



บันทึกข้อความ

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เรื่อง ขออนุมัติค่าตอบแทนการตีพิมพ์ในวารสารวิชาการระดับชาติ เรื่อง "ประสิทธิภาพและสมรรถนะของนาโนฟิลเตรชันของสารละลายสังกะสี: ผลกระทบของความแรงประจุและพีเอช"

เรียน รองคณบดีฝ่ายวิจัยและบริการวิชาการ ผ่านหัวหน้าภาควิชาวิศวกรรมเคมี

อ้างถึงประกาศฉบับที่ 40/2550 ประกาศ ณ วันที่ 22 ตุลาคม 2550 คณะวิศวกรรมศาสตร์ เรื่อง "หลักเกณฑ์การจ่ายค่าตอบแทนการตีพิมพ์ผลงานวารสารวิชาการ คณะวิศวกรรมศาสตร์ มหาวิทยาลัยอุบลราชธานี" ตามความทราบแล้วนั้น

เนื่องจากบทความทางวิชาการของผู้ช่วยศาสตราจารย์ ดร.สุพัฒน์พงษ์ มัตราช เรื่อง "ประสิทธิภาพและสมรรถนะของนาโนฟิลเตรชันของสารละลายสังกะสี: ผลกระทบของความแรงประจุและพีเอช" ได้รับการตีพิมพ์ในวารสารวิชาการระดับชาติ วารสารวิศวกรรมสิ่งแวดล้อมไทย (สวสท.) ปีที่ 24 ฉบับที่ 1: หน้า 9-17 (2553) มกราคม - เมษายน 2553 ดังนั้น ภาควิชาวิศวกรรมเคมี จึงใคร่ขออนุมัติค่าตอบแทนการตีพิมพ์ผลงานในวารสารวิชาการในเรื่องดังกล่าว

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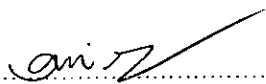
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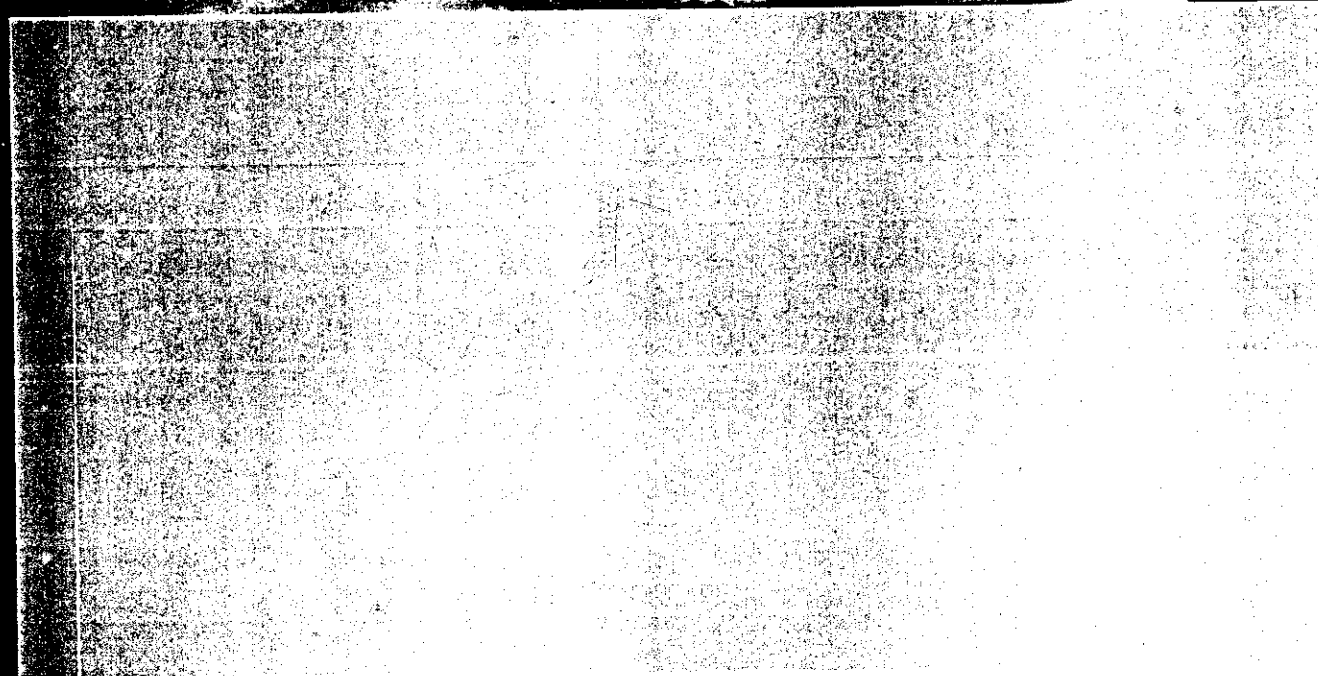
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Nanofiltration Performance and Capacity of Zinc Solution:

Impacts of Ionic Strength and Solution pH

ประสิทธิภาพและสมรรถนะของนาโนฟิลเตรชันของสารละลาย

สังกะสี: ผลกระทบของความแรงประจุและพีเอช

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Abstract

Nanofiltration performance and capacity (i.e. rejection and flux decline) of zinc solution were investigated using a dead-end test cell at room temperature. An aromatic polyamide NF-90 membrane was chosen to determine the impacts of solution chemistry on nanofiltration fouling of zinc solution. The experimental results revealed that solution flux decline was dependent on ionic strength, solution pH, and zinc solutions. Solution flux conducted with different zinc solutions (i.e. ZnSO_4 and $\text{Zn}(\text{NO}_3)_2$) decreased with solution pH. At high pH, flux solutions exhibited greater flux decline than those having low solution pH, while zinc rejection presented higher rejection. Increased ionic strength had a greater increase in flux decline, while zinc ion rejection decreased with decreasing solution pH and increasing ionic strength. Such results were related to low solution pH, it suggested an increased fixed charge of proton (H^+), decreasing electrical double layer thickness within membrane, thus allowing increased zinc concentration passing through the membrane surface. In addition, flux solution and rejection decreased further in higher ionic strength, which reduced negatively charged membrane, and thus decreased rejections.

Keywords : Flux decline; fouling; nanofiltration; rejection; zinc

บทคัดย่อ

ประสิทธิภาพและสมรรถนะของนาโนฟิลเตรชัน (เช่น การกำจัดและการลดลงของฟลักซ์) ของสารละลายสังกะสีได้ทดสอบโดยใช้ชุดการทดลองแบบตายตัวที่อุณหภูมิห้อง เยื่อกรองโพลีเอไมด์แบบ NF-90 ถูกใช้ทดสอบเพื่อหาผลกระทบของอุณหภูมิทางเคมีจากการอุดตันของนาโนฟิลเตรชันโดยสารละลายสังกะสี ผลการทดลองพบว่าการลดลงของฟลักซ์ขึ้นอยู่กับความแรงประจุ ฟิเอชและสารละลายสังกะสี ฟลักซ์สารละลายที่ค่าฟิเอชสูงให้ค่าการลดลงของฟลักซ์มากกว่าสารละลายที่มีค่าฟิเอชต่ำ ขณะที่ค่าการกำจัดของสารละลายสังกะสีให้ค่าสูง การเพิ่มความแรงประจุทำให้เพิ่มการลดลงของฟลักซ์ ขณะที่ค่าการกำจัดสังกะสีให้ค่าลดลงเมื่อลดฟิเอชและเพิ่มความแรงประจุ ผลเนื่องจากค่าฟิเอชที่ต่ำทำให้เพิ่มโปรตอนบนผิวของเยื่อกรองส่งผลต่อการลดชั้นความหนาภายในผิวของเยื่อกรองส่งผลให้ความเข้มข้นของสังกะสีผ่านผิวของเยื่อกรองมากขึ้น นอกจากนี้ฟลักซ์สารละลายและการกำจัดให้ค่าลดลงเมื่อเพิ่มความแรงประจุซึ่งมีผลต่อการลดประจุลบที่ผิวของเยื่อกรองส่งผลให้ค่าการกำจัดลดลง

คำสำคัญ : การลดลงของฟลักซ์; การอุดตัน; นาโนฟิลเตรชัน; การกำจัด; สังกะสี

Introduction

Membrane technologies have been widely used in the field of water treatment due to stringent water quality regulations [1]. They are efficient technologies to remove feed source water in terms of natural organic matter (NOM) [1-5], inorganic scalants [6-8], salt solution [9-11] and heavy metals [12-16]. Nanofiltration (NF), one of membrane technologies, is a relatively new membrane process, which is considered to be intermediate between ultrafiltration (UF) and reverse osmosis (RO) in terms of operating conditions. NF membrane processes operate at pressures between 50 and 150 psi much lower than RO (200 to 1000 psi), but higher than UF (10 to 70 psi). At the present time, NF is increasingly applied in the field of water treatment. For example, ground waters contain high color due to dissolved organic matter (DOM), partially decomposed from plant materials, high hardness from the composition of calcium (Ca^{2+}) and magnesium (Mg^{2+}), and high iron (Fe^{2+}) and manganese (Mn^{2+})

concentration. NF can provide high water quality and large amount of water production in the short period of operation. This can give water quality within drinking water standards. However, membrane fouling caused by organic and inorganic substances can be a major factor for limiting more widespread use of membrane technologies, reducing long-term filtration, and increasing costs for membrane operation through higher labor, cleaning and replacement.

Inorganic fouling (i.e. negative and positive ions) can be a significant factor that enhances permeate flux decline during filtration. This may cause an increased concentration polarization that exceeds solubility limit, resulting precipitation (i.e. Ca^{2+} , Mg^{2+} , CO_3^{2-} , SO_4^{2-} and PO_4^{3-}). This has been recently investigated by Jarusutthirak *et al.* [8]. Molinari *et al.* [13] investigated the interactions between membranes (RO and NF) and inorganic pollutants (i.e. SiO_2 , NO_3^- , Mn^{++} and humic acid). They showed that membrane fouling was caused by the interactions between the membranes and other ions. Other factors, which can cause membrane fouling

are solution pH, ionic strength, concentration, solution composition, and operating conditions.

Zinc and its alloys are inorganic substance which mostly used in mechanical engineering and building. It is estimated that 10 million tons of zinc was used in the year 2001. However, industrialization and urbanization are often accompanied by large pollution emissions. Zinc creates serious problems for drinking waters. Against this increased pollution, very strict standards were imposed for heavy metal content water because of their high toxicity. Drinking water standards of zinc is about 5 mg/L [17].

Fouling on membrane surface by nanofiltration may influence by operating condition such as solution pH and ionic strength. Hence, the objective of this study was to investigate the effects of solution chemistry during nanofiltration of zinc solution. The effects of solution chemistry (i.e. solution pH and ionic strength) were determined on nanofiltration fouling. The discussion of this study was adapted to improve membrane filtration for long-term operation.

Materials and Methods

Nanofiltration membrane characteristics

An aromatic polyamide thin-film composite NF-90 membrane, produced by Dow-FilmTec., was chosen to determine the effect of solution chemistry on nanofiltration performance. According to the manufacturer, the maximum operating pressure is 600 psi (or 4,137.6 kPa), maximum feed flow rate is 16 gpm (3.6 m³/hr), maximum operating temperature 113°F (45°C) and the operating pH is ranged from 1 to 12. Free chlorine tolerance is less than 0.1 ppm. In operation, membrane flat sheets were stored in 1% sodium meta-bisulfite (Na₂S₂O₃) and kept in refrigerator

at 4 °C to prevent microbial activity. The water flux characteristic was determined for 30-min operation with DI water for membrane compaction. The membrane permeability was determined as a slope between cleaned water flux and operating pressures.

Analytical method

Zinc concentration was measured by using atomic absorption (AA) spectrometry (AAnalyst 200 Version 2, Perkin Elmer Corp.). Measurements of solution pH, conductivity and temperature were made using pH meter (Inolab pH level 1 Wissenschaftlich-Technische Werkstätten (WTW) GmbH & Co (Weilheim, Germany)) and conductivity meter (Inolab cond level 2 Wissenschaftlich-Technische Werkstätten (WTW) GmbH & Co. (Weilheim, Germany)), respectively. Ionic strength of samples were calculated using a correlation between conductivity and ionic strength of NaCl standards, $I.S.[M]=0.5\sum C_iZ_i^2$.

Flux decline experiments

The experiments were carried out with three liters of solution containing zinc solution (ZnSO₄ and Zn(NO₃)₂) in fixed concentration of 0.31 mM (about 20 mg/L), while varying solution pH from 4 to 8 and ionic strengths (0.01, 0.05 M as NaCl). Flux decline experiments were tested by using an 400 ml dead-end membrane filtration apparatus (Amicon 8400, USA) with magnetic stirrer (LABINCO, LD-12) and the magnetic spin bar fitted into the cell provided the agitation. The velocity speed was about 300 rpm. A membrane sheet can be fitted to the cell. The membrane active area is 41.38 cm². The operating pressure was employed via high-pressure regulator of nitrogen cylinder. The permeate volume was determined during filtration by using the electrical balances (Mettler

Toledo Monobloc PB-3002-S, USA). After filtration was terminated, two steps of cleaning, i.e. hydrodynamic cleaning followed by chemical cleaning, were performed. For hydrodynamic cleaning, the membrane sheet was cleaned with DI water, then followed with chemical cleaning, acidic solution (using citric acid) with pH of 4 for 30-min each. After each cleaning, water fluxes at different operating pressures were measured to determine water flux recovery.

Analysis of Results

The parameters taken into account were:

- The volumetric flux J_v ($L/m^2/h$ or LMH) was determined by measuring the volume of permeate collected in a given time interval divided with membrane area by the relation:

$$J_v = L_p(\Delta P - \sigma\Delta\pi) = \frac{Q_p}{A} \quad (1)$$

Where L_p is the membrane permeability; ΔP is the transmembrane pressure; σ is the osmotic reflection coefficient; π is the osmotic pressure; Q and A represent flow rate of permeate and the membrane area, respectively.

- The observed rejection was calculated by the following relation:

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

Where C_p and C_i are the solution concentrations in the permeate and in the initial feed solution, respectively.

Results and Discussion

Water flux characteristics

Before the experiments, the membrane permeability was measured after membrane compaction by the effects of pressure on water flux or permeate flux produced from deionized water (DI water). As shown in fig. 1, the effects of pressure at 0, 10, 20, 30, 40 and 50 psi on permeate flux increased linearly with increasing operating pressure with high correlation of 0.9986. The slope represents the membrane permeability (L_p) about $0.4925 \text{ LMH}\cdot\text{psi}^{-1}$. The membrane permeability measured was considered as reference to evaluate cleaning procedure, concentration polarization and fouling.

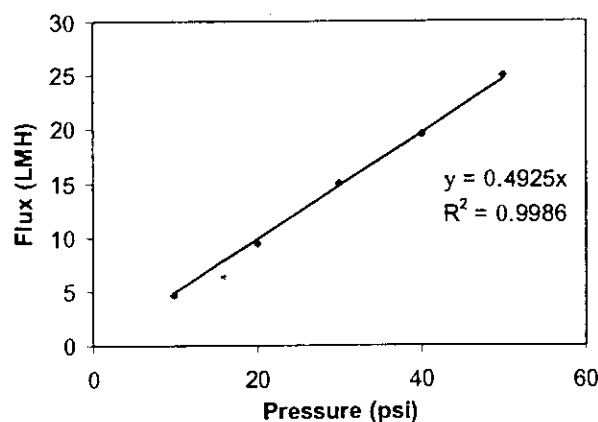
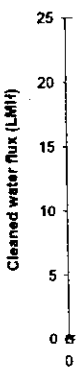


Fig. 1 Effect of pressure on cleaned water flux

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After filtration experiments, the membrane sheets were cleaned with DI water and followed with citric acid in order to investigate water flux recovery. As shown in Fig. 2, the cleaned water flux after system cleaning of ZnSO_4 and $\text{Zn(NO}_3)_2$ at pH 6 had similar flux as water flux after membrane compaction, where hydrodynamic cleaning showed lower flux. However, flux observed after hydrodynamic cleaning was not significantly low when compared with cleaned flux after membrane compaction. This suggested that inorganic zinc could not significantly affect membrane fouling

during filtration experiments. Increased flux caused by chemical cleaning was possibly due to protons from acid which dissolved efficiently inorganic zinc from the membrane surface. A common trend of increase in flux was found for the membrane sheets when cleaned by deionized water and chemical agent. The comparisons of cleaned water fluxes were similarly found with different zinc solutions. This indicated that ionic zinc (ZnSO_4 and $\text{Zn(NO}_3)_2$) showed less non-recoverable fouling after system cleaning, indicating high water flux recovery.

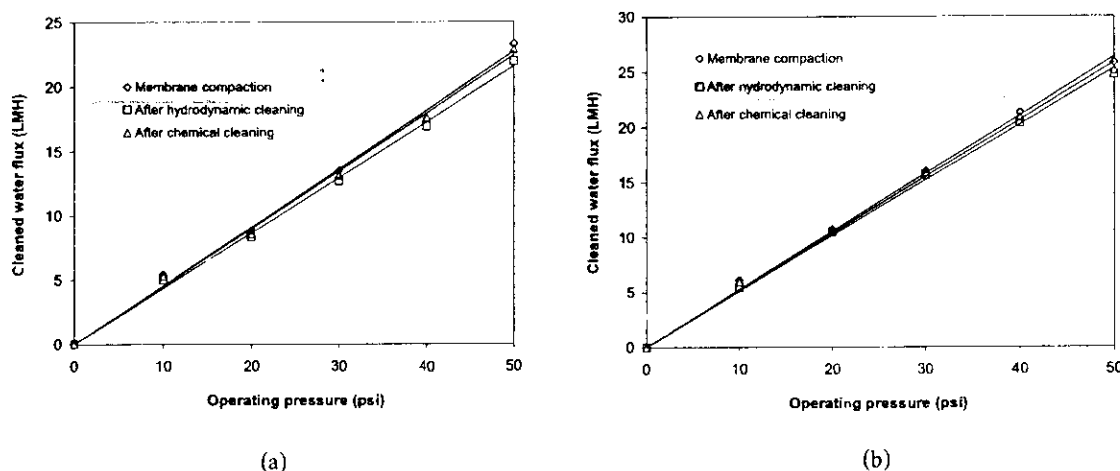


Fig. 2 Cleaned water flux after system cleaning at pH 6 (a) ZnSO_4 and (b) $\text{Zn(NO}_3)_2$

Effects of solution pH on flux

The effects of the solution pH on flux decline of ZnSO_4 and $\text{Zn(NO}_3)_2$ were carried out at pH 4, 5, 6, 7 and 8 with keeping constant ionic strength 0.01 M as NaCl at 60-psi operating pressure. Zinc concentration was about 0.31 mM. Fig. 3 showed relative flux with function of operating period. It can be seen that the rate and extent of flux decline increased with increasing solution pH for both solutions of ZnSO_4 and $\text{Zn(NO}_3)_2$. At the higher pH, flux solutions of $\text{Zn(NO}_3)_2$ ($J_v/J_{v0} = 0.78$ at pH 8) showed higher flux decline than those of low solution pH ($J_v/J_{v0} = 0.91$ at pH 4). At low pH, it

suggested an increased fixed charge of H^+ , decreasing electrical double layer thickness within membrane or both, thus decreased the concentration at the membrane surface. At high pH, the membrane surface and pores become both more negatively charged due to the presence of anion (inorganic). As a result, the pore size of the membrane is reduced because of the repulsion between neighbor negatively charged groups and adopts an extended conformation [18, 19]. In addition, the osmotic pressure near the membrane surface increase at high due to the high salt rejections, which decreased the driving pressure. Together, these mechanisms lead to a

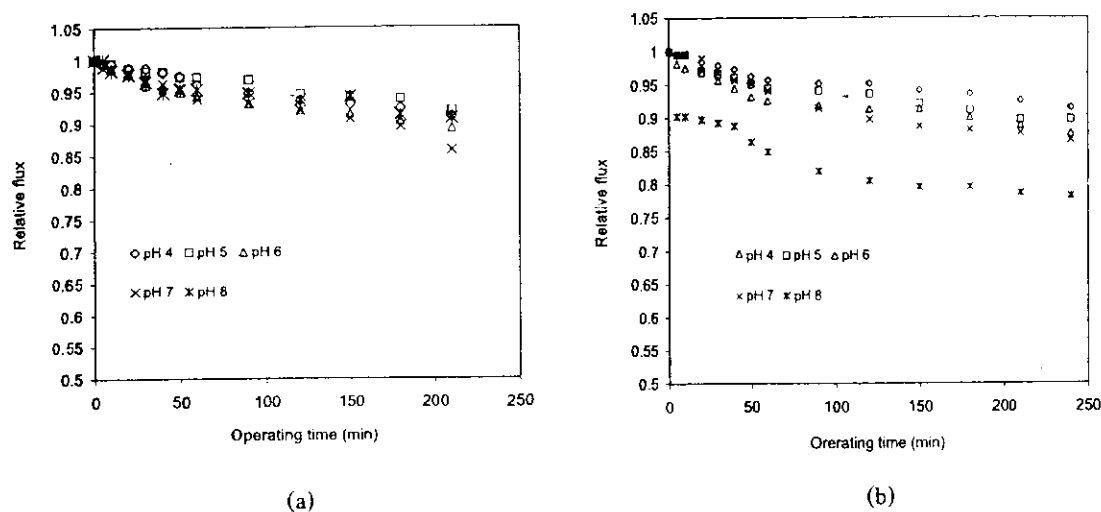


Fig. 3 Effect of solution pH on flux ; (a) ZnSO_4 and (b) $\text{Zn}(\text{NO}_3)_2$

decrease in permeate flux and an increase in salt rejection with pH. From the figure, it was found that solutions having $\text{Zn}(\text{NO}_3)_2$ showed greater flux decline than those having ZnSO_4 , possibly due to higher salt rejections for $\text{Zn}(\text{NO}_3)_2$ solution, thus increased osmotic pressure at the membrane surface.

Effects of ionic strength on flux

Fig. 4 presents the effect of ionic strength on flux that was carried out at pH 6 with different ionic strengths of 0.01 and 0.05 M as NaCl. The solution pH of 6 was selected due to avoid zinc precipitation at high pH and high

hydrogen ion concentration at low pH, which could affect membrane performance. It was observed that the extent and rate of solution flux decline increased with increasing ionic strength. This was possibly due to increased reduced electrostatic repulsion at the membrane surface, thus suggesting high flux decline. Previous study indicated that increases in ion concentration could reduce the permeability of charged membranes [20-22], thus reduced permeate flux. The results showed similar trend for both ZnSO_4 and $\text{Zn}(\text{NO}_3)_2$ solution with increasing sodium salt at the membrane surface.

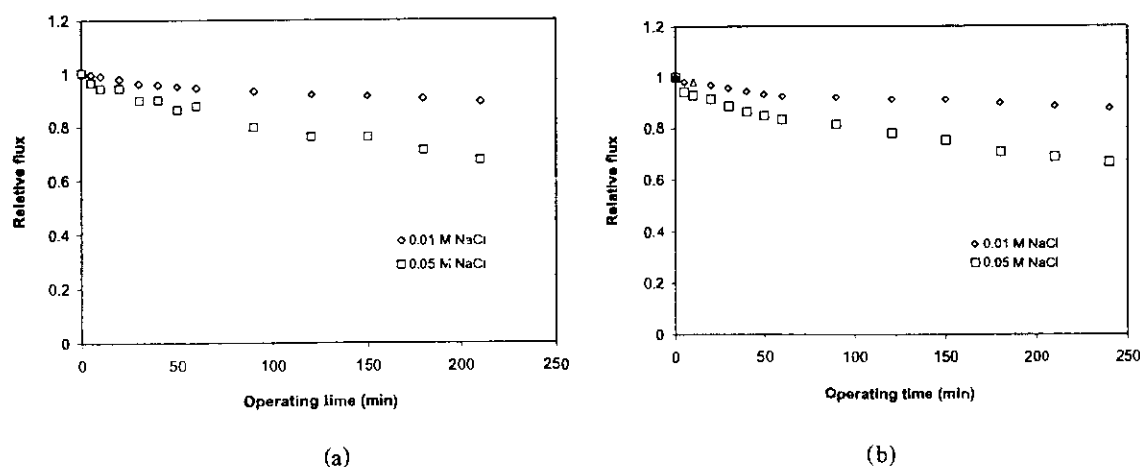


Fig. 4 Effect of ionic strength on flux; (a) ZnSO_4 and (b) $\text{Zn}(\text{NO}_3)_2$

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Effects of solution pH on rejection

The effect of the solution pH on rejection of ZnSO_4 and $\text{Zn(NO}_3)_2$ was carried out with different solution pH from 4, 5, 6, 7 and 8. Ionic strength of 0.01 M NaCl, 60-psi operating pressure and solution concentration of 0.31 mM were maintained constant during filtration. The obtained results were presented in Fig. 5. Zinc ion rejection was found to be decreased with decreasing solution pH level. At higher solution pH, membrane surface take more negative charges, thus attracting greater zinc ion. Consequently, solution pH of 6-8 for ZnSO_4 had greater ion rejection, about 97-98%, while low solution pH exhibited lower rejection about 85-86%. For $\text{Zn(NO}_3)_2$ solution, the ion rejection percentages were approximately 96-99%. At low pH, the zinc ion rejection of ZnSO_4 solution showed lower than that of $\text{Zn(NO}_3)_2$ solution, possibly due to H^+ ion reducing negative charge at the membrane, causing larger membrane pores. This allowed negatively charged anion ion passing through the membrane, thus increasing zinc ion concentration in the permeate in order to maintain electroneutrality condition. This result showed higher zinc ion concentration for ZnSO_4 solution than that for $\text{Zn(NO}_3)_2$ solution, thus lowering zinc ion rejection.

Effect of ionic strength on zinc ion rejection

The effect of salt solution on zinc ion rejection was carried out with ionic strengths of 0.01 and 0.05 M as NaCl as shown in Fig. 6. Solution pH of 6 for ZnSO_4 and $\text{Zn(NO}_3)_2$ solution was kept constant during filtration. It was found that the trend of ionic strength at 0.05 M indicated lower zinc ion rejection than those of 0.01 M. Increased salt concentration can provide positively charged Na^+ at the membrane surface, thus decreased electrostatic charge repulsion. The phenomena can enhance a reduction in double layer thickness on the membrane surface, thus affecting a reduction in membrane permeability. This can allow zinc ion passage through the membrane surface, suggesting a decrease in ion rejection. The zinc ion rejection for ZnSO_4 solution showed higher than that of $\text{Zn(NO}_3)_2$ solution was possibly caused by higher charge repulsion of negatively charged SO_4^{2-} , when compared with negatively charged NO_3^- , thus increased zinc concentration for ZnSO_4 solution in order to satisfy an electroneutrality condition, an equivalent number of zinc ion retained on the membrane surface, thus resulting high zinc rejection.

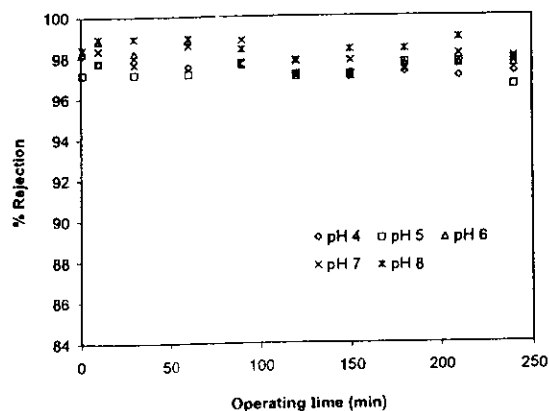
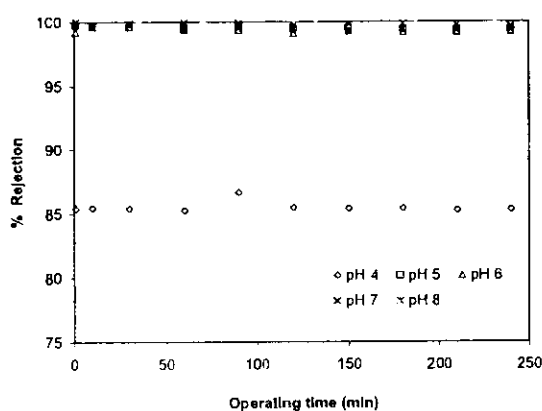


Fig. 5 Effect of solution pH on zinc ion rejection; (a) ZnSO_4 and (b) $\text{Zn(NO}_3)_2$

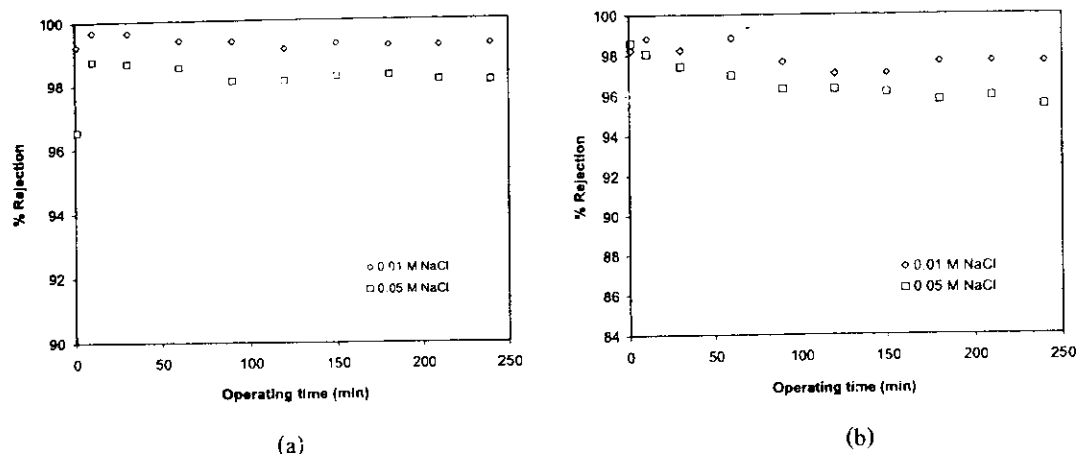


Fig. 6 Effect of salt solution on zinc ion rejection; (a) ZnSO₄ and (b) Zn(NO₃)₂

Conclusions

Zinc ions rejection and flux decline from aqueous solution by nanofiltration was strongly influenced by solution pH and ionic strength. Flux decline for experiment conducted both in ZnSO₄ and Zn(NO₃)₂ solution decreased for solution pH. At higher solution pH, flux solutions showed higher flux decline than those of low solution pH, while zinc rejection exhibited higher rejection. Increased ionic strength had a greater increase in flux decline. Zinc ion rejection was found to be decreased with decreasing solution pH and increasing ionic strength. The experimental results of the study can be determined to improve system performance by adjusting system feed solution (i.e. avoiding low solution pH and high ionic strength) in order to control high removal efficiency and low fouling potential for long-term operation.

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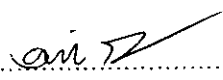
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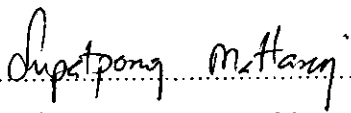
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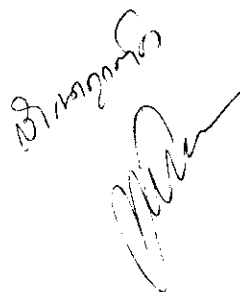
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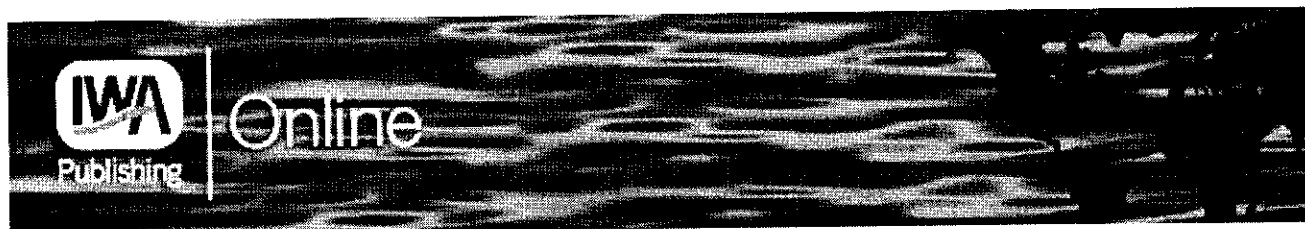
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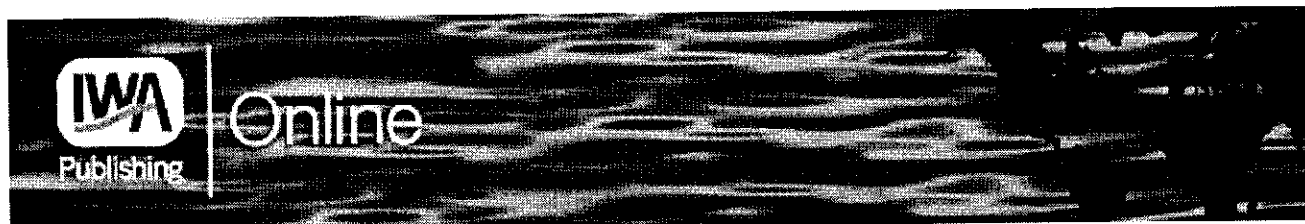
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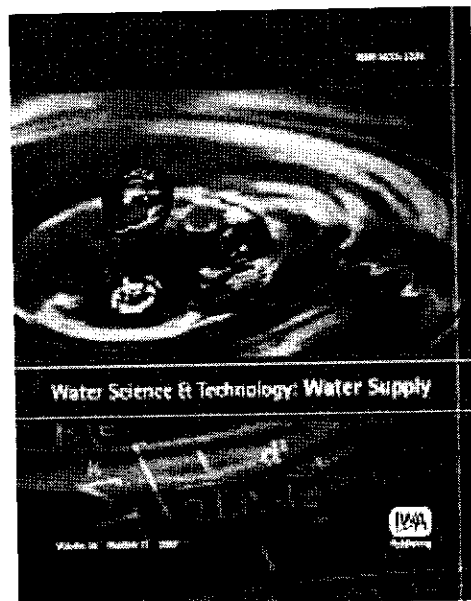
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Nanofiltration performance of lead solutions: effects of solution pH and ionic strength

Wuthikorn Saikaew, Supatpong Mattaraj and Ratana Jiraratananon

ABSTRACT

Nanofiltration performance (i.e. rejection and flux decline) of lead solutions was investigated using a dead-end test cell at room temperature. An aromatic polyamide NF-90 membrane was chosen to determine the impacts of solution chemistry. The experimental results revealed that solution flux decline was dependent on solution pH, ionic strength, and type of lead solutions. Solution flux conducted with different types of lead solutions (i.e. $PbCl_2$ and $Pb(NO_3)_2$) decreased with increased solution pH. Solutions having high pH exhibited greater flux decline than those having low solution pH, while lead ion rejections were relatively high. Increased ionic strengths resulted in a greater flux decline, while lead ion rejections decreased with decreasing solution pH and increasing ionic strengths. Such results were related to low solution pH, suggesting an increase in fixed charge of proton (H^+), decreasing electrical double layer thickness within membrane, thus allowing increased lead concentration passing through the membrane surface. Solution flux and rejection decreased further at higher ionic strengths, which caused a reduced negatively charged membrane, and thus decreased rejections. It was also found that lead ion for $PbCl_2$ solution exhibited higher rejections than that of $Pb(NO_3)_2$ solution.

Key words | flux decline, lead solution, nanofiltration, solution chemistry

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INTRODUCTION

Membrane technologies have been widely used in the field of water treatment due to stringent water quality regulations (Hong & Elimelech 1997). They are efficient technologies to remove feed source water in terms of natural organic matter (NOM) (Cho *et al.* 1999; Kilduff *et al.* 2004; Mattaraj *et al.* 2008), inorganic scalants (Lisdonk *et al.* 2000; Lin *et al.* 2006; Jarusutthirak *et al.* 2007), salt solution (Anne *et al.* 2001; Labbez *et al.* 2003; Childress & Elimelech 2007) and heavy metals (Mehiguene *et al.* 1999; Molinari *et al.* 2001; Ipek 2005; Ku *et al.* 2005; Turek *et al.* 2007). Nanofiltration (NF), one of membrane technologies, is a relatively new membrane process, which is considered to be intermediate between ultrafiltration (UF) and reverse osmosis (RO) in terms of operating conditions. NF membrane processes operate at pressures between 50 and 150 psi much lower

than RO (200 to 1,000 psi), but higher than UF (10 to 70 psi). At the present time, NF is increasingly applied in the field of water treatment. For example, ground waters containing high color due to dissolved organic matter (DOM), partially decomposed from plant materials, high hardness from the composition of calcium (Ca^{2+}) and magnesium (Mg^{2+}), and high iron (Fe^{2+}) and manganese (Mn^{2+}) concentration. NF can provide high water quality and large amount of water production in the short period of operation. It can give water quality within drinking water standards. However, membrane fouling caused by organic and inorganic substances can be a major factor limiting more widespread use of membrane technologies, reducing long-term filtration performance (i.e. water production), and increasing costs for membrane operation through

higher labor, frequent chemical cleaning, and membrane replacement.

Inorganic fouling (i.e. negative and positive ions) can be a significant factor that enhances permeate flux decline during filtration. This may cause an increased concentration polarization that exceeds solubility limit, resulting precipitative fouling of scale-forming species (i.e. Ca^{2+} , Mg^{2+} , CO_3^{2-} , SO_4^{2-} , and PO_4^{3-}). This has been recently investigated by Jarusutthirak *et al.* (2007). Molinari *et al.* (2001) investigated the interactions between membranes (RO and NF) and inorganic pollutants (i.e. SiO_2 , NO_3^- , Mn^{2+} , and humic acid). They showed that increased flux decline was caused by the interactions between the membranes and other ions. Other factors, which can increase flux decline, are solution pH, ionic strength, concentration, operating conditions, and solution compositions. In addition, inorganic fouling caused by the presence of metal ion in the aquatic environment has also been a subject of importance because of its toxicity for human health and environment, while the applications of nanofiltration for removing metal ions are recently limited in terms of solution chemistry affecting NF performance during filtration period. However, previous study mentioned the efficient use of membrane separation processes for the control of lead and copper corrosion (Taylor & Jacobs 1996), and the feasible recovery of valuable metals (Ku *et al.* 2005). The metallic ions can also produce stable complexes with organic compounds, which can be more resistant to metal oxidation in natural water. Lead (Pb^{2+}), known to occur widely as a result of lead plumbing materials and the action of corrosive water, is one of interested inorganic materials used in this study due to relatively low maximum contaminant levels in primary standards (affecting directly to human health) for water quality regulations (Cotruvo & Vogt 1990), while there is a lack of nanofiltration performance of lead solution using various solution pHs and ionic strengths. Therefore, the objective of this paper was to investigate the effects of solution chemistry on nanofiltration performance of different types of lead solutions. The effects of solution chemistry (i.e. solution pH and ionic strength) were determined to evaluate nanofiltration performance of lead solutions. The results of this study could be used to provide system performance of membrane filtration throughout the long operating period.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Nanofiltration membrane characteristics

An aromatic polyamide thin-film composite NF-90 membrane, produced by Dow-FilmTec., was chosen to determine the effect of solution chemistry on nanofiltration performance of different types of lead solutions. The molecular weight cut-off (MWCO) of the NF-90 membrane was about 90 Da, indicating a tight NF membrane (Tahaikt *et al.* 2007). According to the manufacturer's information, the maximum operating pressure is 4,137.6 kPa, maximum feed flow rate is $3.6 \text{ m}^3 \text{ hr}^{-1}$, maximum operating temperature is 45°C and the operating pH ranges from 1 to 12. Free chlorine tolerance is less than 0.1 ppm. NF-90 is generally a tight NF membrane with a very high surface roughness (Bellona & Drewes 2005).

In operation, membrane flat sheets were stored in 1% sodium meta-bisulfite ($\text{Na}_2\text{S}_2\text{O}_5$) and kept in refrigerator at 4°C to prevent microbial activity. The water flux characteristics were determined for 30-min operation with clean water for membrane compaction. The membrane permeability was determined from the clean water flux data at different operating pressures.

Analytical method

Lead concentration was measured by using atomic absorption (AA) spectrometry (AAAnalyst 200 Version 2, Perkin Elmer Corp.). Measurements of solution pH, conductivity and temperature were made using pH meter (Inolab pH level 1, Weilheim, Germany), and conductivity meter connected with temperature (Inolab cond. level 2, Weilheim, Germany), respectively. Ionic strengths of samples were calculated using a correlation between conductivity and ionic strength of NaCl standards, $\text{I.S.}[M] = 0.5 \sum C_i Z_i^2$ (C_i is the ion concentration and Z_i is the number of ions).

Flux decline experiments

The experiments were carried out with three liters of solution containing lead solutions (PbCl_2 and $\text{Pb}(\text{NO}_3)_2$) at fixed concentration about 20 mg L^{-1} , while solution pH from 4 to 6 and ionic strengths (0.01, 0.05 M as NaCl) were varied in this study. As shown in Figure 1, the experiments were tested by using a 400-ml dead end membrane filtration

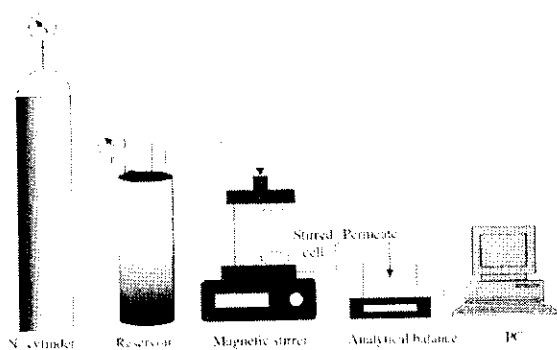


Figure 1 | Schematic diagram of the experimental setup.

apparatus (Amicon 8400, USA) with magnetic stirrer (LABINCO, LD-12), while the magnetic spin bar fitted into the cell provided the agitation. While the dead end filtration system may not be practical compared with the crossflow one, it has been widely used in the laboratory study in order to simulate the situation of severe flux decline and fouling. The stirring speed was about 300 rpm. A membrane sheet was fitted to the cell with the membrane active area of 41.38 cm². The operating pressure was employed via high-pressure regulator of nitrogen cylinder. The permeate volume was determined during filtration by using the electrical balances (Mettler Toledo Monobloc PB-3002-S, USA). After filtration was terminated, two steps of cleaning, i.e. hydrodynamic cleaning followed by chemical cleaning, were performed. For hydrodynamic cleaning, the membrane sheet was cleaned with deionized (DI) water, then followed with chemical cleaning, acidic solution (using citric acid) with pH of 4 for 30-min each. After each cleaning, water fluxes at different operating pressures were measured to determine water flux recovery. For the next run of the experiment, new membrane sheet was used in order to avoid non-recoverable resistance from the previous filtration experiment. New membrane sheet was initially used to characterize clean water flux for membrane compaction, and subsequently used to determine water flux after hydrodynamic and chemical cleaning.

Analysis of results

The parameters taken into account were:

The volumetric flux J_v (L m⁻² h⁻¹ or LMH) was determined by measuring the volume of permeate collected

in a given time interval divided with membrane area by the relation:

$$J_v = L_p(\Delta P - \sigma \Delta \pi) = \frac{Q_p}{A} \quad (1)$$

where L_p is the membrane permeability (LMH kPa⁻¹); ΔP is the transmembrane pressure (kPa); σ is the osmotic reflection coefficient (-); π is the osmotic pressure (kPa); Q_p and A represent flow rate of permeate (L h⁻¹) and the membrane area (m²), respectively.

The observed rejection was calculated by the following relation:

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

where C_p and C_i are the solution concentrations in the permeate (mg L⁻¹), and in the initial feed solution (mg L⁻¹), respectively.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Water flux characteristics

Before the experiments, the membrane permeability was measured after membrane compaction by measuring water flux as a function of operating pressure using DI water. The effect of osmotic pressure in Equation (1) was neglected for DI water. Clean water flux increased linearly with increased operating pressure with the correlation coefficient of 0.999. The slope represents the membrane permeability (L_p) of 0.0714 LMH kPa⁻¹. The measured membrane permeability was considered as reference to evaluate cleaning procedure and water flux recovery after system cleaning.

After filtration experiments, the membrane sheets were cleaned with DI water and followed with citric acid in order to investigate water flux recovery. As shown in Figure 2, the clean water flux after system cleaning of PbCl₂ and Pb(NO₃)₂ solutions at pH 6 was similar to clean water flux after membrane compaction, while water flux observed after hydrodynamic cleaning was lower when compared with clean water flux after membrane compaction. This suggested the inorganic lead resulted in an increase in flow resistance during filtration experiments. Increased flux caused by chemical cleaning was possibly due to

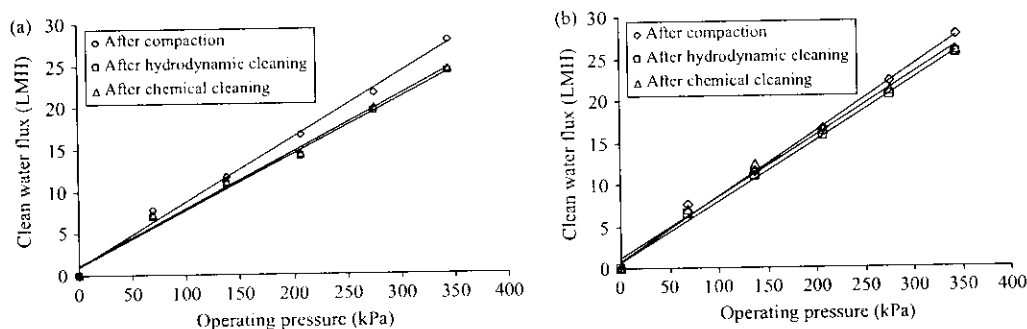


Figure 2 | Clean water flux after system cleaning; (a) PbCl_2 and (b) $\text{Pb}(\text{NO}_3)_2$.

protons from acid, which could efficiently dissolve inorganic lead from the membrane surface, thus enhancing flux recovery. This suggested that an increase in water flux recovery was found for the membrane sheets cleaned by deionized (clean) water and chemical cleaning agent. The comparisons of clean water fluxes were similarly found with two types of lead solutions. This indicated that ionic lead (PbCl_2 and $\text{Pb}(\text{NO}_3)_2$ solutions) showed less non-recoverable resistance after system cleaning, indicating high water flux recovery.

Effects of solution pH on flux and rejection

The effect of solution pH on flux decline of PbCl_2 and $\text{Pb}(\text{NO}_3)_2$ solutions were carried out at pH 4, 5 and 6 with constant ionic strength 0.01 M as NaCl at 413.6 kPa operating pressure. Feed concentration was kept at 20 mg L^{-1} . Figure 3 shows the effect of solution pH on relative flux. It was evident that the extent of flux decline increased with increasing solution pH for both PbCl_2 and $\text{Pb}(\text{NO}_3)_2$ solutions. For higher pH, relative fluxes of

$\text{Pb}(\text{NO}_3)_2$ solution ($J_t/J_{v0} = 0.88$ at pH 6) showed higher flux decline than those of low solution pH ($J_t/J_{v0} = 0.90$ at pH 4). At low pH, it suggested an increased fixed charge of H^+ , which decreased electrical double layer thickness within membrane or both, thus decreased concentration at the membrane surface. At high pH of 6, the membrane surface and pores became more negatively charged, while the anions from lead dissociation was presented in the feed solution. As a result, the pore size of the membrane was reduced because of the electrostatic repulsion between neighboring negatively charged groups, thus adopting an extended conformation (Schaep & Vandecasteele 2001; Teixeira *et al.* 2005). In addition, the osmotic pressure near the membrane surface increased due to high salt rejection, resulting in a decrease of the net driving pressure, thus affecting flux reduction. These mechanisms resulted in a decrease of permeate flux and an increase in salt rejection with increased solution pH.

Figure 4 shows the effect of solution pH on lead ion rejection. It was observed that lead ion rejection was relatively constant throughout filtration period. This indi-

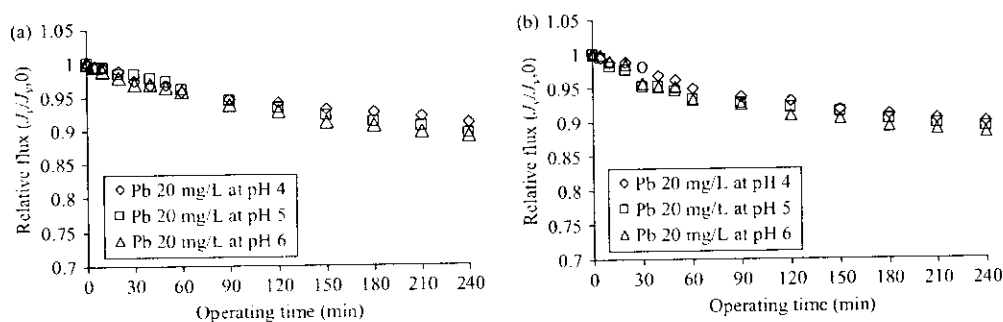


Figure 3 | Effect of solution pH on relative flux; (a) PbCl_2 and (b) $\text{Pb}(\text{NO}_3)_2$.

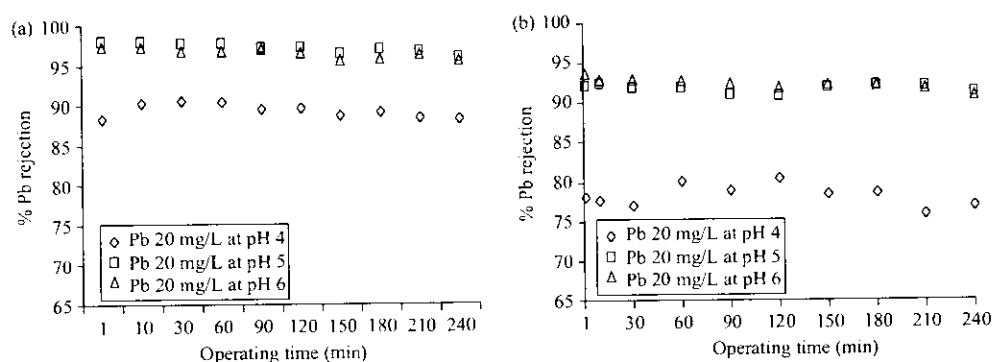


Figure 4 | Effect of solution pH on lead ion rejection; (a) $PbCl_2$ and (b) $Pb(NO_3)_2$.

cated that high diffusive transport became more important than convective transport for the tight NF membrane at constant operating pressure (413.7 kPa). With increasing pressure, convective transport becomes more important and retention, therefore, increases (Mehigucne *et al.* 1999). However, concentration polarization can also increase with increasing pressure, which results in a decrease in retention. The counteracting contributions of increased convective transport and increased concentration polarization result in a constant retention value in the pressure range of 5–15 atm (Mehigucne *et al.* 1999). Lead ion rejection was found to decrease with decreasing solution pH. At higher solution pH, membrane surface became more negatively charged, thus attracting more lead ions. Consequently, for $PbCl_2$, at solution pH of 5–6, higher ion rejections were achieved (about 96–98%), while solution with low pH exhibited lower rejections about 88–91%. For $Pb(NO_3)_2$ solution, the ion rejection percentages of high

solution pH (5–6) and low solution pH of 4 were 91–94% and 76–81%, respectively. At low pH, the lead ion rejections of $Pb(NO_3)_2$ solution were lower than that of $PbCl_2$ solution, possibly due to H^+ ion reducing negative charge at the membrane, reducing double layer thickness at the membrane, thus increased membrane pores. This allowed negatively charged anion ion passing through the membrane, thus increasing lead ion concentration in the permeate in order to maintain electroneutrality condition. This result showed higher lead ion concentration for $Pb(NO_3)_2$ solution than that for $PbCl_2$ solution. Kilduff *et al.* (2004) concluded that the effective membrane permeability increased when a pH was increased, but the flux decreased as a result of increased osmotic pressure effects resulting from increased solute rejection. Such behavior was in contrast to looser membranes having low salt rejection, for which flux increased with pH as a result of the increased membrane permeability.

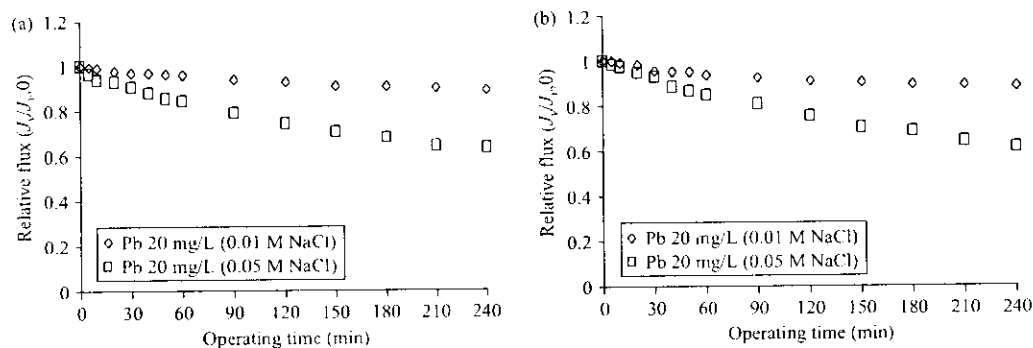


Figure 5 | Effect of ionic strength on relative flux; (a) $PbCl_2$ and (b) $Pb(NO_3)_2$.

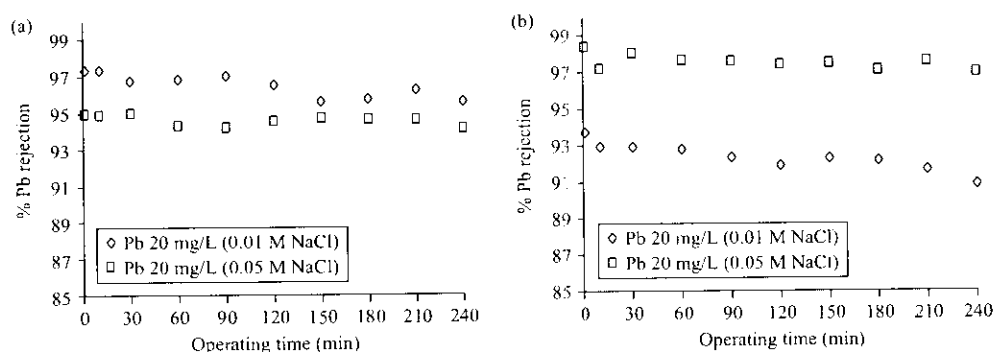


Figure 6 | Effect of ionic strength on lead ion rejection; (a) $PbCl_2$ and (b) $Pb(NO_3)_2$.

Effects of ionic strength on flux and rejection

Figure 5 presents the effect of ionic strength on relative flux. The filtration experiments were carried out at pH 6 with different ionic strengths of 0.01 and 0.05 M as NaCl. The solution pH of 6 was selected in order to avoid lead precipitation at high pH and high hydrogen ion concentration at low pH, which could affect membrane performance. It was observed that the extent of solution flux decline increased with increasing ionic strengths. This was possibly due to reduced electrostatic repulsion at the membrane surface, indicating high flux decline. Many studies indicated that increases in ion concentration could reduce the permeability of charged membranes (Eriksson 1988; Van Reenan & Sanderson 1992; Yaroshchuk & Staude 1992; Mattaraj *et al.* 2008), thus reducing permeate flux. The results showed similar trend for both $PbCl_2$ and $Pb(NO_3)_2$ solutions with increasing ionic strengths, thus suggesting an increase in flux decline.

Figure 6 exhibits the effect of ionic strength on lead ion rejection. It was found that at ionic strength 0.05 M lead ion rejections were lower than those of at 0.01 M. Increased salt concentration can provide positively charged Na^+ ion at the membrane surface, thus decreased electrostatic charge repulsion. The phenomena can enhance a reduction in double layer thickness on the membrane surface, thus affecting a reduction in membrane permeability caused by increased salt concentration on the membrane surface. This can allow lead ion passage through the membrane, suggesting a decrease in ion rejection.

Effect of co-ion on solution flux decline

The effect of the co-ion of lead solution on flux decline was carried out with two types of Pb^{2+} ($PbCl_2$ and $Pb(NO_3)_2$ solutions) at the concentration of 20 mg L^{-1} . The experiments were performed at pH 4, 5 and 6 with constant ionic strength of 0.01 M NaCl and 413.7 kPa operating pressure

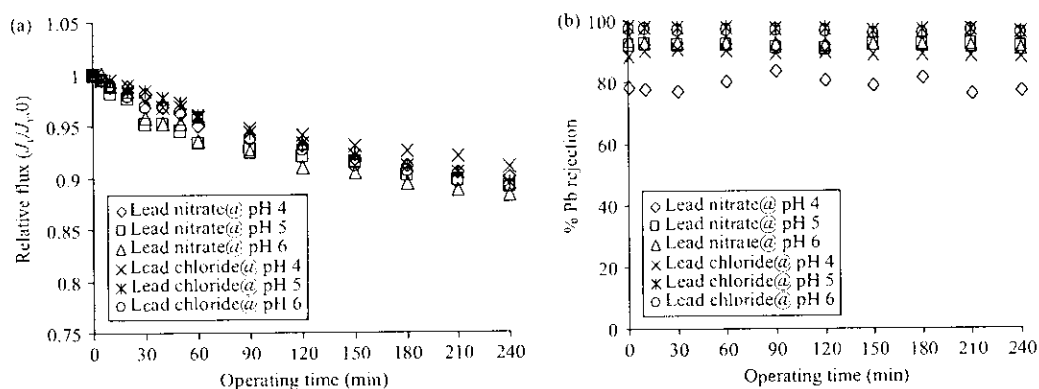


Figure 7 | Comparisons of co-ion on nanofiltration performance of lead solution; (a) relative flux and (b) rejection.

during filtration. Figure 7 shows the comparisons of co-ion on nanofiltration performance of lead solution. It was observed that $\text{Pb}(\text{NO}_3)_2$ solution showed higher flux decline than PbCl_2 solution, while PbCl_2 solution presented higher rejections than $\text{Pb}(\text{NO}_3)_2$ solution. Since the NF membrane is more negatively charged, the monovalent anion of Cl^- ion is more excluded than NO_3^- ion resulting in greater rejection. The lead ion rejections for PbCl_2 solution showed higher than those of $\text{Pb}(\text{NO}_3)_2$ solution. It was possibly caused by higher charge repulsion of negatively charged Cl^- ion, when compared with negatively charged NO_3^- ion, thus increased lead concentration for PbCl_2 solution in order to satisfy an electroneutrality condition. The lead ions were retained on the membrane surface which resulted in high lead rejection.

In addition, Mehiguene *et al.* (1999) concluded that the retention of metallic cations was enhanced when the charge valency of associated co-ion increased. These observations were explained by Donnan exclusion phenomena (Donnan 1995), and were described by thermodynamic equilibrium. Consequently, as the membrane is negatively charged, co-ions are excluded and cations were also rejected in order to ensure electroneutrality at both side of the membrane. This was an important feature in nanofiltration (Mehiguene *et al.* 1999). Moreover, the difference effects in hydration energy of co-ions (Cl^- and NO_3^-) could be also explained for this experiment. Chloride ion has larger hydration energy than nitrate ion, thus resulting in greater rejection (Mehiguene *et al.* 1999). Similar results were observed by Choi *et al.* (2001). The rejection ratio between chloride and nitrate ion was determined about 1.08 for RO membrane (Amiri & Samici 2007), while the rejection ratio was about 1.14 for NF-90 membrane (Tahaike *et al.* 2007) and 1.45 for the loose NF Nanomax 50 (MWCO about 300) (Frares *et al.* 2005).

CONCLUSIONS

Lead ion rejection and flux decline from aqueous solution by nanofiltration membrane were strongly influenced by solution pH and ionic strengths. Flux decline of filtration experiments conducted for both PbCl_2 and $\text{Pb}(\text{NO}_3)_2$ solutions increased with increased solution pH. Solutions

having high solution pH showed greater flux decline than those having low solution pH, while lead rejections exhibited higher rejection. Increased ionic strengths resulted in a greater increase in flux decline. Lead ion rejection was found to be decreased with decreasing solution pH and increasing ionic strengths. The experimental results of the study can be applied to improve system performance by adjusting system feed solution (i.e. avoiding low solution pH and high ionic strength) in order to control high rejection efficiency and high water production throughout the long operating period.

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