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This is the Accepted version of the following publication

Myat, Darli Theint, Mergen, Max, Zhao, Oliver, Stewart, Matthew Blair, Orbell, John and Gray, Stephen (2012) Characterisation of organic matter in IX and PACI treated wastewater in relation to the fouling of a hydrophobic polypropylene membrane. *Water Research*, 46 (16). pp. 5151-5164. ISSN 0043-1354 (print), 1879-2448 (online)

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1 **Characterisation of organic matter in IX and PAC treated wastewater in relation to the**  
2 **fouling of a hydrophobic polypropylene membrane**

3

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10

11 **Abstract:**

12

13 Extensive organic characterisation of a wastewater using liquid chromatography with a  
14 photodiode array and fluorescence spectroscopy (Method A), and UV<sub>254</sub>, organic carbon and  
15 organic nitrogen detectors (Method B) was undertaken, as well as with fluorescence  
16 excitation emission spectroscopy (EEM). Characterisation was performed on the wastewater  
17 before and after ion exchange (IX) treatment and polyaluminium chlorohydrate (PAC)  
18 coagulation, and following microfiltration of the wastewater and pre-treated wastewaters.  
19 Characterisation by EEM was unable to detect biopolymers within the humic rich  
20 wastewaters and was not subsequently used to characterise the MF permeates. IX treatment  
21 preferentially removed low molecular weight (MW) organic acids and neutrals, and moderate  
22 amounts of biopolymers in contrast to a previous report of no biopolymer removal with IX.  
23 PAC preferentially removed moderate MW humic and fulvic acids, and large amounts of  
24 biopolymers. PAC preferentially removed proteins from the biopolymer component, with  
25 tryptophan-like proteins removed to a lesser extent than tyrosine-like proteins and UV<sub>210</sub>  
26 adsorbing biopolymers. IX showed no preference for the removal of proteins compared to

27 general biopolymers. An increase in the fluorescence response of tryptophan-like compounds  
28 in the biopolymer fraction following IX treatment suggests that low MW neutrals may  
29 influence the structure and/or inhibit aggregation of organic compounds. Fouling rates for IX  
30 and PAC treated wastewaters had high initial fouling rates that reduced to lower fouling rates  
31 with time, while the ETP wastewater displayed a consistent, high rate of fouling. The results  
32 for the IX and PAC treated wastewaters were consistent with the long term fouling rate being  
33 determined by cake filtration while both pore constriction and cake filtration contributed to  
34 the higher initial fouling rates. Higher rejection of biopolymers was observed for PAC and IX  
35 waters compared to the untreated ETP water, suggesting increased adhesion of biopolymers  
36 to the membrane or cake layer may lead to the higher rejection.

37

38 Key words: organic fouling, microfiltration, liquid chromatography, effluent organic matter,  
39 ion exchange, polyaluminium chlorohydrate.

40

## 41 1. Introduction

42

43 A major drawback of membrane filtration for drinking water treatment and wastewater reuse  
44 is fouling caused by natural organic matter (NOM) (*Lee et al., 2004*). Fouling studies carried  
45 out using natural waters have reported that neutral hydrophilic components of NOM are more  
46 significant foulants (*Carroll et al., 2000*) than hydrophobic components, these being  
47 considered to contain biopolymers. Biopolymers contained in the hydrophilic NOM  
48 component of surface waters consist of proteins and/or carbohydrate-like substances such as  
49 polysaccharides (*Fan et al., 2008, Howe and Clark, 2002*). Similarly, effluent organic matter  
50 (EfOM) is accountable for the observed fouling of microfiltration (MF) and ultrafiltration  
51 (UF) membranes when treating wastewaters, and the major foulants of wastewaters also

52 consist of hydrophilic organic matter (*Gray et. al., 2007*) such as organic colloids,  
53 polysaccharides and larger proteins (*Shon et al. 2004*). These findings contradicted earlier  
54 fouling experiments where NOM low in hydrophilic components resulted in humic  
55 substances being the major foulants (*Jucker and Clark, 1994*). This discrepancy in identifying  
56 the major organic fouling components of waters arose from the use of non-representative  
57 model solutions incapable of mimicking the complexity of natural surface water or  
58 wastewater effluent (*Peldszus et. al., 2011*), and in detecting biopolymers using traditional  
59 water characterisation techniques.

60

61 Further research to understand the effect of NOM composition on MF/UF membrane fouling  
62 led to the development of analytical techniques to provide greater understanding of the  
63 chemical and physical properties of dissolved organic carbon (DOC) (*Leenheer and Croue,*  
64 *2003, Her et. al; 2003, Lee et.al; 2006*). Characterisation of dissolved NOM from raw waters  
65 based on XAD-8/XAD-4 resin adsorption separated DOC components into hydrophobic,  
66 transphilic and hydrophilic (HPO/TPI/HPI) fractions, these groupings providing an indication  
67 of the polarity of each organic matter fraction (*Amy et. al., 2008*). The hydrophobic fraction  
68 of NOM mainly consists of acids and neutrals (*Thurman and Malcom, 1981; Malcom and*  
69 *McCarthy, 1992; Labanowski and Feuillade, 2009*) corresponding to humic and fulvic  
70 substances (*Lee et. al; 2006*). These humic/fulvic-like substances can easily be detected by  
71 UV absorption at 254nm ( $UV_{254}$ ), a commonly used water characterisation technique. Her et.  
72 al., (2002) showed that over estimation of humic-substances in NOM and under estimation of  
73 non-humic constituents such as proteins and polysaccharides, which are less  $UV_{254}$  sensitive,  
74 could occur if only  $UV_{254}$  detection was practiced.

75

76 It was suggested that high molecular weight (MW) hydrophilic DOC, consisting of organic  
77 colloids, polysaccharide-like and protein-like substances, could be regarded as an indicative  
78 factor for fouling potential (*Amy et. al; 2008*). This led to the development of analytical  
79 techniques for better measurement of all components of organic matter, so that techniques to  
80 mitigate membrane fouling or optimise performance for water treatment processes could be  
81 identified. Her et al. (2003) developed a simplified LC-UV<sub>254</sub>-fluorescence-OCD (organic  
82 carbon detector) technique to detect high molecular weight organic compounds. Three  
83 different types of water were used for their study. They consisted of mainly humic-material,  
84 algal organic matter and soluble microbial products from a biological treatment process, as  
85 examples of three significantly different water types on which to demonstrate its  
86 effectiveness.

87

88 Their characterisation of a secondary effluent showed that the high MW structure, believed to  
89 be a pure biopolymer peak and mainly classified as 'non-humic', could be effectively  
90 identified by the combination of UV<sub>254</sub>-fluorescence-DOC detection. The two pairs of  
91 excitation and emission wavelengths specific to protein-like substances at EX: 278nm-EM:  
92 353nm and fulvic-like substances at EX: 337nm-EM: 423nm were used for the fluorescence  
93 detector in their study. This technique suggested that identification of problematic, high MW  
94 NOM foulants for membrane processes was possible. Similarly, Humbert et. al., (2007)  
95 compared the results obtained from two LC systems (LC-UV<sub>254</sub>-OCD analyses versus LC-  
96 UV<sub>254</sub>-fluorescence) for their resin treated waters. They showed that LC-UV<sub>254</sub>  
97 chromatograms from both techniques gave similar results and that fluorescence detection at  
98 EX: 278nm-EM: 310nm gave additional information on high MW DOC originating from  
99 microbial origin (mixture of polysaccharides, proteins, and amino sugars). The high MW

100 DOC was ascribed the major foulant for the regenerated cellulose acetate UF membrane  
101 studied.

102

103 Liquid chromatography with organic carbon detection (LC-UV<sub>254</sub>-OCD) is now considered a  
104 reliable method for characterising organic matter in water samples since the technique  
105 quantifies biopolymers, humic substances and low molecular weight organic fractions (*Huber*  
106 *et. al., 2011*). The organic carbon detector is capable of revealing the presence of all organic  
107 compounds, making it reliable for all waters. The fluorescence detector in the system used by  
108 Her et.al (2003) is not commonly used, but has been replaced by an organic nitrogen detector  
109 (OND).

110

111 Fluorescence excitation-emission matrix (EEM) is another technique used for characterising  
112 organic compounds in water samples (*Henderson et. al; 2008, Pledszus et. al; 2011, Sharma*  
113 *et. al; 2011*) and which is increasingly used to characterise the membrane fouling potential of  
114 waters (*Peiris et. al; 2010a, Peiris et. al; 2010b, Pledszus et. al; 2011, Henderson et. al;*  
115 *2011*). This technique is able to distinguish humic/fulvic like substances from protein  
116 compounds and colloidal/particulate matter (*Pledszus et. al; 2011*). However, Goslan et. al;  
117 (2004) suggested that the accuracy of predicting biopolymer concentrations will be low  
118 compared to the hydrophobic fractions (humic and fulvic) following testing of synthetic  
119 waters that were rich in humic and fulvic fractions and natural waters mainly composed of  
120 hydrophobic fractions. The inaccuracies associated with detection of the biopolymers were  
121 due to their lower intensity of fluorescence emission compared to humic and fulvic acids.  
122 Therefore, the accuracy of the EEM technique may be limited in effectiveness when detection  
123 of biopolymers in wastewaters dominated by humic substances is required.

124

125 While many researchers have identified high molecular weight biopolymers as key foulants  
126 for MF and UF (*Fan et al; 2008, Howe and Clark, 2002, Amy et. al; 2008*) recent work by Kim  
127 and Dempsey (2010) proposed that organic acids were the major foulant for  
128 polyethersulphone (PES) UF and polyvinylidene fluoride (PVDF) UF membranes. A  
129 secondary wastewater that was post treated with alum for phosphorus removal was further  
130 treated by various ion exchange resins. The critical fluxes of the PES and PVDF membranes  
131 were shown to increase when greater amounts of organic acids were removed. However,  
132 their results also showed that the concentration of high MW organic fraction (>100 kDa) was  
133 small and that the amount of organic material >100 kDa decreased as the organic acids were  
134 removed. Presumably this water was low in biopolymers because alum coagulation was  
135 practiced on the feed water and therefore, the role of biopolymers in the fouling of their  
136 membranes remains unclear. Such results, which apparently contradict the results of others,  
137 highlight the impact that pre-treatment processes may have on membrane fouling.

138

139 Indeed, many researchers (*Shon et al; 2004, Guo et al; 2004, Galjaard et al; 2005, Tran et*  
140 *al; 2006*) have sought to understand the effect of NOM composition on MF/UF fouling and  
141 the impact of pre-treatments on reducing membrane fouling. Mergen et al; (2008) showed  
142 that magnetic ion exchange resin (MIEX™) removed low molecular weight, negatively  
143 charged organic matter from water dominated by hydrophilic acids and the extent of removal  
144 was water specific, while Humbert et. al; (2007) observed no removal of biopolymers by IX.  
145 Allpike et al; (2005) compared the character of DOC removed by two treatment processes-  
146 MIEX™ and enhanced coagulation with alum. MIEX™ ion exchange resin was shown to  
147 remove the smaller molecular weight, charged organics while enhanced coagulation removed  
148 higher molecular weight humic and fulvic acids. MIEX™ pre-treatment combined with

149 conventional alum coagulation not only improved the removal of DOC, but also the range of  
150 DOC fractions removed compared to each process in isolation.

151 The complex nature of organic fouling and the potential to achieve extremely low rates of  
152 fouling by tailoring water quality for specific membrane materials has been demonstrated in  
153 at least two studies. Galjaard et al; (2005) compared the fouling rates of different  
154 polyacrylonitrile (PAN) UF membranes following either enhanced alum coagulation or  
155 MIEX™ treatment of lake water. They demonstrated no fouling for a positively charged  
156 PAN membrane following MIEX™ treatment, and proposed that MIEX™ resin removed all  
157 negatively charged organic species while the positively charged PAN membranes repelled  
158 any cation bridging of organics to the membrane. Similarly, Tran et al; (2006) showed that  
159 polysilicato iron removed only slightly more hydrophobic organic material from surface  
160 water than polyaluminium chlorohydrate, but resulted in significantly lower fouling for a  
161 hydrophilic PVDF membrane but not for a hydrophobic polypropylene membrane. Both  
162 studies demonstrate that the mixture of organic components had a dramatic effect on  
163 membrane fouling, and that outcomes were also governed by the membrane properties.

164

165 The significance of interactions between specific organic components and membrane  
166 properties has also been highlighted by Gray et al; (2008), who investigated the fouling of  
167 different surface waters on membranes of varying composition. A water with minimal low  
168 MW UV<sub>210</sub> adsorbing compounds had substantially greater flux recovery upon backwashing  
169 for a hydrophilic PVDF membrane than a hydrophobic membrane. By comparison, a surface  
170 water higher in concentration of low MW UV<sub>210</sub> adsorbing compounds resulted in greater  
171 irreversible fouling of the hydrophilic PVDF membrane. It was suggested that the low  
172 molecular weight UV<sub>210</sub> adsorbing compounds assisted in adhering the higher molecular  
173 weight biopolymers to the surface of the hydrophilic membrane, and that the biopolymers

174 could adhere to the hydrophobic membrane in the absence or presence of these compounds.  
175 Similar effects have also been reproduced in laboratory tests using protein and alginate  
176 solutions (Gray et al; 2011).

177

178 Therefore, better understanding of the removal of specific organic species by pre-treatments  
179 and their subsequent effect on membrane fouling may enable the selection of membrane  
180 types to compliment pre-treatment processes for specific waters, so as to reduce the extent of  
181 membrane fouling. The proof of concept for this has been shown by the work of Galjaard et  
182 al; (2005) and Tran et al; (2006).

183

184 The aim of this investigation was to gain further insights into organic fouling of MF/UF  
185 membranes by undertaking greater characterisation of organic compounds in feed waters.  
186 Liquid chromatography (LC) with a photodiode array (PDA) and fluorescence detectors in  
187 series (Method A), LC with UV<sub>254</sub> detection, OCD and OND (Method B), and EEM were  
188 used to characterise a secondary wastewater effluent. LC Method B provides data on organic  
189 carbon and nitrogen concentration as a function of molecular weight, while LC Method A  
190 provides complimentary information on the functional groups associated with each molecular  
191 weight. EEM provides broad compositional analysis but no information on molecular  
192 weights.

193

194 The EfOM removal performances of ion exchange resin (IX) and coagulation with Poly  
195 Aluminium Chlorohydrate (PAC) from a secondary wastewater effluent were also  
196 characterised with these analytical techniques. Membrane fouling studies on single fibres  
197 with extended operation and backwashing were conducted to identify the impact of the pre-  
198 treatments, and thereby the organic composition of waters on membrane fouling performance

199 for a hydrophobic membrane. Greater insight into possible organic fouling mechanisms of  
200 membranes was sought by undertaking this extensive characterisation of the organic  
201 compounds in the feed waters.

202

## 203 **2. Materials and methods**

204

### 205 2.1. Source water

206

207 Water from Melbourne Water's Eastern Treatment Plant (ETP) was used for this  
208 investigation. The ETP treats circa 400 MLD of wastewater via extended aeration, and  
209 receives wastewater from both domestic and industrial sources. The secondary wastewater  
210 effluent was taken from the settler overflow, and had high colour and a relatively high DOC.

211

### 212 2.2. Pre-treatments

213

214 Particulate matter was removed from untreated ETP wastewater by vacuum filtration through  
215 a 1 µm pore size filter (Whatman GF/C). This water is referred to as ETP water throughout  
216 the following discussion.

217

218 Two different pre-treatment methods were chosen to assess the removal of organic  
219 compounds. MIEX<sup>TM</sup> is a macroporous anion exchange resin specifically developed for the  
220 removal of NOM in drinking water treatment (*Mergen et. al; 2008*). The secondary  
221 wastewater was treated with 5 mL/L of settled MIEX<sup>TM</sup> by stirring at 180 rpm for 15 minutes  
222 with a 60 mm x 20 mm paddle in a 1 L square glass jar. Settled water was decanted and  
223 vacuum filtered through a 1 µm pore size filter (Whatman GF/C) to move resin fines. This

224 was repeated 5 times using the same MIEX™ resin, such that the dose of MIEX™ was  
225 equivalent to treating 1000 bed volumes (BV) of water (5 L water treated with 5 mL of resin).  
226 This is a comparatively low dose of MIEX™ resin, with greater doses commonly used  
227 commercially (i.e. 600 BV). This water is referred to as IX water in the following discussion.

228

229 For coagulation treatment with Poly Aluminium Chlorohydrate (PAC), a 10,000 mg/L Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>  
230 (23% w/w) solution was dosed at 70 mg/L, which was equivalent to 27 mg/L Al<sup>3+</sup>. The  
231 wastewater samples were mixed at 185 rpm for 5 minutes with a 60 mm x 20 mm paddle in a  
232 1 L square glass jar, followed by 10 minutes of slow mixing at 50 rpm. The mixing was  
233 stopped and the solids left to settle for 30 minutes before samples were vacuum filtered  
234 through a 1 µm pore size filter (Whatman GF/C). This water is referred to as PAC water  
235 throughout the following discussion.

236

### 237 2.3. Water quality analyses and characterisation

238

239 The quality of wastewater samples before and after pre-treatments were analysed for pH,  
240 conductivity, ultraviolet absorbance at 254 nm (UV<sub>254</sub>), DOC and true colour. DOC was  
241 measured using a total organic carbon analyser (TOC-V<sub>CPH/CPN</sub>) (Shimadzu, Japan). Both  
242 colour and UV<sub>254</sub> were measured using a HACH DR 5000 spectrophotometer. True colour  
243 was measured using a 5 cm quartz cell at 456 nm and converted to Pt-Co units following  
244 calibration against a Platinum/Cobalt standard. UV<sub>254</sub> was measured through a 1 cm quartz  
245 cell. Quantitative measurement of selected ions, namely calcium, sodium, magnesium and  
246 potassium, were performed using inductively coupled plasma atomic emission  
247 spectrophotometer (ICPE 9000-AES) (Shimadzu, Japan).

248

249

250

### 251 2.3.1 Fluorescence EEM (EEM)

252

253 EEM spectrophotometry measurements were conducted using a Perkin-Elmer LS-55  
254 Fluorescence Spectrometer. The Spectrometer used a xenon excitation source. The scans  
255 were performed from 200 to 550 nm at increments of 5 nm, and the total number of  
256 scans/sample was 70. For direct comparison of the EEM results for ETP, IX and PAC waters,  
257 the samples were diluted by a factor of 2. This ensured all samples were within the organic  
258 carbon range required for reliable measurement (<10 mg/L).

259

### 260 2.3.2 Size exclusion chromatography

261

262 Molecular weight distributions by LC analyses were performed with a PDA and fluorescence  
263 detector in series (Method A), and with LC coupled with UV<sub>254</sub>, OCD and OND (Method B).  
264 LC Method A was performed using a TSK gel column (G3000 SW, C-No. SW 3600482) at  
265 room temperature with a phosphate buffer (10 mM KH<sub>2</sub>PO<sub>4</sub> + 10 mM Na<sub>2</sub>HPO<sub>4</sub>, 0.04M, pH  
266 6.8) as the mobile phase. The column was operated with a flow-rate of 0.5 mL/min and a 50  
267 µL injection volume. This was coupled with sequential on-line detectors consisting of a UV-  
268 visible photodiode array ( $\lambda$  = 200-800 nm) and a fluorescence detector (RF-10AXL). The  
269 response of the on-line fluorescence detector depends on the chosen excitation and emission  
270 wavelengths. In this study, fluorescence excitation and emission wavelengths of 278 nm/304  
271 nm and 278 nm/343 nm (ex/em) were applied, since such wavelengths were known to be  
272 specific for protein-like compounds. When EEM of bovine serum albumin (BSA) solution  
273 was performed at a similar ionic strength and pH as ETP water, the peak maxima location

274 was found at 278-280 nm/340-360 nm (ex/em) (data not shown). Additionally, Salinas et. al;  
275 (2011) has shown that tryptophan-like amino acids fluoresce at 270-280 nm/320-350 nm and  
276 tryosine-like amino acids fluoresce at 270-280 nm/300-320 nm. Both tryptophan and tyrosine  
277 amino acids are commonly contained in proteins. Polystyrene sulphonate (PSS) molecular  
278 weight standards of 3420, 4600, 6200, 15,650 and 39,000 Da were used to calibrate the LC  
279 column used for Method A. Analysis by Method B (DOC-Labor) was carried out by the  
280 University of New South Wales.

281

#### 282 2.4. Membrane filtration

283

284 A single hollow fibre membrane filtration apparatus was used to examine the fouling rate of  
285 the ETP, IX and PAC waters. Single hollow fibre membranes of 600 mm length were folded  
286 about the mid-point and inserted into transparent polyurethane tubing. The open ends of the  
287 membrane were sealed at one end of the tubing with an epoxy resin such that water entered  
288 the outside of the membrane and left from the inner, hollow side of the membrane known as  
289 the lumen. The hydrophobic membrane material was polypropylene with a nominal pore size  
290 of 0.2  $\mu\text{m}$ , an outer diameter of 0.50 mm and an inner diameter of 0.25 mm. Tran et al; 2006  
291 has previously determined the contact angle of this membrane material with a Cahn Dynamic  
292 Contact Angle Analyser, and it was reported to be  $160^\circ$ . Before the feed solution was  
293 introduced into the membrane unit, deionised water was filtered at different set flow rates  
294 until a stable pressure was reached for each flow rate. The permeability of the PP membrane  
295 with deionised water was calculated before each fouling experiment commenced, with values  
296 ranging from 800 to 1000  $\text{Lm}^{-2}\text{hr}^{-1}.\text{bar}^{-1}$ .

297

298 Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) was performed using a Joel Neoscope to observe  
299 surface fouling on the membranes. Following membrane filtration tests, the membranes were  
300 removed from the filtration apparatus and dried at 30-40 °C. Samples of membranes were  
301 taken from the ends (near seal with housing) and middle of the potted fibre, gold coated and  
302 mounted on a stub for examination.

303

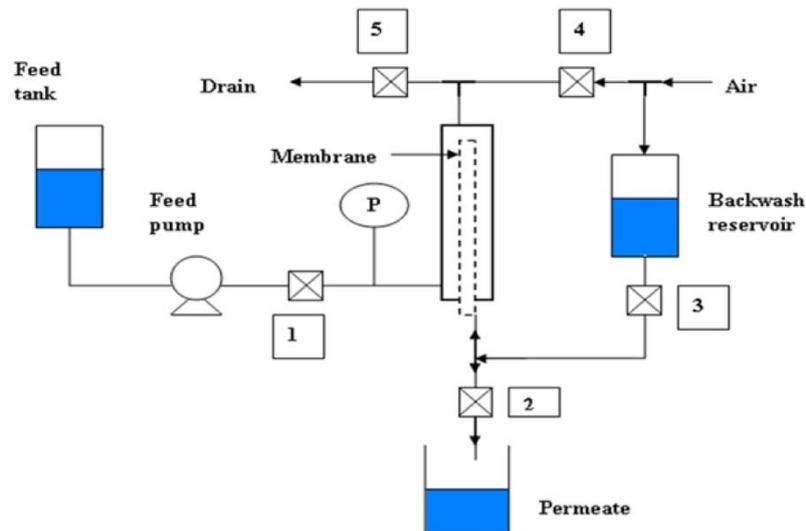
#### 304 2.4.1 Filtration Method

305

306 The water was pumped from the outside to the inside of the hollow fibre at constant flux (50  
307  $L \cdot m^{-2} \cdot h^{-1}$ ). A low flow positive displacement pump from Fluid Meter Instruments (model no.  
308 348745) was used to provide constant flux throughout the experiments. Liquid backwashing  
309 was performed periodically via pressurized water and a series of valves. The backwash was  
310 set to occur after every 30 min of filtration. The backwashing regime consisted of flow  
311 reversal for 40 s at a backwash pressure of 1.4 bar, allowing permeate to flush accumulated  
312 foulants from the membrane. The outside of the fibre was then flushed by flowing feedwater  
313 past the membrane for a further 40 s. The membrane was then re-wetted using compressed air  
314 at 5 bar to pressurize water in the single fibre tubing before filtration recommenced. The  
315 pressure was logged continuously by a pressure transducer ( $\pm 0.1\%$ , -1 to 9 bar), and the  
316 increase of pressure with time was a measure of fouling rate. A data acquisition and control  
317 system was used to control the solenoid valves (labelled as 1 to 5 in Fig. 1) for the filtration  
318 and backwash sequences, as well as for continuous recording of pressure. The ambient air  
319 temperature was also recorded ( $\pm (0.2\% \text{ reading} + 1 \text{ } ^\circ\text{C})$ ) during all experiments. A schematic  
320 diagram of the experimental apparatus is shown in Figure 1.

321

322



323

324 Fig. 1. Schematic diagram of dead-end hollow fibre microfiltration unit (numbers refer to

325

solenoid valves)

326

#### 327 2.4.2. Trans-membrane pressure (TMP) measurements and data analysis

328

329 Trans-membrane pressure (TMP) was continuously monitored and recorded every 1 s. The  
 330 raw data from each second was averaged, and the 1min average data recorded throughout the  
 331 filtration period of 4-5 days. The TMP data was temperature corrected to a reference

332 temperature of 20 °C using the equations (1 and 2) (United States EPA, 2005). Additionally,

333 TMP was also corrected for the effect of the backpressure in the fibre arising from the potting

334 of the membrane by measuring the pressure drop across the potted fibre at the conclusion of

335 the experiment. A typical temperature corrected TMP vs. time profile is shown in Fig. 2a.

336 TMP data from the backwashing period were omitted for the clarity (Fig. 2b) and the last

337 TMP point of each filtration cycle before backwashing was used to represent the TMP vs.

338 time profile (Fig. 2c). Flux was calculated based on the volume of permeate collected during

339 24 h of filtration time to identify any slight changes of flux with time.

340

$$\text{TMP}_{20} = \text{TMP}_T \times \frac{\mu_{20}}{\mu_T} \quad (1)$$

$$\mu_T = 1.784 - (0.0575 \times T) + (0.0011 \times T^2) - (10^{-5} \times T^3) \quad (2)$$

342

343 where;  $\text{TMP}_{20}$  = Transmembrane pressure at 20°C

344  $\text{TMP}_T$  = Transmembrane pressure at temperature, T

345  $\mu_{20}$  = Viscosity of water at 20°C

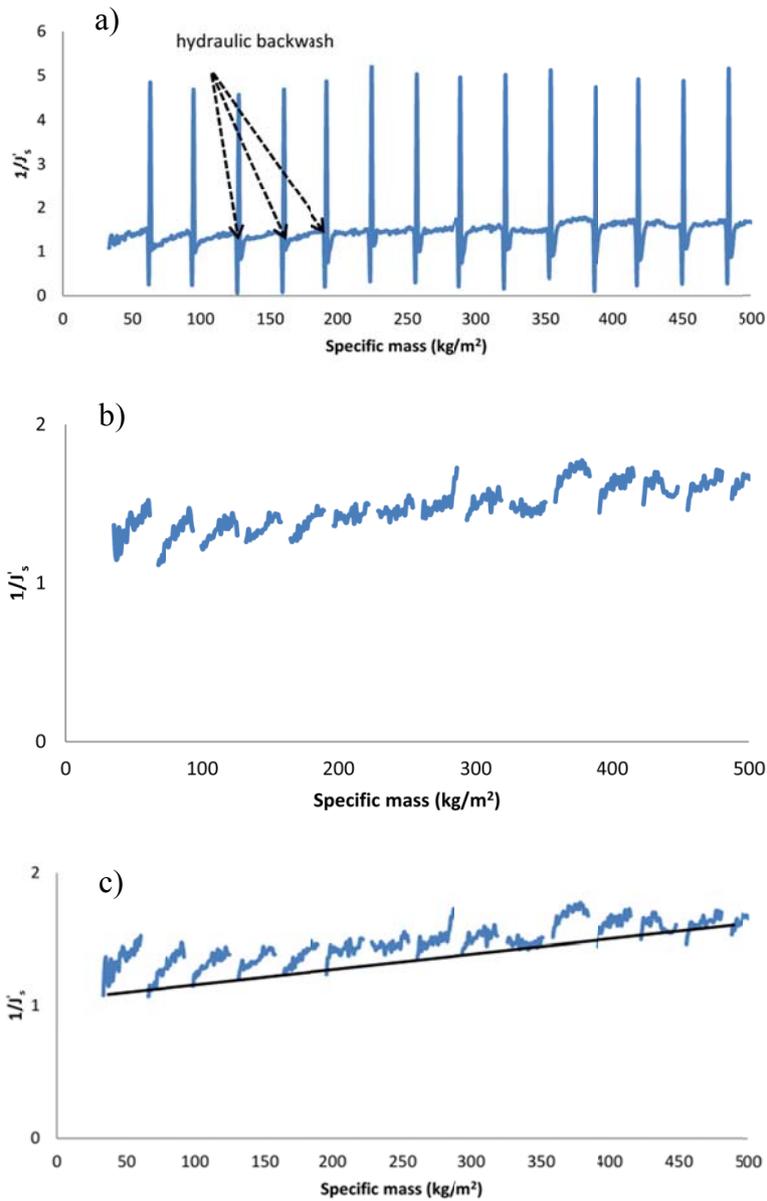
346  $\mu_T$  = Viscosity of water at temperature, T

347

348 In analysing fouling of MF/UF systems, flux decline curves are often fitted to models so as to  
349 identify whether fouling occurred by pore constriction, pore blockage or cake filtration (*Yuan*  
350 *et al; 2002*). However, for such models to be valid they require a uniform, constant pressure  
351 drop across the membrane. For the hollow fibre membranes used in these experiments, the  
352 pressure drop inside the lumen of the fibre was similar to that across the membrane resulting  
353 in a non-uniform flux along the membrane (*Carroll and Booker, 2000; Carroll 2001*).

354 Additionally, the membranes were operated in constant flux rather than constant pressure  
355 mode. Therefore, the mode of fouling cannot be determined from the data without assuming  
356 a fouling mode and foulant properties. Therefore, no attempt was made to identify the fouling  
357 mode.

358



359

360

361

362 Fig. 2. TMP vs. time profiles, representing the data processing procedure as described in

363 section 2.4.2 a) ETP water, b) IX water, c) PACl water

364

### 365 3. Results and Discussion

366

#### 367 3.1. Pre-treated water quality

368

369 Table 1 shows the water quality data for the ETP raw and two pre-treated waters. It is

370 evident that both IX and PAC waters were very effective for colour, UV absorbance and

371 DOC removal. PAC removed slightly more UV<sub>254</sub> and colour than IX, and slightly less DOC.  
372 The increase in sodium concentration for the PAC water was due to the adjustment of pH by  
373 1M sodium hydroxide (NaOH) during coagulation.

374

375 Table 1: ETP wastewater solutions before and after the treatments

376

	Raw	IX	PACl
UV <sub>254</sub> (cm <sup>-1</sup> )	0.363	0.139	0.132
pH	7.68	7.58	7.59
DOC (mg/L)	11.8±0.2	6.8±0.2	7.4±0.2
SUVA (L/m-mg)	3.08	2.05	1.78
Colour (Pt-Co)	82	25	18
Ca (mg/L)	28.9±0.2	27.7±0.2	30.0±0.2
Na (mg/L)	66.3±0.3	66.5±0.3	80.9±0.3
Mg (mg/L)	10.7±0.1	10.5±0.1	11.8±0.1
K (mg/L)	15.6±0.1	15.0±0.1	17.6±0.1

377

378

379

### 380 3.2. EEM spectra

381

382 EEM spectra for ETP raw water before and after the treatments are shown in Figs 3a to 3c.

383 The EEM spectra of all the water samples show at least two peak locations (350 nm/447 nm,

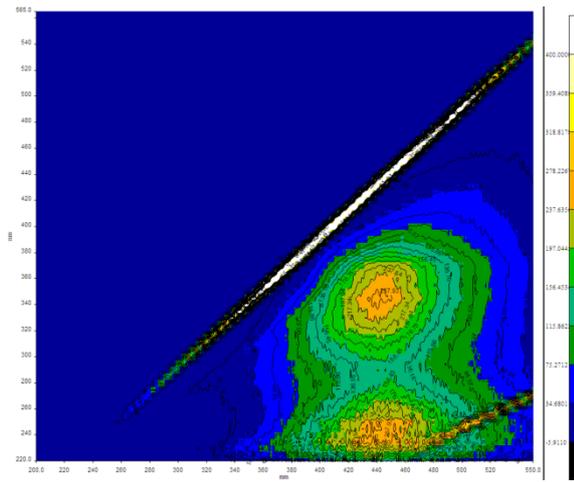
384 240 nm/447 nm ex/em). EEM spectrum for ETP raw water (Fig. 3a) shows responses for only

385 humic and fulvic like substances. Both IX and PAC waters (Fig. 3 b and c) show less

386 intensity at 350 nm/447 nm indicating that humic-like compounds were removed by these

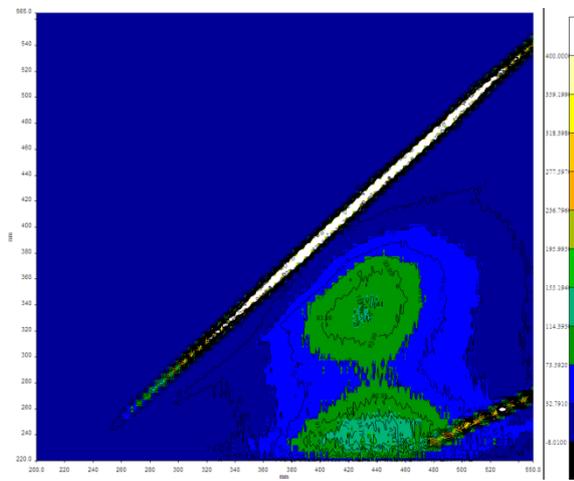
387 treatments. Notably, there were no significant spectra for biopolymers at the shorter

388 excitation and emission wavelengths.



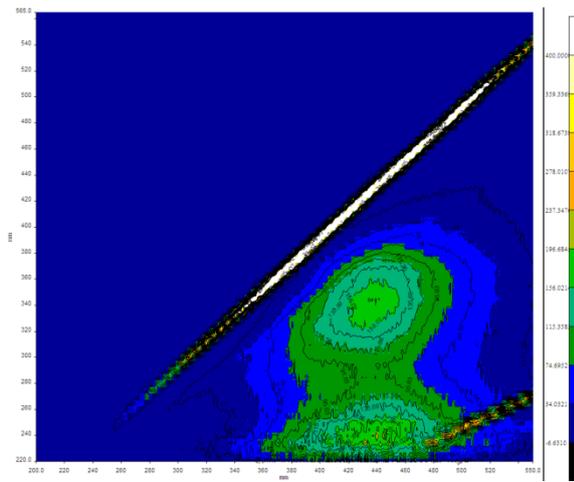
389

390 (a) ETP water



391

392 (b) IX water



393

394 (c) PAC water

395 Fig. 3. EEM of (a) ETP (b) IX (c) PAC waters

396

### 397 3.3. Liquid chromatography

398

399 Method B analysis of ETP water estimated the DOC concentration to be 15.1 mg/L (SUVA:  
400 3.47L/m-mg), and that of the IX and PAC waters to be 10.8 mg/L (SUVA: 1.54 L/m-mg) and  
401 8.1 mg/L (SUVA: 1.93 L/m-mg) respectively, as shown in Table 2. The results show that  
402 ETP NOM consisted of 51.8% humic-like substances, 5.8% bio-polymers with the balance  
403 composed of “building blocks” (breakdown products of humics), low MW neutrals and low  
404 MW acids.

405

406 Both Method B and EEM analyses identified humic-like substances as the major constituents.  
407 However, EEM analysis failed to detect the presence of biopolymers at the shorter excitation  
408 and emission wavelengths in the region where protein like substances fluoresce (*Salinas et.*  
409 *al; 2011*). This result is consistent with the suggestion by Goslan et. al; (2004) that EEM is  
410 not sensitive for the detection of biopolymers in humic dominated waters and it is therefore  
411 of limited use when characterising humic dominated waters for membrane fouling propensity.

412

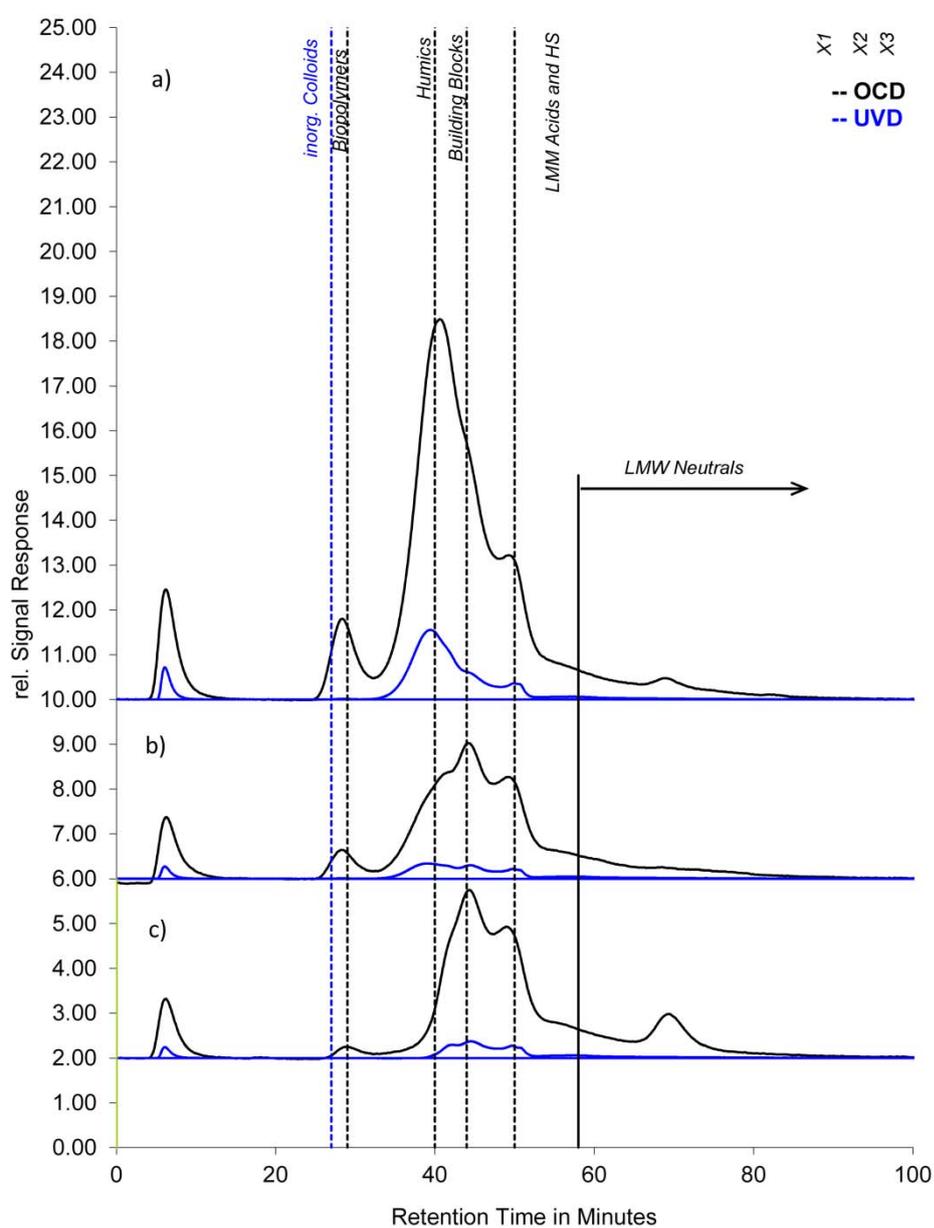
413 Table 2 : LC Method B results for ETP, IX and PAC waters

	Biopolymers	Humic substances	Aromaticity (SUVA – HS)	Building blocks	LMW neutrals	LMW Acids	Inorganic colloids	SUVA
Molecular Weight (Da)	>>20,000	~1,000	~1,000	300-500	<350	<350		
Water	ppb-C	ppb-C	L/(mg*m)	ppb-C	ppb-C	ppb-C	m <sup>-1</sup>	L/(mg*m)
ETP	874	7844	3.16	1913	1417	n.q.	0.19	3.47
IX	283	2958	3.13	1142	1097	77	0.14	1.54
PACI	206	2908	2.21	1182	1736	n.q.	0.01	1.93

414

415 LC- UV<sub>254</sub> chromatograms from both Methods A and B gave similar results, and the Method  
416 B chromatograms are presented in Fig. 4 for each water. High MW structures or  
417 biopolymers, have significant peaks in the DOC chromatograms and smaller peaks in the

418 UV<sub>254</sub> chromatograms. Similar information was also obtained from the UV<sub>254</sub> response from  
 419 the LC-PDA-Fluorescence analysis (Method A: see Fig. 5b). Biopolymers, such as proteins  
 420 and polysaccharides, cannot usually be detected by UV<sub>254</sub> absorbance, and the lack of a  
 421 biopolymer peak at this wavelength is commonly observed. However, for UV<sub>210</sub> (Method A),  
 422 there was a peak at circa 50 kDa indicative of the presence of protein-like biopolymer. The  
 423 chromatograms in Fig. 5a show that the high MW compounds contribute to the UV<sub>210</sub> signal  
 424 for the raw and IX waters, but it is absent following PAC coagulation.

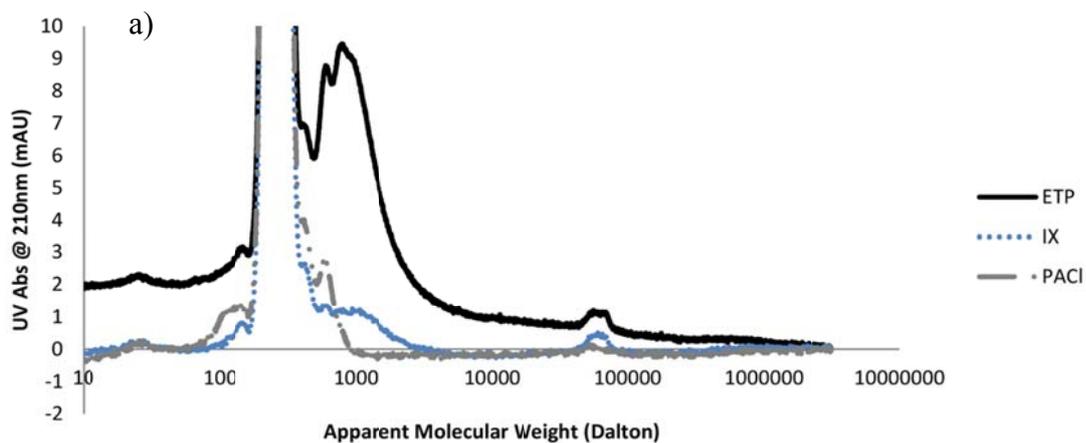


425

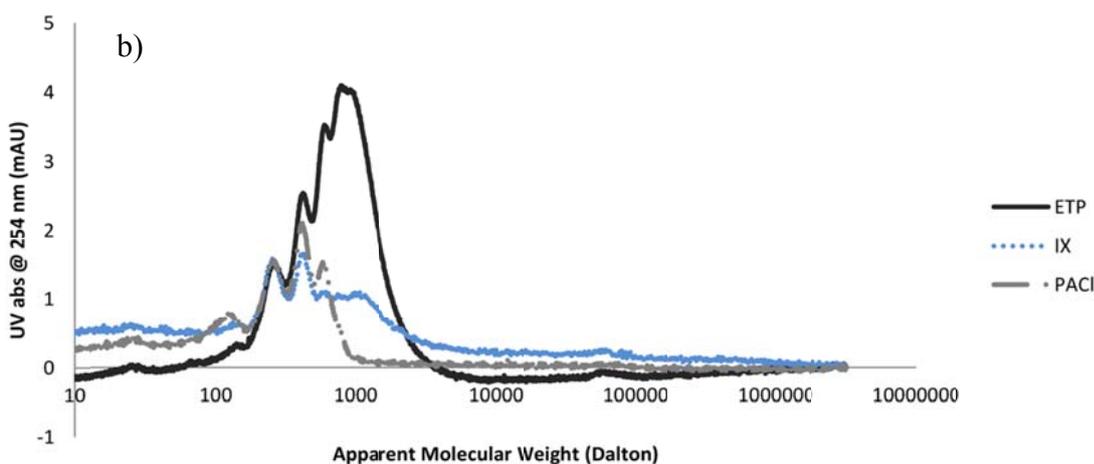
426 Fig. 4. LC-UV-OCD chromatograms of the a) ETP b) IX and c) PAC waters

427 UV<sub>210</sub> absorbance is characteristic of amino groups (*Her et. al; 2004*), suggesting this peak  
428 corresponds to protein-like substances. Her et. al; (2007) used the UV absorbance ratio index  
429 (URI), in which the ratio of UV<sub>210</sub> to UV<sub>254</sub> was measured, to distinguish protein-like  
430 substances from other NOM components. They demonstrated that URI values were highest  
431 for proteins (13.50 for bovine serum albumin) and lower for other components such as humic  
432 and fulvic acids. The URI of the peaks at circa 50 kDa cannot be calculated because of the  
433 very low (~0) reading at UV<sub>254</sub> nm, but these peaks for raw and IX waters were assumed to  
434 be protein-like substances.

435



436



437

438 Fig. 5. Chromatograms of UV response at a) 210nm and b) 254nm for ETP, IX and PAC  
439 waters (Method A)

440

441 The biopolymer peaks were also detected by the fluorescence response at wavelengths of 278  
442 nm/304 nm (ex/em) and 278 nm/343 nm (ex/em), and by the organic nitrogen response in  
443 Method B. The fluorescence responses of each water are shown in Figs. 6 and 7.

444 Fluorescence peaks were observed at circa 50 kDa for both wavelength pairs indicative of  
445 biopolymers.

446

447 Peaks were detected at 278 nm/343 nm ex/em for both IX and PAC waters. After coagulant  
448 treatment, there was no peak detected at 278 nm/304 nm (ex/em), while some remained  
449 following IX treatment, indicating that a proportion of the protein-like substances could be  
450 removed by IX treatment and a greater amount by PAC treatment.

451

452 The removal of tyrosine-like substances at 278 nm/304 nm (ex/em) from ETP water by IX  
453 treatment was 39% and by PAC treatment it was 72%. Similarly, the percentage removal of  
454 proteins as determined by UV<sub>210</sub> by the two pre-treatment methods also showed higher  
455 removals of proteins by PAC treatment (70%) compared to IX treatment (4%).

456

457 Removal of tryptophan-like substances detected at 278 nm/343 nm (ex/em) was 42% by PAC  
458 treatment, while an increase in fluorescence was detected following IX treatment. PAC was  
459 more effective at removing tyrosine-like proteins (278 nm/304 nm) than tryptophan-like  
460 proteins (278 nm/343 nm). This is not known to have been previously reported and additional  
461 analysis of other waters is required to understand if this is a general outcome or a result  
462 specific to this particular water.

463

464 LC-OND results (see Table 5) also identified greater removal of protein compounds by PAC  
465 compared to IX, with approximately 100% removal achieved by PAC and 73% by IX. The

466 OCD biopolymer results (see Table 5) also identified a similar trend with organic carbon  
467 removals of 68% and 76% for IX and PAC treatments. The significantly lower removal of  
468 organic carbon compared to organic nitrogen by PAC treatment indicates that this process  
469 preferentially removes nitrogen containing compounds such as proteins and amino acids,  
470 while for IX treatment such a preference was not observed. Polysaccharides are considered to  
471 be the major non-protein constituent of biopolymers, and therefore these results indicate that  
472 IX removes these compounds to the same extent as proteins, while for PAC their removal is  
473 reduced in comparison to proteins. The results for IX water are significant, as the removal of  
474 biopolymers by IX is not generally considered to occur (*Humbert et. al; 2007*) but was  
475 observed for this water.

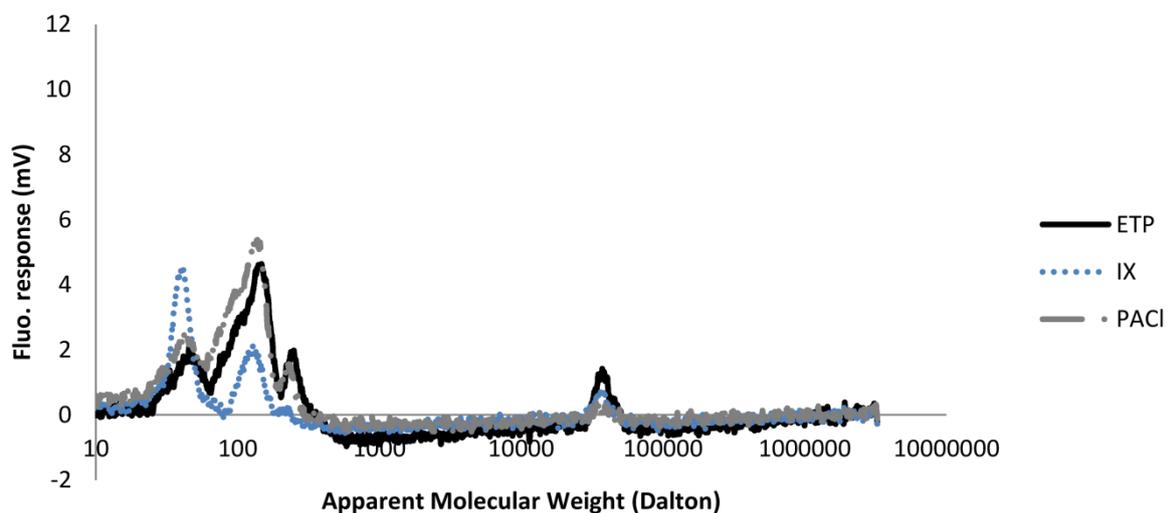
476

477 The tryptophan-like peak (278 nm/343 nm) at circa 50kDa increased in size following IX  
478 treatment (see Fig. 7). A similar observation has also been seen on another ETP sample  
479 following IX treatment (results not shown), indicating this observation was reproducible. IX  
480 treatment does not add organic compounds to the treated water, and therefore an increase in  
481 fluorescence response at these higher molecular weights indicates either an increase in  
482 sensitivity of the fluorescing compounds due to a change in their chemical environment, or  
483 aggregation of low MW fluorescing compounds into larger entities. Tryptophan containing  
484 proteins may increase their fluorescence intensity upon binding to carbohydrates such as  
485 polysaccharides (Lee, 1997), and the resultant increase in fluorescence response following IX  
486 treatment may, therefore, indicate increased association between tryptophan proteins and  
487 polysaccharides. Such an increase in the degree of binding between proteins and  
488 polysaccharides following removal of small MW acids by IX may occur, as the small MW  
489 acids compete with proteins for binding sites on the polysaccharides and proteins. The  
490 properties of the resultant aggregate will depend on how the molecules are arranged. For

491 instance, encapsulation of the protein within a polysaccharide coating will leave the  
492 aggregate with properties similar to that of polysaccharide, while partial coating may present  
493 surfaces with properties similar to both proteins and polysaccharides. Self aggregation of low  
494 MW tryptophan-like compounds is also a possibility.

495

496 The proposition of aggregation amongst organic compounds in water is supported by the  
497 work of Kim et. al; (2007) who observed re-aggregation of organic matter following  
498 filtration. An increase in aggregation tendency of tryptophan-like compounds following the  
499 removal of small MW “building blocks” and neutrals (see Table 3) by ion exchange, would  
500 suggests that these small MW compounds act to inhibit aggregation. Such a mechanism may  
501 arise by low MW neutrals and “building blocks” terminating aggregation by competing for  
502 binding sites and thereby reducing the likelihood of further aggregation, or by making weaker  
503 interactions between entities (fewer bonding sites). Weaker interactions would increase the  
504 aggregates sensitivity to shear rates resulting in smaller aggregates at a given shear rate.



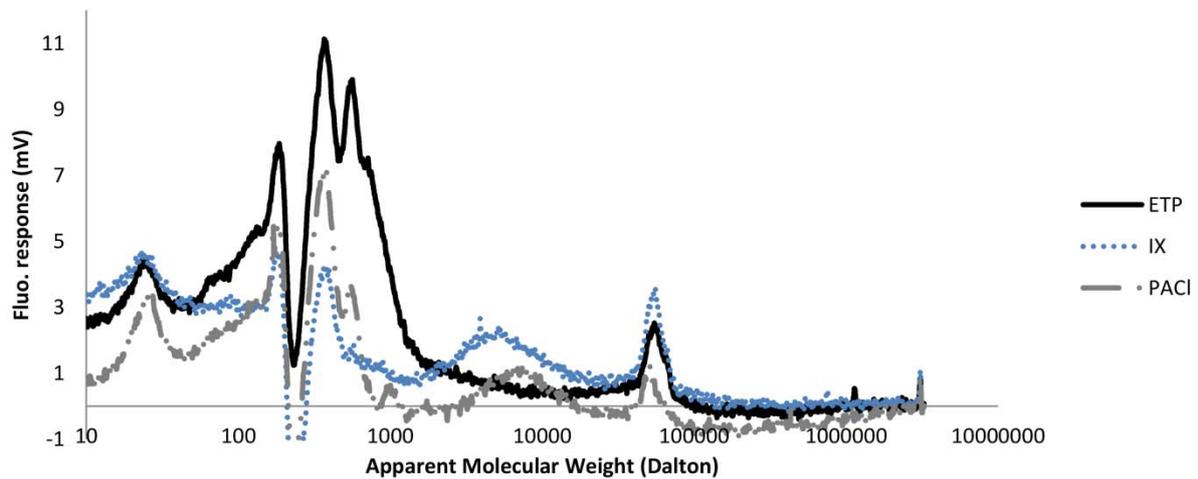
505

506 Fig. 6. Fluorescence spectrum at 278 nm/304 nm (ex/em) specific for tyrosine-like proteins a)

507 Raw, b) IX and c) PAC waters

508

509



510

511 Fig. 7. Fluorescence spectrum at 278 nm/343 nm specific for tryptophan-like substances a)

512 Raw, b) IX and c) PAC waters

513

514 Table 3: Method A (LC-PDA-fluorescence) biopolymer data of ETP, IX and PAC waters

515 (calculated by peak area units at circa 50kDa from Figs. 5a, 6 and 7)

	Protein like substances (Biopolymer fraction)		
	UV <sub>210</sub>	278/343 (tryptophan-like)	278/304 (tyrosine-like)
<b>ETP</b>	92.0	461.9	337.4
<b>IX</b>	88.3	601.9	204.4
<b>PACI</b>	27.8	266.3	93.6
<b>% removal IX</b>	4%	-30%	39%
<b>% removal PACI</b>	70%	42%	72%

516

517

518 3.4. Pre-treated water quality

519

520 Tables 4 and 5 list the calculated total peak areas at all retention times for wastewater before

521 and after pre-treatments by the different technologies. Results from LC Methods A and B

522 show similar removals of humic substances by IX and PAC treatments. For PAC treated

523 water, the percentage reduction in peak area for Method A UV<sub>254</sub> was 65-69% and for the

524 Method B it was approximately 60%. For IX treated water, the percentage peak area

525 reduction with UV<sub>254</sub> nm (Method A) was ~59-63%, and for Method B it was approximately  
 526 60%. Overall, IX removed similar amounts of humic acids, more low MW acids and neutrals  
 527 and less biopolymers than PAC, and both Methods A and B confirm these trends.

528

529 Table 4: Method A (LC-PDA-fluorescence) data for ETP, IX and PAC waters (calculated by  
 530 peak area units from Fig. 5a, 5b, 6 and 7)

	Method A (LC-PDA-Fluorescence)			
	Humics		Amino acid like substances (all MWs)	
	UV <sub>254</sub>	UV <sub>210</sub>	278/343	278/304
<b>ETP</b>	3030.5	56791.4	10857.9	3012.5
<b>IX</b>	892.0	51964.0	1324.7	2029.0
<b>PACI</b>	1002.6	55499.0	9142.7	2690.1
<b>IX % removal</b>	71%	9%	88%	33%
<b>PACI % removal</b>	67%	2%	16%	11%

531

532

533

534 Table 5: Method B (LC-UVD-OCD-OND) data for ETP, IX and PAC waters (values  
 535 represented as area units)

	Method B (LC-UVD-OCD)				
	Humics		Biopolymers	LMW Acids	Neutrals
	UV <sub>254</sub>	OCD	OCD	OCD	OCD
<b>ETP</b>	7.936	64.044	7.499	3.294	12.167
<b>IX</b>	2.844	23.172	2.427	2.882	9.416
<b>PACI</b>	1.863	21.45	1.769	3.508	14.907
<b>IX % removal</b>	64%	64%	68%	13%	23%
<b>PACI % removal</b>	77%	67%	76%	-7%	-23%

536

537

538 It is interesting to observe that the UV<sub>210</sub> results indicate that little material was removed by  
 539 either IX or PAC treatment when all retention times are considered. However, there was a

540 dramatic removal of UV<sub>210</sub> biopolymers (see Table 3). Additionally, IX removed greater  
541 amounts of the tyrosine and tryptophan like-compounds across all MWs (Table 4) than did  
542 PAC, but less in the biopolymer fraction (Table 3). Therefore, characterisation of the waters  
543 via LC-fluorescence rather than EEM provides greater insight to the composition of the  
544 water, as the changes in molecular weight for tryptophan and tyrosine-like compounds can be  
545 observed following IX and PAC treatments which EEM is unable to detect.

546

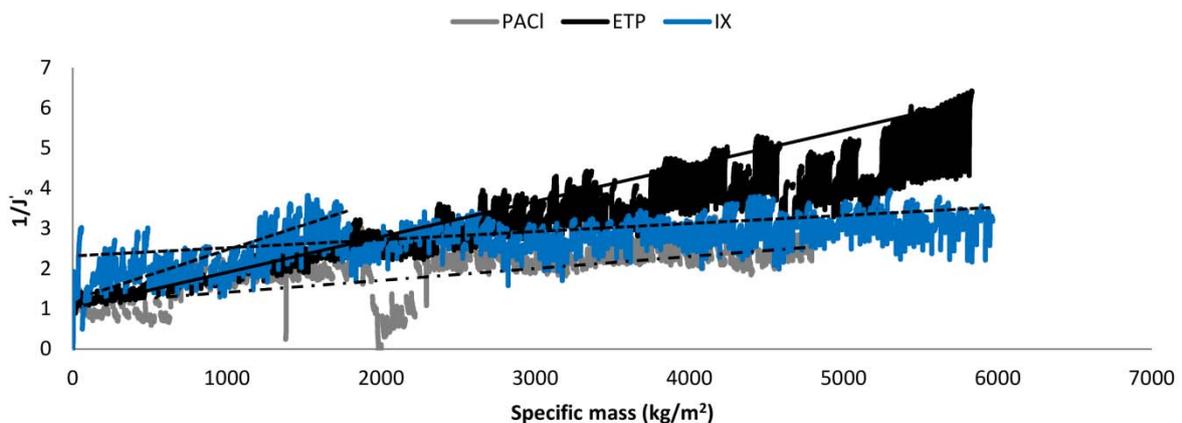
### 547 3.5. Membrane fouling results

548

#### 549 3.5.1. Fouling experiments using a polypropylene (PP) membrane

550

551 Filtration of ETP and treated wastewaters using polypropylene membranes at a constant flux  
552 of 50 L/m<sup>2</sup>h, the TMP has been found to increase as a function of volume as shown in Fig. 8.



553

554 Fig. 8. TMP increase during filtration (approximately 120 h) for Raw, IX and PAC waters

555

556 The fouling rates (bar/h) were calculated from the data represented in Fig. 8 and are given in  
557 Table 6. It is interesting to note that the highest fouling rate was observed for IX treated water  
558 during the first 24 h of filtration (i.e., after 41 backwash cycles). However, at longer filtration  
559 times the fouling rate with IX treated water decreased to approximately 15% of its initial

560 value. This change in fouling rate after 400 L/m<sup>2</sup> of water had been filtered (24 hours of  
561 filtration) with IX treated water was reproducible, being observed for multiple filtration tests.  
562 Similarly, the PAC treated water also had a reduced fouling rate after 24 h of filtration  
563 (approx. 20%), although it commenced at a significantly lower initial fouling rate than the IX  
564 water. The fouling rate of the ETP water remained constant throughout filtration at a rate  
565 higher than either the >24 hour IX or PAC fouling rates. The order of decreasing fouling rates  
566 of PP membrane for raw and treated waters was: IX (<400 L/m<sup>2</sup>) > ETP > PAC (<400 L/m<sup>2</sup>)  
567 > IX (>1800 L/m<sup>2</sup>) > PAC (>600 L/m<sup>2</sup>).

568

569 The change in fouling rate with time for the IX and PAC waters suggests that short term  
570 laboratory fouling trials may not be representative of long term fouling trends. This may  
571 result from the mode of fouling changing from pore constriction via adsorption of organic  
572 compounds to the membrane, to filter cake build up via multilayer foulant layers. Such  
573 changes in fouling mode were described by Kim et. al; (2007), and suggest that filter cake  
574 build up occurs over long time periods while pore constriction reduces with time. Pore  
575 constriction resulting from adsorption of organic compounds on the membrane surface is  
576 likely to be a competitive process, as competitive adsorption of organic components in NOM  
577 is known to occur for activated carbon (*Newcombe et al; 2002*). IX preferentially removes  
578 the lower MW compounds, leaving a greater proportion of higher MW compounds available  
579 for adsorption by the membrane. Large MW humics will result in greater pore constriction  
580 than smaller MW compounds by virtue of their size, and therefore their increased tendency to  
581 protrude from the surface. Additionally, the increase in the high MW tryptophan-like  
582 response following IX treatment suggests that there was an increased tendency for either self  
583 aggregation or with polysaccharides following IX treatment. Such a tendency would also  
584 increase the degree of pore constriction as a result of the larger aggregates.

585

586 Conversely, PAC preferentially removes the high molecular weight humics and therefore  
587 contains greater proportional amounts of low MW compounds, leading to reduced pore  
588 constriction. The proportion of low MW: high MW organic compounds in ETP water will lie  
589 between IX and PAC waters, and the resultant initial fouling rate was between the IX and  
590 PAC fouling rates.

591

592 Cake filtration dominates the latter stages of filtration (>24 hours), and high MW  
593 biopolymers are the major component of the cake layer. Therefore, greater removal of  
594 biopolymers by PAC produces lower fouling rates in this region compared to IX. ETP water  
595 has higher concentrations of biopolymers than either IX or PAC waters, and so had the  
596 highest fouling rate at long filtration times.

597

598 Table 6: Fouling rate of ETP and treated waters

Fouling index ( $\text{m}^2/\text{kg} \times 10^{-3}$ )							
Time (h)	Raw		MIEX <sup>TM</sup>		PACI		
24	1.00	100%	1.25	100%	0.75	100%	
48	0.83	83%	0.17	13%	0.17	22%	
72	0.83	83%	0.17	13%	0.17	22%	
96	0.83	83%	0.17	13%	0.17	22%	
120	0.83	83%	0.17	13%			

599 Percent reduction is relative to the initial fouling index of the particular water

600

601 Permeate samples were collected and characterised by Method A (278/343 nm) at the  
602 completion of each test. Figs. 9 and 10 show the UV<sub>210</sub> and fluorescence 278/343 nm  
603 chromatograms for the filtered permeate. Comparison of these results show that humic-like  
604 substances in the molecular weight range of approximately 300-3000 Da were not retained by  
605 the 0.2 µm pore size polypropylene membrane. Similar findings were observed by other  
606 researchers (*Fabris et al; 2007*), and no physical straining of these compounds from solution  
607 would be expected given the small size of these compounds in relation to the pore size.

608

609 The high MW fraction (>50 kDa) biopolymers decreased in concentration following filtration  
610 of the ETP, IX and PAC waters (see Table 7). The UV<sub>210</sub> response from Fig. 9 showed large  
611 removal efficiencies for the high MW fraction (>50 kDa) of both the IX and PAC waters,  
612 with UV<sub>210</sub> adsorbing biopolymer for PAC permeate below the detection limit of the  
613 technique. The fluorescence response in Fig. 10 and Table 7 for the tryptophan-like proteins  
614 (278 nm/343 nm) showed a similar trend to the UV<sub>210</sub> biopolymers, with high rejection for IX  
615 and PAC waters. Again the tryptophan-like biopolymer peak for PAC water permeate was  
616 close to the detection limit. The rejection of biopolymers from ETP water was moderate  
617 (64% for UV<sub>210</sub> and 38% for tryptophan-like compounds), and their incomplete rejection  
618 during filtration suggests that size alone is not the basis for the removal of the biopolymer  
619 compounds from non pre-treated wastewaters.

620

621 The increased rejection of biopolymers for the IX and PAC waters compared to ETP water  
622 may arise from their aggregated state. The LC column used in Method A is only capable of  
623 differentiating compounds up to 50 kDa, and therefore the difference in size of the  
624 biopolymer aggregates may not be fully evident in the LC results. Additionally, aggregation

625 arising from removal of acids from solution may expose binding site on the biopolymers and  
 626 increase their likelihood of removal in the filter cake. Similarly, the addition of multi-valent  
 627 ions during coagulation may increase both the aggregation tendency and subsequently their  
 628 removal in the cake layer.

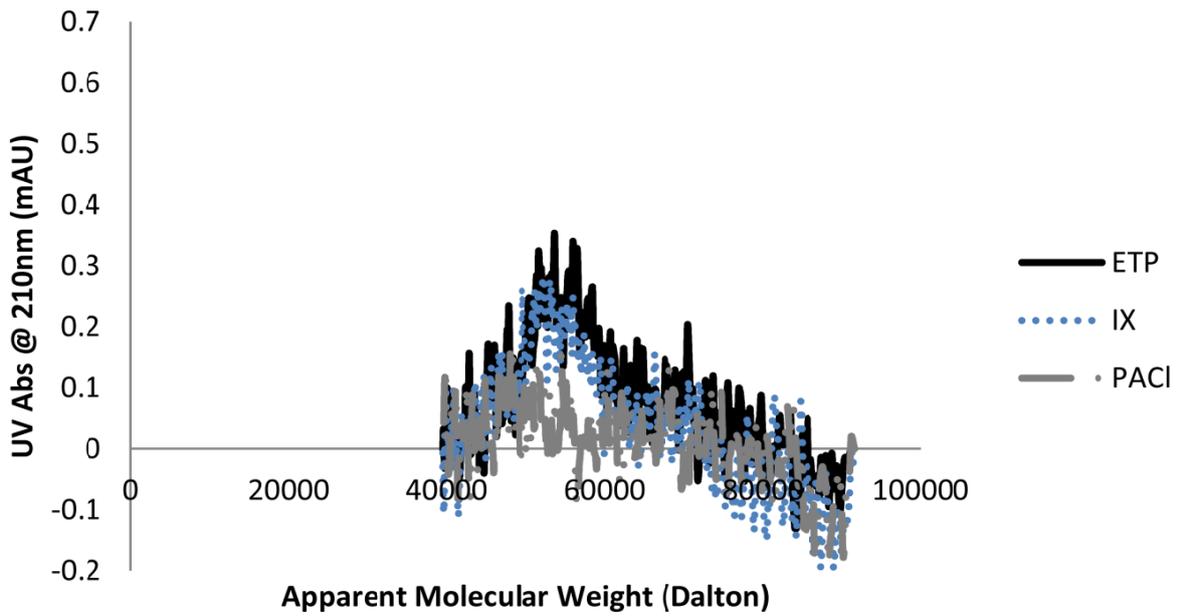
629  
 630 While rejection efficiencies provide information on the likely removal of biopolymers during  
 631 filtration, the extent of fouling is related to the amount of material removed. The PAC water  
 632 had lower initial concentrations of both high MW UV<sub>210</sub> and tryptophan-like proteins, and in  
 633 parallel with fouling by large MW compounds, it showed a reduced membrane fouling rate.  
 634 The SEM images shown in Fig. 11 show that the amounts of gel layer present on the surface  
 635 of the PP membranes were lowest for the PAC filtered membrane and that the IX water  
 636 resulted in a reduced gel layer compared to ETP water. This corresponds to the same order as  
 637 the long term fouling rate and the amount of biopolymer present as determined by the OCD,  
 638 and is consistent with fouling by cake filtration arising from biopolymers.

639  
 640 Table 7: Method A data for permeate solutions of ETP, IX and PAC (calculated by peak area  
 641 units at circa 50 kDa from Figs. 9a, 9b and 10)

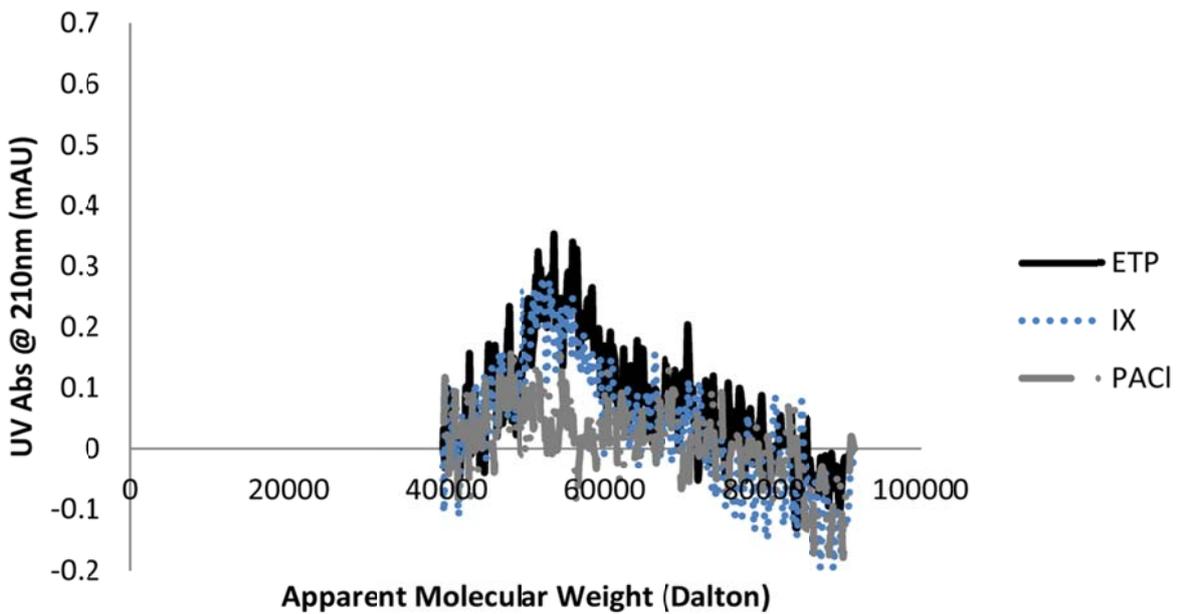
642

	Biopolymer (feed)		Biopolymer (permeate)	
	UV <sub>210</sub>	278/343	UV <sub>210</sub>	278/343
<b>ETP</b>	92.0	461.9	32.8	284.7
<b>IX</b>	88.3	601.9	18.0	112.7
<b>PACI</b>	27.8	266.3	6.4	158.1
<b>% removal ETP</b>			64%	38%
<b>% removal IX</b>			80%	81%
<b>% removal PACI</b>			77%	41%

643  
 644  
 645



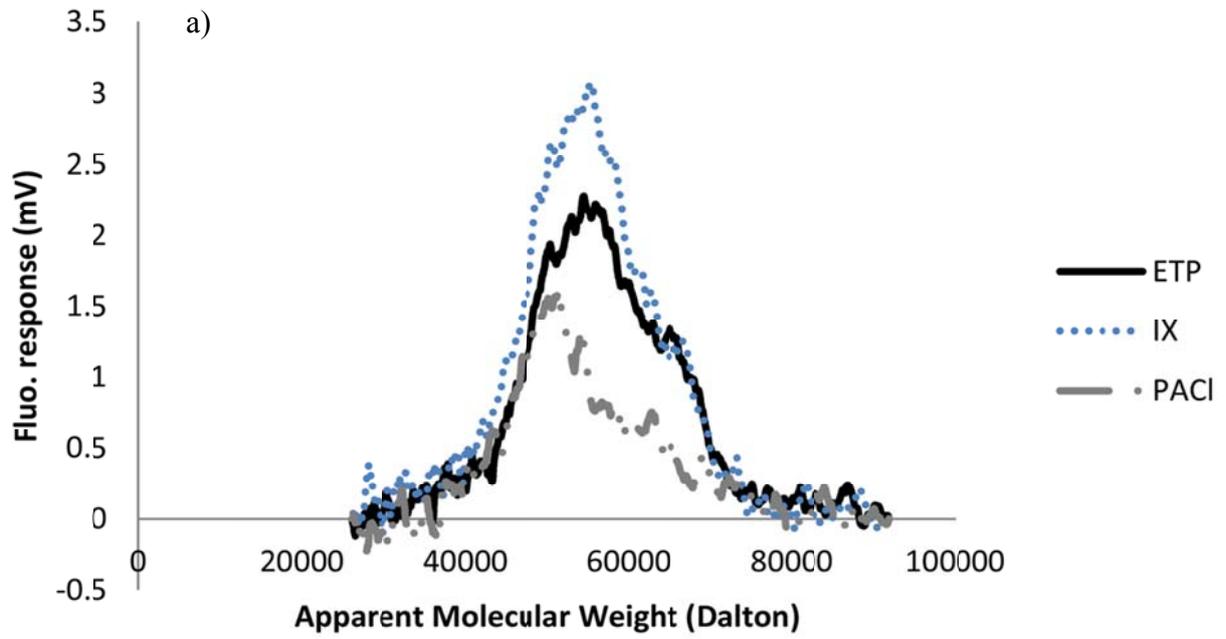
646



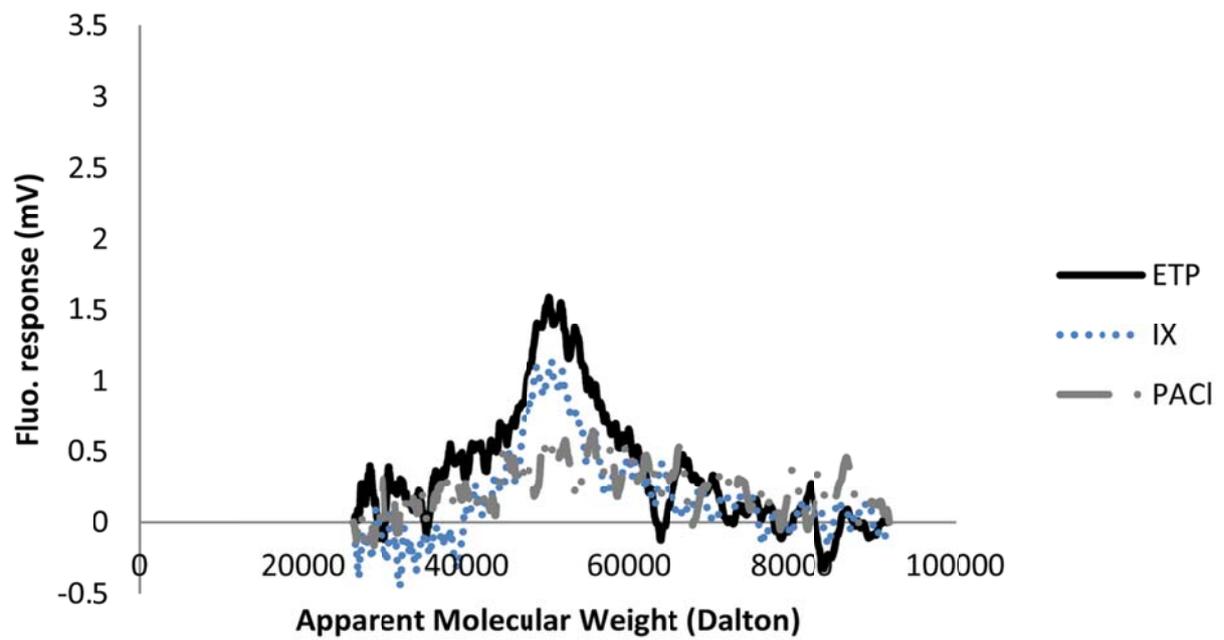
647

648 Fig. 9. Chromatograms of UV response at 210 nm of for a) feed and b) permeate solutions of  
 649 ETP, IX and PAC waters.

650



651

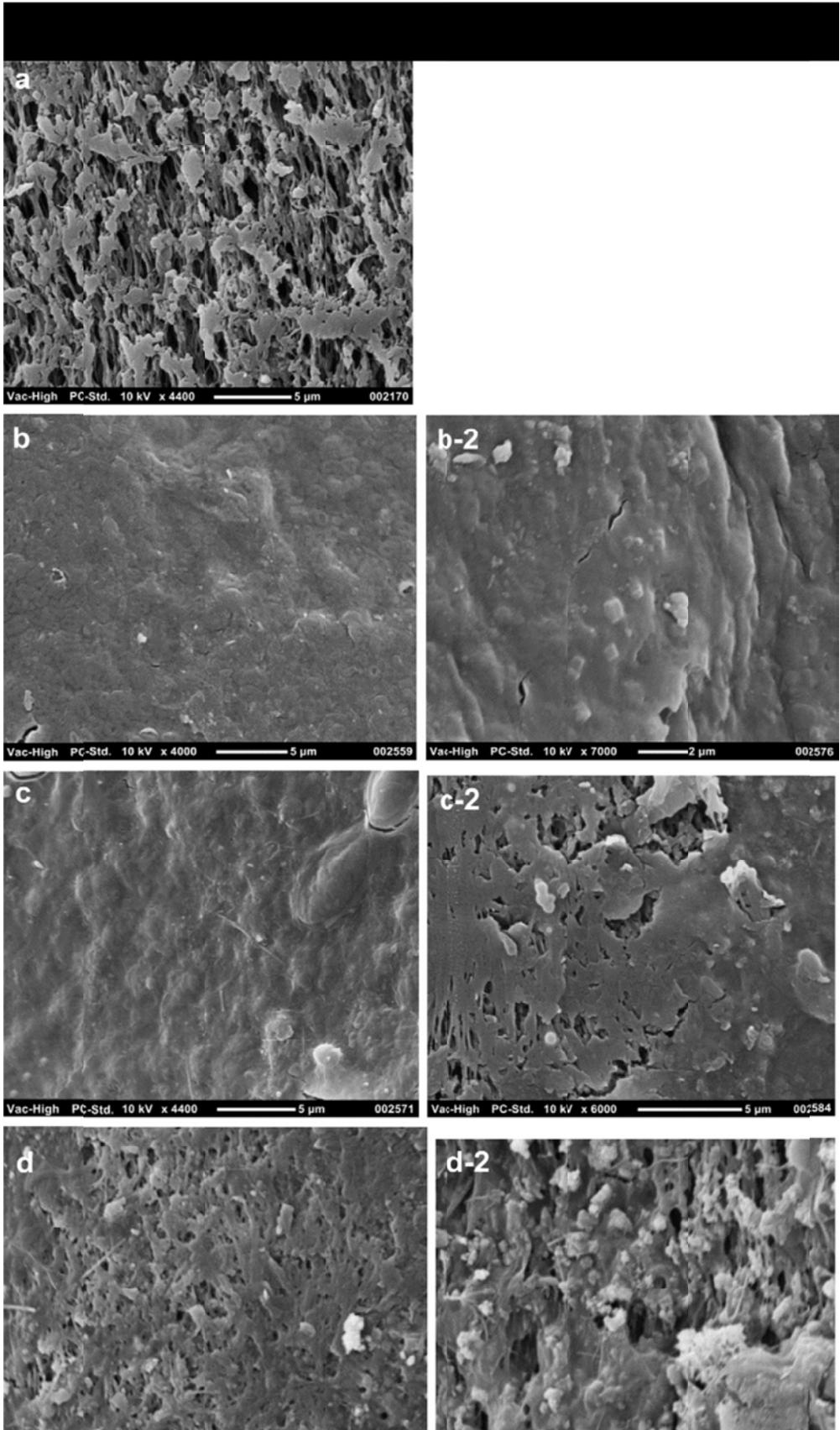


652

653 Fig. 10. Fluorescence spectrum at 278 nm/343 nm for a) feed and b) permeate solutions of

654 ETP, IX and PAC waters

655



656

657 Fig. 11. SEM images representing the membrane surface of a) virgin membrane b) ETP

658 filtered c) IX filtered and d) PACfiltered membranes

659

#### 660 **4. Conclusion**

661 Characterisation of organic MF/UF fouling compounds in wastewater demonstrated that  
662 EEM was unable to detect proteins or polysaccharides in a humic/fulvic dominated  
663 wastewater. Characterisation based on LC systems (Methods A and B) were able to  
664 effectively characterise organic matter in different apparent MW ranges and provided  
665 complementary information. Both methods displayed similar  $UV_{254}$  responses for the  
666 characterisation of humic and fulvic acids. Method A (LC-PDA-fluorescence) was effectively  
667 used for analysing the presence of biopolymer fractions using UV absorbance at 210 nm and  
668 fluorescence detection in which specific excitation and emission wavelength pairs were  
669 applied (278 nm/304 nm and 278 nm/343 nm ex/em).

670

671 Tyrosine-like proteins (278 nm/304 nm) and  $UV_{210}$  biopolymers were effectively removed by  
672 PAC (70% and 72%) and to a lesser extent by IX (4% and 39%). Residual amounts of  
673 tryptophan-like proteins remained in PAC and IX treated waters. Method B (LC- $UV_{254}$ -  
674 OCD-OND) indicated similar trends, with proteins not detected in the PAC water although  
675 some biopolymer remained, while IX removed biopolymers and proteins to similar extents.  
676 PAC removed more biopolymers than IX and preferentially removed proteins, while IX did  
677 not display preferential removal for particular biopolymers. Hence, characterisation of the  
678 organic composition of waters by LC Methods A and B was a useful approach in identifying  
679 potential membrane foulants for which both proteins and polysaccharides (biopolymers) are  
680 thought to play a major role, particularly for longer filtration times where cake filtration  
681 dominates.

682

683 The greater fluorescence response of tryptophan-like proteins (278 nm/343 nm) following IX  
684 treatment was consistent with aggregation of tryptophan-like compounds into larger  
685 aggregates, either by self aggregation or with polysaccharides. Selective removal of low MW  
686 acids and neutrals by IX appeared to enhance the aggregation process, suggesting these  
687 compounds might inhibit aggregation of tryptophan-like proteins.

688

689 In long- term filtration with IX and PAC treated waters, the fouling rates decreased during  
690 extended filtration to approximately 15% of the initial fouling rates, whereas the fouling rate  
691 of ETP water remained the same throughout the filtration period. Such behaviour was  
692 consistent with initial fouling being dominated by pore constriction while at longer times  
693 filtration was dominated by filter cake build up.

694

695 Lower rejection of UV<sub>210</sub> and tryptophan-like proteins were recorded for ETP filtration  
696 compared to filtration of IX and PAC waters. This suggests that the increased aggregation  
697 tendency of biopolymers following IX and PAC treatments increases rejection of  
698 biopolymers.

699

## 700 Acknowledgements

701

702 The authors are grateful to the ARC and Orica for financial support of this project (Australian  
703 Postgraduate Award- Industry: LP0989554). The University of New South Wales performed  
704 the LC-OCD analyses and the EEM characterisations were performed at RMIT University.  
705 The membranes were generously supplied by Siemens Water Technologies. The authors are  
706 thankful for these contributions.

707

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709

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