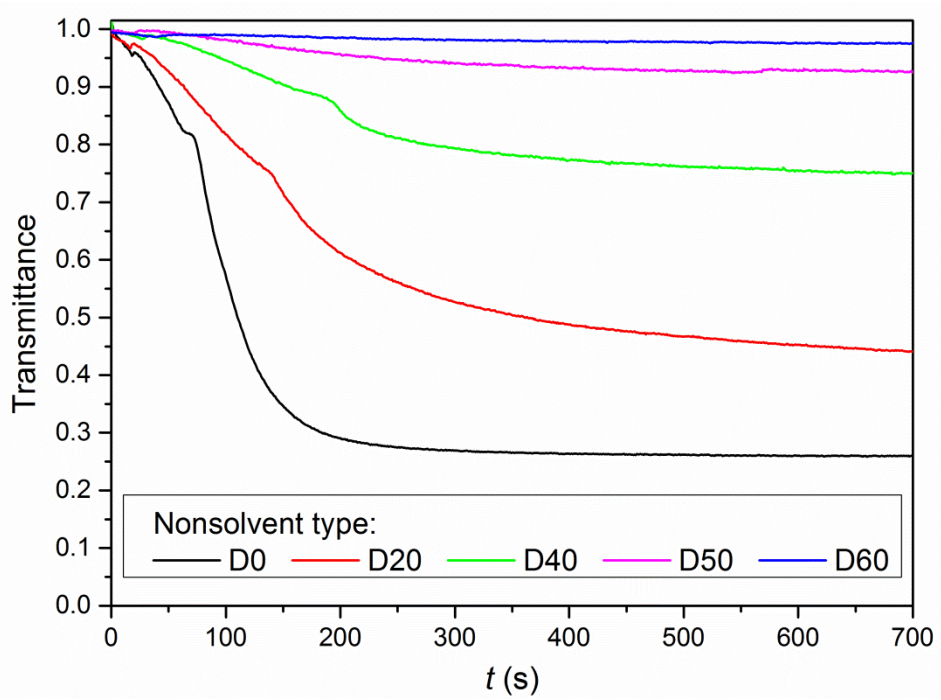
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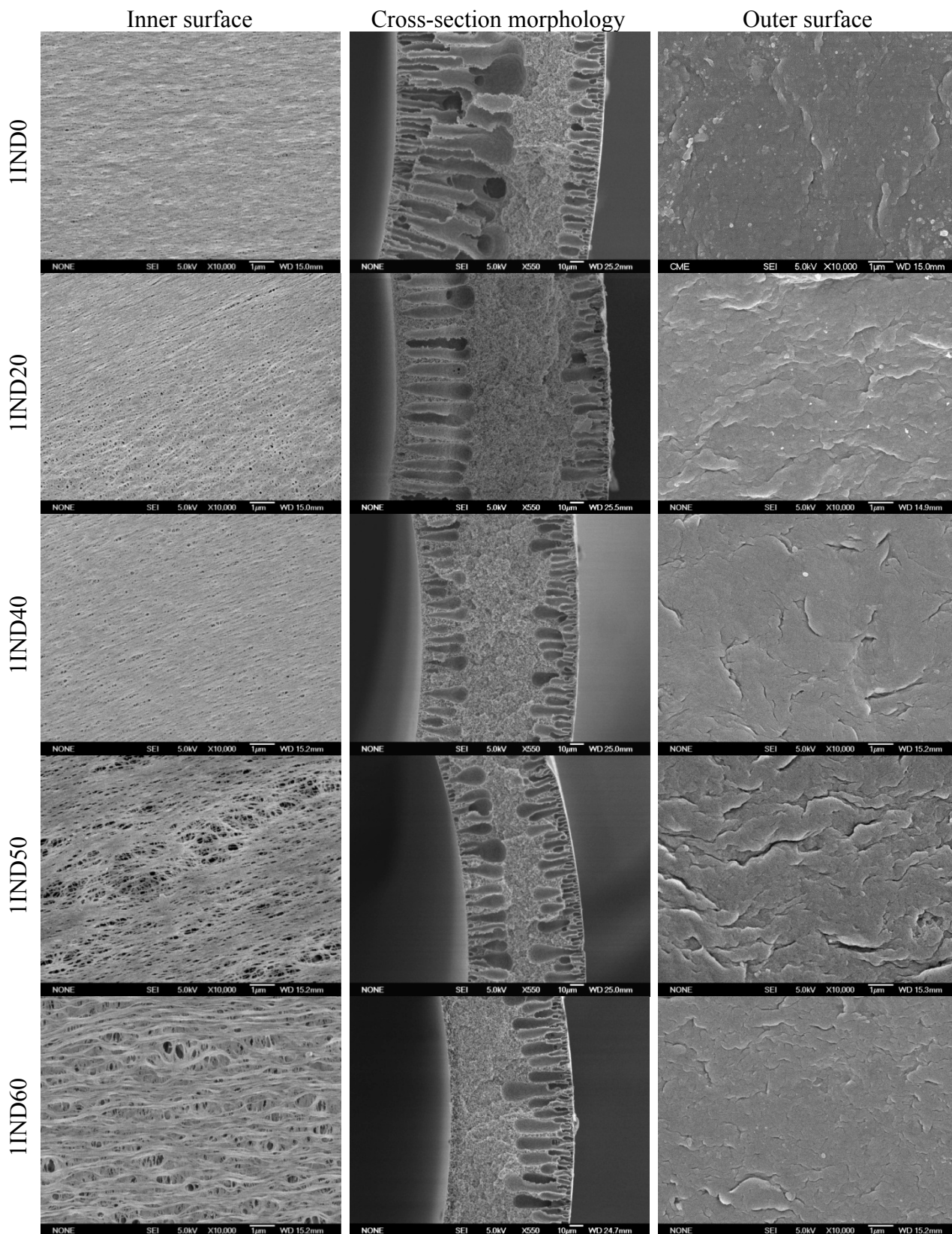
**Fig. 1.** Effect of the DMAC content in DMAC/water nonsolvent mixtures (a) on the  $R_{HSP}$  (NS- $S_m$ ) and (b) on the  $\Delta R_{HSP}$  (NS-S).



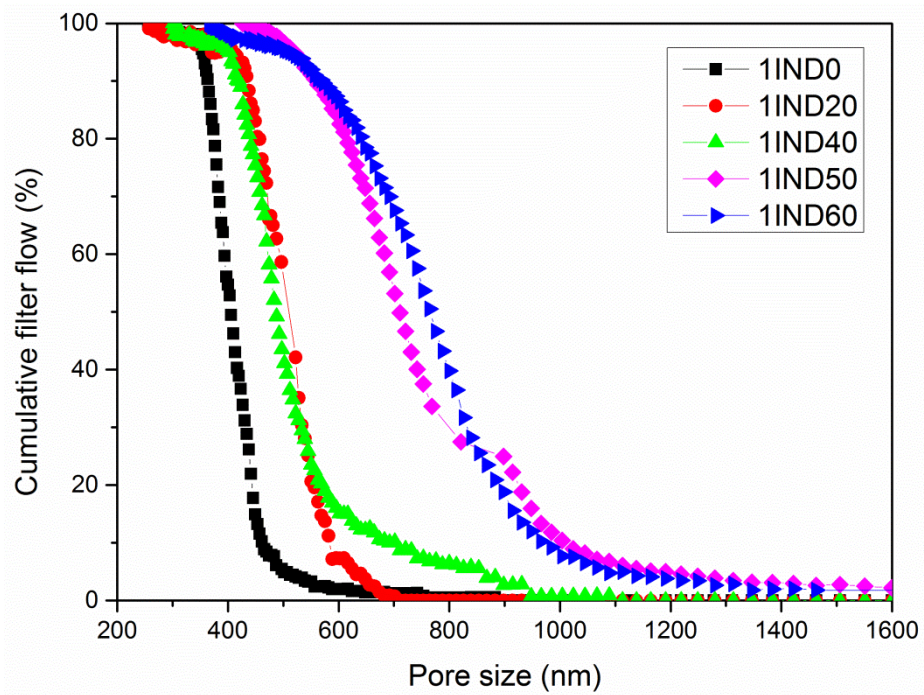
**Fig. 2.** Ternary phase diagram of the copolymer/solvent/nonsolvent systems.



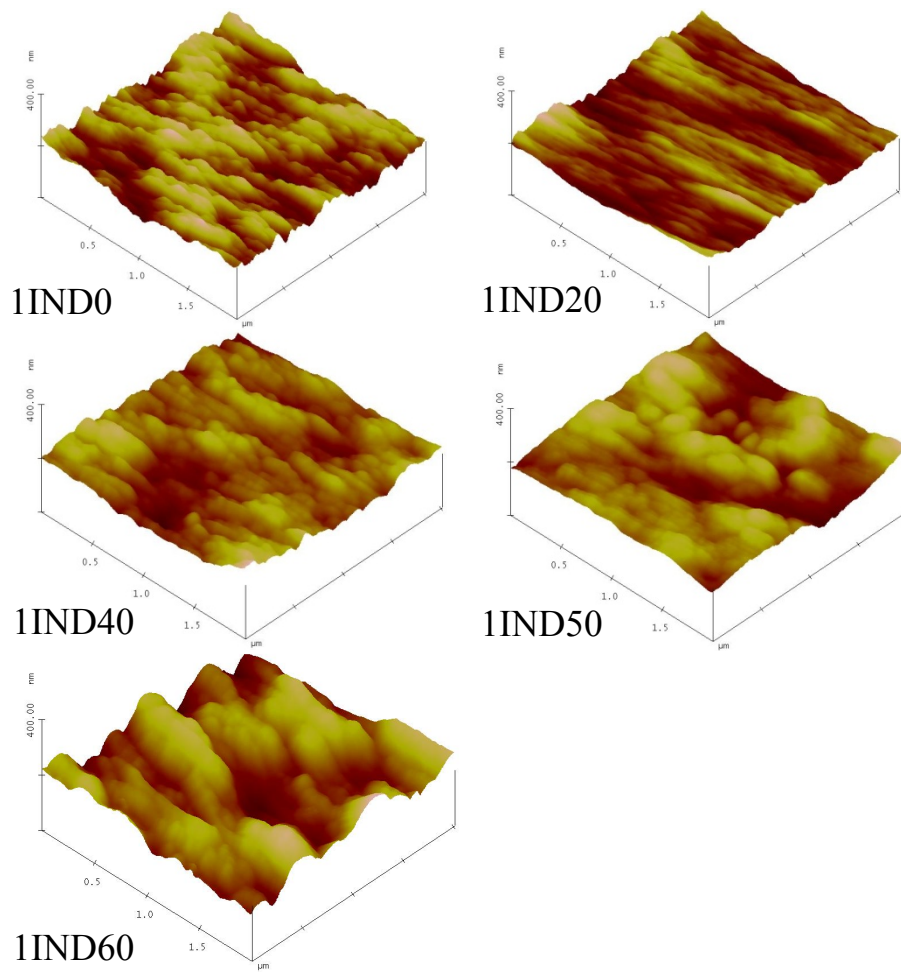
**Fig. 3.** Coagulation experiments of the spinning solution for different nonsolvent mixtures (DMAC/water in different proportions).



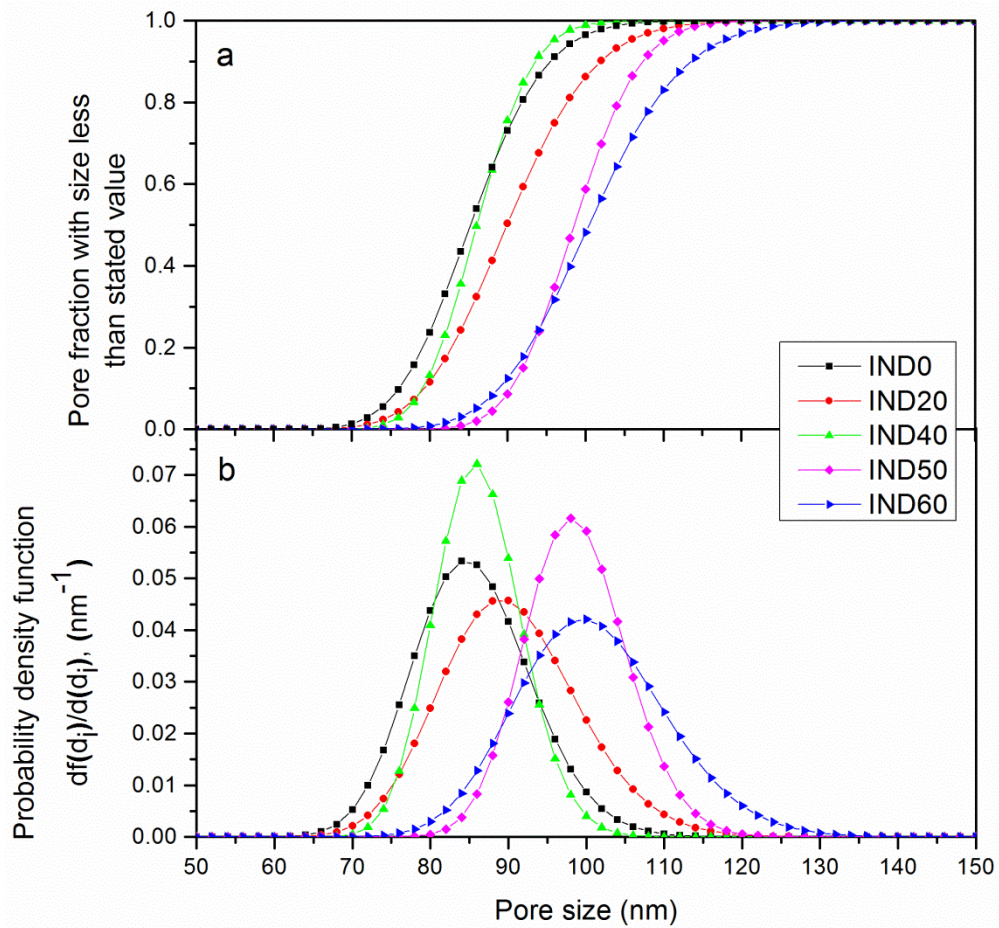
**Fig. 4.** SEM images of the cross-section morphology and the inner and outer surfaces of the hollow fiber membranes prepared with different concentrations of DMAC in water as internal coagulants.



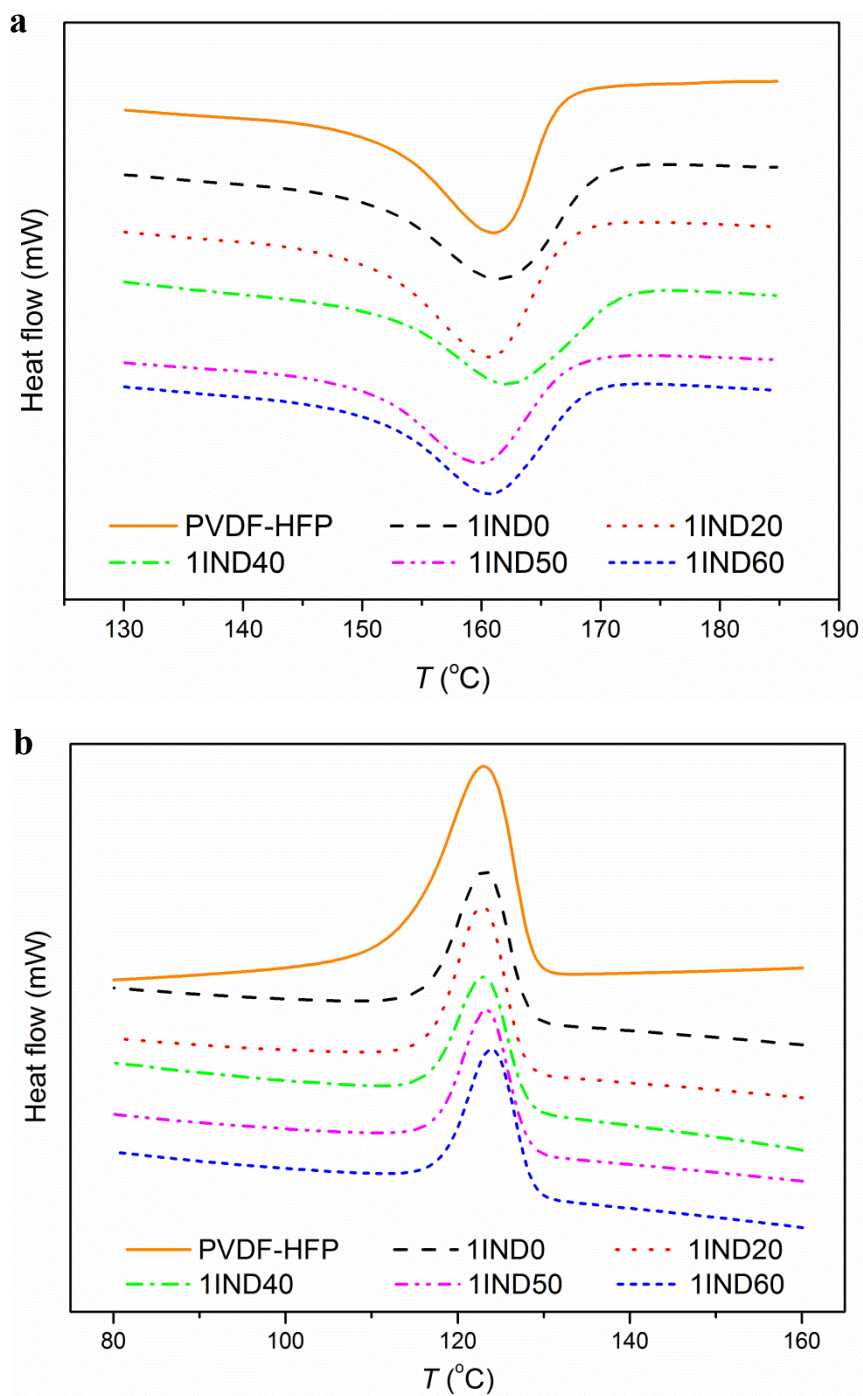
**Fig. 5.** Cumulative filter flow of the hollow fiber membranes prepared with different DMAC concentrations in water as internal coagulants.



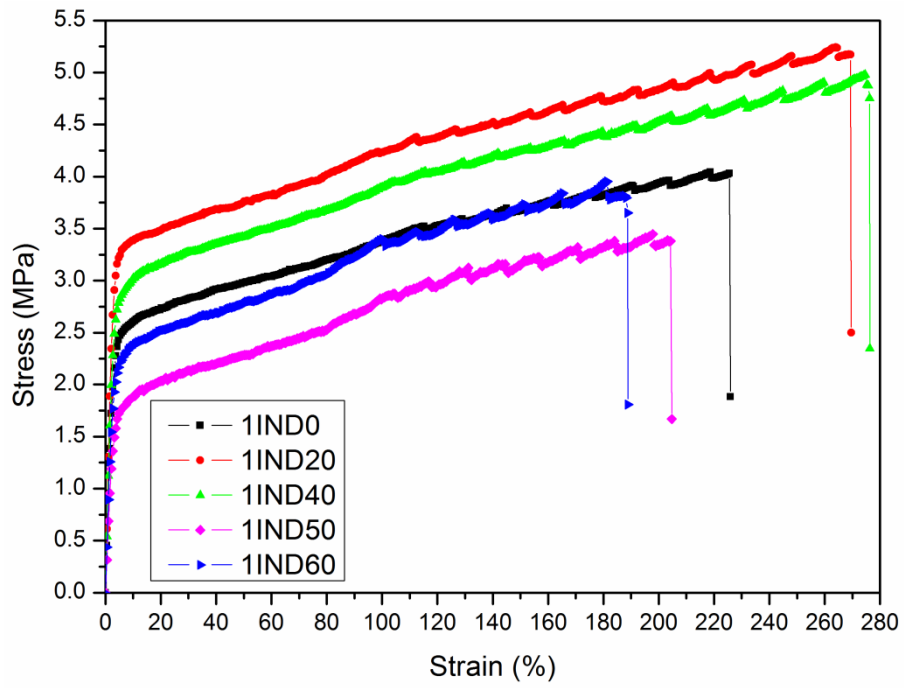
**Fig. 6.** 3D AFM images of the inner surfaces of the hollow fiber membranes prepared with different concentrations of DMAC in water as internal coagulants.



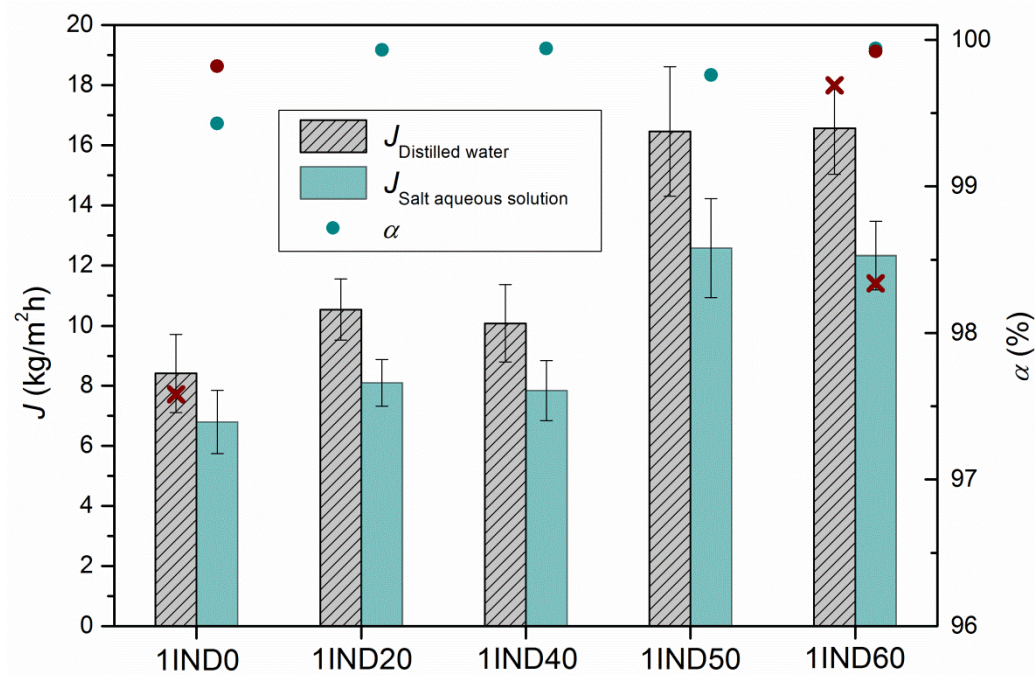
**Fig. 7.** Cumulative pore size (a) and probability density function (b) curves generated from the pore sizes obtained from AFM images of the inner surfaces of the hollow fiber membranes prepared with different DMAC concentrations in water as internal coagulants.



**Fig. 8.** DSC thermograms, (a) heating and (b) cooling of the copolymer PVDF-HFP and the hollow fiber membranes prepared with different concentrations of DMAC in water as internal coagulants.

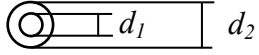


**Fig. 9.** Stress-strain curves of the hollow fiber membranes prepared with different DMAC amounts in water as internal coagulants.



**Fig. 10.** DMCD permeate flux and salt rejection factor of the hollow fiber membranes prepared with different DMAC amounts in water as internal coagulants. (Feed temperature = 80 °C; Permeate temperature = 25 °C). **X** represents the DCMD permeate flux and **●** the salt rejection factor of hollow fiber membranes prepared in different batches.

**Table 1.** Spinning parameters of PVDF-HFP hollow fiber membranes.

Parameters	Operating conditions
Spinneret: 	$d_1 = 1.0 \text{ mm} / d_2 = 2.4 \text{ mm}$
Extrusion pressure (kPa)	60
Polymeric solution temperature (°C)	42
Internal coagulant	DMAC/distilled water
Internal coagulation temperature (°C)	42
Internal coagulant flow rate (m <sup>3</sup> /s)	$2.7 \cdot 10^{-7}$
Air gap distance (m)	0.275
Liquid coagulation bath	Tap water
Liquid coagulation bath temperature (°C)	42

**Table 2.** Solubility parameters of the solvents, the solvents mixture, the additive PEG, the nonsolvent (water and DMAC/water mixtures) and PVDF-HFP with their  $HSP$  distances ( $R_{HSP}$ ).

Material type	Code	Composition: material (wt%)			Solubility parameters (MPa <sup>1/2</sup> )			$R_{HSP}$ (MPa <sup>1/2</sup> ) [16, 27]	
		Compound 1	Compound 2	Compound 3	$\delta_D$	$\delta_P$	$\delta_H$	P-S <sup>ii</sup>	NS- S <sub>m</sub> <sup>iii</sup>
Copolymer (P)	PVDF-HFP [28]	---	---	---	15.3	7.2	5.3	---	---
Additive	PEG [10]	---	---	---	15.3	9.6	8.5	---	---
Solvents	DMAC [27]	---	---	---	16.8	11.5	10.2	7.2	---
	TMP [27]	---	---	---	16.7	15.9	10.2	10.4	---
Solvent mixture (S <sub>m</sub> )	DMAC40 <sup>i</sup>	DMAC (40%)	TMP (60%)	PEG (5%)	16.7	13.6	10.1	8.5	---
Nonsolvent (NS)	Water (D0)	DMAC (0%)	Water (100%)	---	15.5	16	42.3	---	32.4
	D20	DMAC (20%)	Water (80%)	---	15.8	15	35.5	---	25.5
	D40	DMAC (40%)	Water (60%)	---	16	14.1	28.9	---	18.9
	D50	DMAC (50%)	Water (50%)	---	16.2	13.7	25.7	---	15.6
	D60	DMAC (60%)	Water (40%)	---	16.3	13.2	22.5	---	12.5
	D70	DMAC (70%)	Water (30%)	---	16.4	12.8	19.4	---	9.3
	D80	DMAC (80%)	Water (20%)	---	16.5	12.3	16.3	---	6.3

<sup>i</sup> Calculated using Eq. (1).

<sup>ii</sup> P-S: PVDF-HFP-solvent interaction.

<sup>iii</sup> NS-S<sub>m</sub>: nonsolvent-mixed solvent interaction.

**Table 3.** Diameters, thickness, void volume fraction, *LEP* and contact angles of hollow fiber membranes prepared with different amounts of DMAC in water as internal coagulants.

Membrane	Inner diameter ( $\mu\text{m}$ )	Outer diameter ( $\mu\text{m}$ )	Thickness ( $\mu\text{m}$ )	Void volume fraction ( $\varepsilon$ %)	<i>LEP</i> ( $10^5$ Pa)	Inner contact angle ( $^\circ$ )	Outer contact angle ( $^\circ$ )
1IND0	$1190 \pm 180$	$1550 \pm 150$	$180 \pm 40$	$66.0 \pm 2.4$	$1.02 \pm 0.06$	$152.2 \pm 1.3$	$95.8 \pm 0.4$
1IND20	$994 \pm 96$	$1332 \pm 94$	$169 \pm 28$	$53.0 \pm 0.7$	$3.93 \pm 0.20$	$147.5 \pm 1.8$	$99.1 \pm 0.4$
1IND40	$1360 \pm 170$	$1630 \pm 160$	$133 \pm 30$	$62.5 \pm 0.5$	$2.85 \pm 0.21$	$142.6 \pm 0.7$	$89.2 \pm 0.7$
1IND50	$1120 \pm 150$	$1310 \pm 150$	$99 \pm 24$	$76.3 \pm 2.2$	$1.69 \pm 0.19$	$157.7 \pm 1.6$	$90.0 \pm 0.6$
1IND60	$1180 \pm 110$	$1380 \pm 110$	$96 \pm 17$	$78.4 \pm 0.8$	$1.35 \pm 0.34$	$149.8 \pm 0.6$	$89.4 \pm 0.6$

**Table 4.** Bubble pore size, mean pore size, and smallest pore size of the hollow fiber membranes prepared with different amounts of DMAC in water as internal coagulants determined by gas-liquid porosimetry.

Membrane	Bubble pore size (nm)	Mean pore size (nm)	Smallest pore size (nm)
1IND0	566 ± 6	403 ± 3	356 ± 2
1IND20	586 ± 6	488 ± 4	400 ± 3
1IND40	819 ± 13	474 ± 4	403 ± 3
1IND50	1273 ± 30	656 ± 8	492 ± 4
1IND60	1989 ± 74	711 ± 9	528 ± 5

**Table 5.** Minimum, maximum and average mean roughness parameter,  $R_a$ , together with the corresponding standard deviation of the internal and external surfaces of the hollow fibers prepared with different concentrations of DMAC in water as internal coagulants (scan range considered  $2\mu\text{m} \times 2\mu\text{m}$ ).

Membrane	$R_a$ (nm) Inner surface			$R_a$ (nm) Outer surface		
	Minimum	Maximum	Average	Minimum	Maximum	Average
1IND0	13.4	17.4	$16.0 \pm 1.2$	16.7	26.3	$21.0 \pm 4.0$
1IND20	7.3	11.5	$9.1 \pm 1.3$	16.0	24.1	$19.4 \pm 3.0$
1IND40	9.5	14.6	$12.0 \pm 2.0$	15.3	22.6	$18.4 \pm 2.5$
1IND50	10.2	20.8	$13.7 \pm 2.8$	17.9	25.2	$21.4 \pm 2.6$
1IND60	20.0	26.1	$22.8 \pm 2.1$	11.8	25.3	$16.0 \pm 4.0$

**Table 6.** Mean pore size,  $\mu_p$ , and geometric standard deviation,  $\sigma_p$ , of the internal surfaces of the hollow fiber membranes prepared with different concentrations of DMAC in water as internal coagulants.

Membrane	$\mu_p$ (nm)	$\sigma_p$ (nm)
1IND0	85.23	1.09
1IND20	89.91	1.10
1IND40	86.04	1.07
1IND50	98.53	1.07
1IND60	100.44	1.10

**Table 7.** Melting temperature ( $T_m$ ), crystallization temperature ( $T_c$ ), enthalpy of melting ( $\Delta H_m$ ), enthalpy of crystallization ( $\Delta H_c$ ) and crystallinity ( $X_c$ ) of the copolymer PVDF-HFP and the hollow fiber membranes prepared with different DMAC concentrations in water as internal coagulants.

Sample	Heating process		Cooling process		Crystallinity $X_c$ (%)
	$\Delta H_m \pm 0.5$ (J/g)	$T_m \pm 0.15$ (°C)	$\Delta H_c \pm 0.5$ (J/g)	$T_c \pm 0.15$ (°C)	
PVDF-HFP	45.7	160.98	45.4	123.00	43.6
1IND0	45.5	161.49	45.5	123.48	43.4
1IND20	45.6	160.71	45.4	123.00	43.6
1IND40	45.2	162.18	45.3	123.21	43.2
1IND50	45.3	159.97	45.5	123.48	43.3
1IND60	45.4	160.69	45.6	124.25	43.4

**Table 8.** Mechanical properties (Young's modulus,  $E$ ; yield stress,  $\sigma_y$ ; tensile stress at break,  $\sigma_b$  and strain at break,  $\varepsilon_b$ ) of the hollow fiber membranes prepared with different DMAC concentrations in water as internal coagulants.

Membrane	$E$ (MPa)	$\sigma_y$ (MPa)	$\sigma_b$ (MPa)	$\varepsilon_b$ (%)
1IND0	$103 \pm 9$	$1.83 \pm 0.09$	$4.26 \pm 0.20$	$230 \pm 23$
1IND20	$135 \pm 9$	$2.41 \pm 0.02$	$5.4 \pm 0.5$	$267.3 \pm 2.8$
1IND40	$117 \pm 7$	$2.27 \pm 0.23$	$5.0 \pm 0.4$	$269 \pm 10$
1IND50	$62 \pm 6$	$1.15 \pm 0.08$	$3.30 \pm 0.07$	$212 \pm 11$
1IND60	$87 \pm 3$	$1.55 \pm 0.14$	$3.70 \pm 0.21$	$195 \pm 9$

**Highlights:**

Nonsolvent coagulation power efficiency can be determined via Hansen solubility analysis.

Concentration of solvent in the nonsolvent mixture affects the thermodynamic and kinetics experiments.

Open-porous inner surfaces with larger pores were obtained with greater amount of DMAC in the internal coagulant.

DCMD flux was almost doubled using 50 and 60 wt% of DMAC in water as a bore liquid.