

# RSC Advances



This is an *Accepted Manuscript*, which has been through the Royal Society of Chemistry peer review process and has been accepted for publication.

*Accepted Manuscripts* are published online shortly after acceptance, before technical editing, formatting and proof reading. Using this free service, authors can make their results available to the community, in citable form, before we publish the edited article. This *Accepted Manuscript* will be replaced by the edited, formatted and paginated article as soon as this is available.

You can find more information about *Accepted Manuscripts* in the [Information for Authors](#).

Please note that technical editing may introduce minor changes to the text and/or graphics, which may alter content. The journal's standard [Terms & Conditions](#) and the [Ethical guidelines](#) still apply. In no event shall the Royal Society of Chemistry be held responsible for any errors or omissions in this *Accepted Manuscript* or any consequences arising from the use of any information it contains.

1     **Carbon dioxide stripping through water by porous PVDF/Montmorillonite hollow fiber**  
2                     **mixed matrix membranes in a membrane contactor**

3  
4 M. Rezaei DashtArzhandi<sup>a</sup>, A. F. Ismail<sup>a,\*</sup>, T. Matsuura<sup>a,b</sup>

5 <sup>a</sup>Advanced Membrane Technology Research Centre (AMTEC), Universiti Teknologi Malaysia, 81310 Skudai, Johor,  
6 Malaysia

7 <sup>a,b</sup>Industrial Membrane Research Institute, Department of Chemical and Biological Engineering, University of  
8 Ottawa, 161 Louis Pasteur St., Ottawa, ON, K1N 6N5, Canada

9  
10                             \*Corresponding author email: [afauzi@utm.my](mailto:afauzi@utm.my)

11                             Tel.: +60 7 5535592; fax: +60 7 5581463

12  
13     **Abstract**

14 Hydrophobic Montmorillonite (MMT)-filled polyvinylidene fluoride (PVDF) hollow fiber mixed  
15 matrix membranes (MMMs) were fabricated by means of wet phase inversion method to meet  
16 the requirements of stripping process at elevated temperatures via membrane contactor. The  
17 effects of MMT incorporation into polymer matrix in different loadings (1, 3, 5 wt% of polymer)  
18 on the membrane properties and CO<sub>2</sub> stripping flux and efficiency were investigated. The  
19 incorporation affected the phase inversion process and accelerated the exchange rate of  
20 solvent/coagulant, resulting in formation of membranes with longer finger-like pores and higher  
21 surface porosity. In addition, the MMMs exhibited higher contact angle and wetting resistance  
22 than plain membrane. As a result, physical CO<sub>2</sub> stripping flux from water and process efficiency  
23 became significantly higher than the plain PVDF hollow fiber with maximum achieved when 5  
24 wt% MMT (coded as M5) was embedded in the polymer. The highest stripping flux of  $4.19 \times 10^{-3}$   
25 mol m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> was achieved by M5 at the tested temperature of 27 °C and the liquid velocity of 2.8

1  $\text{m s}^{-1}$ , which was 38% higher than the plain PVDF hollow fiber at the same operating conditions.

2 A significant stripping performance enhancement was also observed by increasing the  
3 temperature of  $\text{CO}_2$  rich liquid from 27 to 45 and 80 °C.

4 These results suggest that the impregnation of polymeric membranes by inorganic hydrophobic  
5 clay particles can be an effective method to improve the morphology and performance of PVDF  
6 hollow fibers in  $\text{CO}_2$  stripping via gas-liquid membrane contactor.

7  
8 **Keywords:** Carbon dioxide stripping, Mixed matrix membrane contactor, Wettability, Absorbent  
9 temperature, Montmorillonite nano-clay

10

## 11 **1. Introduction**

12 The removal of acid gases, particularly carbon dioxide ( $\text{CO}_2$ ), from flue gas and natural gas has  
13 become a worldwide concern over the last few years due to growing evidence of their effect on  
14 global climate changes <sup>1</sup>. Conventionally,  $\text{CO}_2$  capture is implemented by a number of processes.

15 Among those, one of the most widely used technique is absorption/desorption using liquid  
16 absorbents in traditional equipment including packed columns, bubble columns, and spray  
17 towers <sup>2</sup>. Typically, the process is conducted in two separated towers, absorption and stripping

18 processes. In the first absorption tower, the liquid absorbent flows from the top, removing  $\text{CO}_2$   
19 from the gas that flows counter-currently from the bottom of the tower to come into contact with

20 the liquid. Then the  $\text{CO}_2$  rich solvent is regenerated at the second tower at slightly above normal  
21 pressure and high temperature. These processes have many deficiencies owing to their direct

22 contact of gas and liquid such as flooding, loading, entrainment and channeling that contribute to  
23 reduction of mass transfer <sup>3</sup>. Moreover, they need considerable energy consumption and

1 operating costs are high <sup>4, 5</sup>. Indeed, the priority should be given to the development of highly  
2 effective technologies that are able to minimize overall environmental and economical impacts.  
3 Membrane contactor for CO<sub>2</sub> capture using porous hollow fibers has been researched extensively  
4 over the past few decades as an alternative process to suppress disadvantages of the conventional  
5 equipment <sup>2</sup>. Membrane contactors have high surface area per unit volume ratio, enabling  
6 reduction of capital cost and energy consumption. They do not have the problems of flooding,  
7 loading and channeling due to non-dispersive gas and liquid flows. They also enjoy high  
8 flexibility and modularity which provide performance superior to conventional methods <sup>6-8</sup>. The  
9 absorption of unwanted gas (CO<sub>2</sub> or H<sub>2</sub>S) through a membrane contactor occurs when the gas  
10 contacts with the liquid phase flowing on the opposite side of a hollow fiber membrane that acts  
11 as a barrier. Hence, gas and liquid in contrast to conventional absorption and desorption devices  
12 are manipulated independently. CO<sub>2</sub> rich liquid then comes into contact with a stripping gas in  
13 the next contactor to remove CO<sub>2</sub> from the liquid and regenerate the liquid absorbent as shown  
14 schematically in Fig. 1 <sup>9, 10</sup>. Even though the CO<sub>2</sub> stripping is a vital section of the  
15 absorption/desorption processes, only scarce information, in contrast to the vast works done on  
16 the absorption, is available in the literature on the desorption side <sup>11, 12</sup>. This might be due to the  
17 limitation of polymeric membrane materials that can not withstand an elevated temperature  
18 required for stripping <sup>13</sup>. As known, high pressure and low temperature can favor absorption  
19 process, while low pressure and high temperature are effective parameters in regeneration of rich  
20 CO<sub>2</sub> solutions. However, polymeric membrane contactors are usually designed to be applied in  
21 mild operating conditions such as low temperature and pressure <sup>14</sup>. Therefore, an effort should be  
22 made to explore new membrane materials or to stabilize existing polymeric materials at harsh  
23 conditions. As for polymeric membrane materials, they are limited to fluoropolymers such as

1 polytetrafluoroethylene (PTFE). For example, Kumazawa<sup>15</sup> and Khaisri, et al.<sup>16</sup> fabricated  
2 PTFE hollow fiber membranes for chemical CO<sub>2</sub> stripping via membrane contactor. However,  
3 PTFE is expensive and its processability is poor due to weak solubility in common solvents at  
4 ambient temperature. Alternative to PTFE, Simioni, et al.<sup>3</sup> utilized plasma sputtered nylon  
5 membrane to strip CO<sub>2</sub> at elevated temperatures with aqueous potassium carbonate as absorbent.  
6 The plasma sputtered membrane showed superior CO<sub>2</sub> stripping performance at all tested  
7 temperatures, however, the membrane experienced a significant performance deterioration at  
8 high temperatures of 90-100 °C due to intrusion of solvent in membrane pores and pore wetting  
9 influences. The membrane mass transfer resistance was reported to be 72% of total mass transfer  
10 resistance at high operating temperatures. Polyvinylidene fluoride (PVDF) as the only  
11 hydrophobic polymer, soluble in solvents at normal temperatures can be easily converted to  
12 asymmetric membranes via phase inversion method allowing excellent control on pore size and  
13 porosity. However, this polymer also has some shortcomings. The viscosity of PVDF, when  
14 dissolved in a solvent, is high, which can limit the penetration of the coagulant into the nascent  
15 membrane during the phase inversion process<sup>17</sup>. In addition, the surface hydrophobicity of this  
16 polymer is not as high as other fluoropolymers, which requires improvement. Another problem is  
17 relatively high susceptibility to degradation at high temperature, which is related to the presence  
18 of fluorine in the structure<sup>18</sup>. Hence, it seems crucial to modify PVDF to fulfill the requirements  
19 of stripping process at an elevated temperature. Naim, et al.<sup>19</sup> improved the structure of PVDF  
20 hollow fiber membrane by addition of lithium chloride (LiCl) in spinning dopes for chemical  
21 CO<sub>2</sub> stripping from aqueous diethanolamine (DEA) solution via contactor system. The  
22 asymmetric membranes fabricated via phase inversion method showed a linear increase of  
23 stripping flux and efficiency with LiCl concentration in the polymer dope. However, the

1 hydrophobicity of membrane surface decreased by increasing LiCl content. Rahbari-Sisakht, et  
2 al.<sup>20</sup> modified PVDF hollow fiber membrane by incorporation of surface modifying  
3 macromolecules (SMMs) into spinning solution. The hydrophobicity of membrane was increased  
4 but its enhancement occurred along with increasing membrane pore size and decreasing wetting  
5 resistance, which rendered the long-term stability of the process undesirable.

6

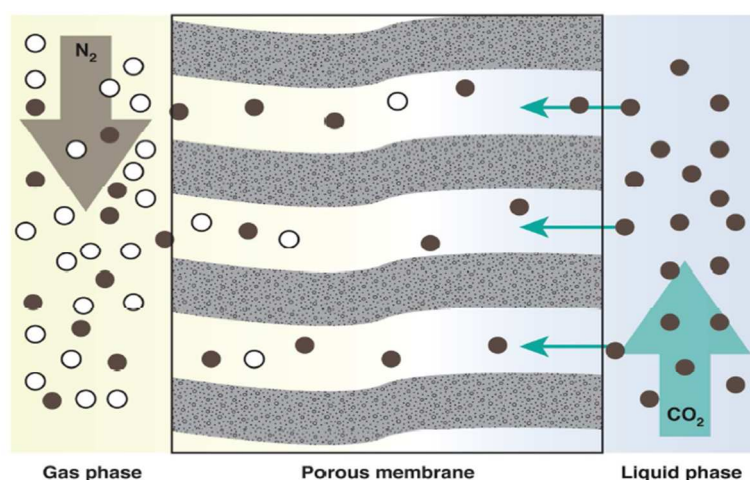


Fig. 1: Mechanism of CO<sub>2</sub> stripping through gas-liquid membrane contactor

7

8 Mixed matrix membranes (MMMs), consisting of inorganic fillers dispersed in a polymer matrix,  
9 are known to combine the advantages of both organic and inorganic phases. Inorganic nano-  
10 fillers having high thermal and chemical stability, porosity and surface area give excellent  
11 properties to the nanocomposite membranes<sup>21-23</sup>. They can function as morphological modifiers  
12 and also improve the surface hydrophobicity/philicity<sup>24</sup>. Most studies published so far indicated  
13 the favorable effect of incorporated inorganic particles on both membrane surface properties (e.g.  
14 pore size, surface porosity and roughness) and the morphology of the membrane sublayer<sup>25-29</sup>.  
15 Therefore, demand on MMMs as a unique ceramic-polymeric membrane has been increased.

1 Utilization of organic/inorganic membranes in the absorption/desorption application may also  
2 prove to be an effective way to overcome the aforementioned drawbacks of the polymeric  
3 membrane materials. In the design of MMMs, the organic/inorganic materials should be selected  
4 based on the requirements specific to the process<sup>30,31</sup>. It has been reported that many properties  
5 of PVDF membranes such as thermal, chemical and mechanical stabilities and also membrane  
6 gas permeance and wetting resistance were improved by incorporation of montmorillonite  
7 (MMT) nano-clay filler<sup>32</sup>. MMT nano-clay is a lamellar layered material with a high aspect ratio  
8<sup>33</sup>. Wang, et al.<sup>34</sup> improved the hydrophilicity of PVDF membrane by hydrophilic MMT. They  
9 revealed that the addition of a small amount of MMT and polyvinylpyrrolidone (PVP) has strong  
10 effects on the membrane pore shape, pore size, porosity and permeability. In another work, they  
11 improved the properties of PVDF hollow fiber membranes for direct contact membrane  
12 distillation (DCMD) by the addition of MMT into PVDF spinning solutions<sup>24</sup>. The fabricated  
13 composite membranes could withstand longer operation time without detecting any membrane  
14 degradation or deformation and keep more stable vapor permeation flux than plain PVDF  
15 membrane due to the obtained unique membrane morphology.

16 In our previous works, highly porous and hydrophobic PVDF/MMT hollow fiber MMMs were  
17 fabricated via wet phase inversion method. The membranes exhibited high performance and  
18 promising long-term test results for CO<sub>2</sub> absorption via membrane contactor<sup>9, 35, 36</sup>. The  
19 objective of this work is to use the prepared PVDF/MMT hollow fiber MMMs for the CO<sub>2</sub>  
20 stripping process via membrane contactor. To the best of our knowledge no research has been  
21 done on the utilization of hollow fiber MMMs in CO<sub>2</sub> stripping. The effects of MMT loading and  
22 some operating parameters such as liquid velocity and absorbent temperature on the CO<sub>2</sub>  
23 stripping performance and process efficiency are investigated.

## 1 2. Experimental

### 2 2.1. Materials

3 Commercial PVDF polymer pellets (Kynar® 740, Arkema Inc., PA, USA) were used as the base  
4 polymer. 1-Methyl-2-pyrrolidone (N-Methyl-2-pyrrolidone, NMP, 99.5%) was used as the  
5 solvent without further purification. Hydrophobic MMT and nanomer 1.30TC were purchased  
6 from Fluka and used as received. The clay was organically modified by octadecylamine (25–30  
7 wt%) and then was treated with ammonium ions. The structure of quaternary ammonium ions is  
8  $N^+(\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{OH})_2(\text{CH}_3)\text{HT}$ , where HT, the hydrogenated tallow, is composed of 65%  $\text{C}_{18}\text{H}_{37}$ ,  
9 30%  $\text{C}_{16}\text{H}_{33}$ , and 5%  $\text{C}_{14}\text{H}_{29}$ . In general, the clay particle surface dimensions ranged from 300 to  
10 more than 600 nm, length/thickness ratio = 200–300, specific surface area =  $750 \text{ m}^2/\text{g}$ . LiCl with  
11 purity more than 99% was purchased from Sigma–Aldrich® and used as non-solvent additive in  
12 the polymer solution. Distilled water was used as the representative absorbent in physical  
13 stripping test. Pure  $\text{CO}_2$  and  $\text{N}_2$  gas were employed as the solute gas and the sweep gas,  
14 respectively.

15

### 16 2.2. Fabrication of asymmetric hollow fiber membranes

17 Four polymer solutions consisting of PVDF/NMP/LiCl (18/2.5/79.5 wt%) and different contents  
18 of modified MMT nano-clay (0, 1, 3, 5 wt% of polymer) were prepared. The PVDF polymer was  
19 gradually added to the prepared suspension of MMT in the NMP/LiCl mixture under vigorous  
20 stirring for at least 18 h at  $50 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$  to ensure the complete dissolution of the polymer. The solutions  
21 were ultra-sonicated, degassed and maintained at room temperature for at least 2 h before  
22 spinning to remove air bubbles in the solution. The hollow fiber spinning by the phase inversion  
23 process was described elsewhere in detail <sup>37</sup>. The flow rate of the spinning dope through the



1 spinneret was maintained at  $4.5 \text{ ml min}^{-1}$  using nitrogen pressure while the bore fluid (20/80 wt  
2 ratio of water/NMP) flow rate was maintained at  $1.7 \text{ ml min}^{-1}$ . Tap water was used as the  
3 external coagulant to solidify the nascent hollow fibers. The spun fibers were immersed in water  
4 for 3 days with daily change of water to remove the residual solvent and the non-solvent  
5 additive. Then, the hollow fibers were post-treated by immersion in methanol for 15 min before  
6 drying. The MMMs were subsequently dried at ambient temperature for further experiments.  
7 Depending on the MMT content in MMM the hollow fibers are named as M0, M1, M3 and M5,  
8 where the digit following M is the MMT wt% in polymer.

9

## 10 **2.3. Membrane characterization**

### 11 **2.3.1. Field emission scanning electron microscopy (FESEM)**

12 The fabricated hollow fiber membranes were cut into the length of 5 cm, immersed in liquid  
13 nitrogen and fractured, then positioned on a holder and sputtered with platinum before testing.  
14 Field emission scanning electron microscopy (FESEM) (JEOL JSM-6701F) images from  
15 outer/inner hollow fiber membrane surfaces and their cross section were taken under various  
16 magnifications.

17

### 18 **2.3.2. Gas permeation test and collapsing pressure measurement**

19 The pore size and the effective surface porosity (surface porosity over effective pore length) for a  
20 porous asymmetric membrane is important characterization parameters. These parameters were  
21 hence obtained using the conventional nitrogen gas permeation test. The details of the  
22 permeation test are described elsewhere<sup>38</sup>. Three hollow fibers with an effective length of 10 cm  
23 were placed in a stainless steel housing with one end sealed and the other end open for  $\text{N}_2$  gas

1 inlet. Pure nitrogen (N<sub>2</sub>) was used as the test gas and the gas flow rate was measured by a bubble  
 2 flow meter. Then, the gas permeance was calculated based on the inner diameter of hollow fibers  
 3 at ambient temperature.

4 The method of calculating mean pore size and effective surface porosity from the experimental  
 5 permeance data by assuming cylindrical pores in the skin layer of the asymmetric membrane is  
 6 as follows. The gas permeance is given a combination of both the Poiseuille and Knudsen flow  
 7 as<sup>39</sup>:

$$\bar{P} = P_p + P_k = \left(\frac{2}{3}\right) \left(\frac{8RT}{\pi M}\right)^{0.5} \frac{r_{p,m} \zeta}{RT L_p} + \frac{1}{8\mu} \frac{r_{p,m}^2 \zeta}{RT L_p} \bar{p} \quad (1)$$

$$\bar{P} = A + B\bar{p} \quad (2)$$

9  
 10 where  $\bar{P}$  is the total gas permeance (mol m<sup>-2</sup> Pa<sup>-1</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>),  $P_p$  and  $P_k$  are the gas permeance by  
 11 Poiseuille and Knudsen flow, respectively,  $R$  is the universal gas constant (8.314 J mol<sup>-1</sup> K<sup>-1</sup>),  $T$   
 12 is the absolute temperature (K),  $M$  is molecular weight of gas (kg mol<sup>-1</sup>),  $r_{p,m}$  is the mean pore  
 13 radius (m),  $\mu$  is the viscosity of gas (Pa s),  $\zeta$  is surface porosity,  $L_p$  is the effective pore length  
 14 (m) and  $\bar{p}$  is mean pressure (Pa) ( $(p_u + p_d)/2$  where  $p_u$  is upstream pressure and  $p_d$  is  
 15 downstream pressure). The upstream pressure was in the range from  $3.5 \times 10^5$  to  $8 \times 10^5$  Pa  
 16 (from 3.5 to 8 bar) (gauge). Using the intercept ( $A$ ) and the slope ( $B$ ) of the straight line of  $\bar{P}$   
 17 versus  $\bar{p}$  plot according to Eqs. 1-2, the mean pore size and the effective surface porosity can  
 18 be calculated by the following equations<sup>31, 40, 41</sup>.

19

$$r_p = \frac{16}{3} \frac{B}{A} \left( \frac{8RT}{\pi M} \right)^{0.5} \mu \quad (3)$$

$$\frac{\zeta}{L_p} = \frac{8\mu RTB}{r_{p,m}^2} \quad (4)$$

1  
2 It should be mentioned that the calculated pore size and the effective surface porosity do not  
3 have any significant physical meaning but they can be used as a criterion for comparing the  
4 membranes fabricated under different spinning conditions <sup>6</sup>.

5

### 6 **2.3.3. Liquid Entry Pressure of Water (LEPw) and Contact Angle Measurement**

7 Liquid entry pressure of water (LEPw) and contact angle measurement were conducted to  
8 evaluate wetting resistance of fabricated membranes. LEPw is the minimum pressure required to  
9 drive the liquid through the membrane pores and the membranes used in membrane contactor  
10 should have sufficient LEPw to prevent intrusion of absorbents into membrane pores. For  
11 measuring LEPw, the same modules as those used for the gas permeation test were prepared.  
12 Distilled water was fed into the lumen side of hollow fibers and the pressure slowly increased  
13 with a step size of 0.5 bar. At each pressure, the membrane module was left for at least 15 min to  
14 check if any water permeates into the fiber shell side. The LEPw was reported as the pressure  
15 when the first water droplet appeared on the outer surface of hollow fibers.

16 The sessile drop technique with a goniometer (model G1, Krüss GmbH, Hamburg, Germany)  
17 was used to measure the contact angle of the hollow fibers' outer surface. The contact angle  
18 measurement at minimum ten various positions was required to obtain a reliable average value  
19 since the hollow fiber diameter was small.

20

## 1 2.4. CO<sub>2</sub> Stripping Test

2 The physical CO<sub>2</sub> stripping test for the plain PVDF and MMM hollow fibers was conducted in a  
3 contactor system. The contactor module containing ten hollow fibers with an effective length of  
4 17.5 cm were prepared. Table 1 shows the specifications of the prepared contactor module used  
5 in the stripping test. Distilled water was saturated with CO<sub>2</sub> before entering into the lumen side  
6 of the hollow fiber membrane modules for the stripping test.

7  
**Table 1: Characteristics of membrane contactor module.**

Module i.d. (mm)	14
Module length (mm)	250
Fiber o.d. (μm)	800-850
Fiber i.d. (μm)	430-480
Effective fiber length (mm)	175
Number of fibers	10

8  
9 Heating of the rich CO<sub>2</sub> solution to 27 °C, 45 °C and 80 °C was performed by a heater with  
10 digital controller (Protech, model 83) before entry into the stripping modules. Pure nitrogen was  
11 used as sweep gas and flowed in the shell side of the module in a counter current mode at a  
12 constant flow rate of 1.2 ml min<sup>-1</sup>. Liquid side pressure was maintained 0.5 bar higher than the  
13 gas side by using control valves installed at the module inlet and outlet of both liquid and gas  
14 streams to prevent bubbling of gas into the liquid. The CO<sub>2</sub> concentration of the liquid stream at  
15 different temperatures in the inlet and outlet of the stripping module was measured by chemical  
16 titration method using 0.02 molar sodium hydroxide (NaOH) solution as titrant and  
17 phenolphthalein as indicator to evaluate the stripping flux and system efficiency. Fig. 2 shows  
18 the flow diagram of the stripping test setup.

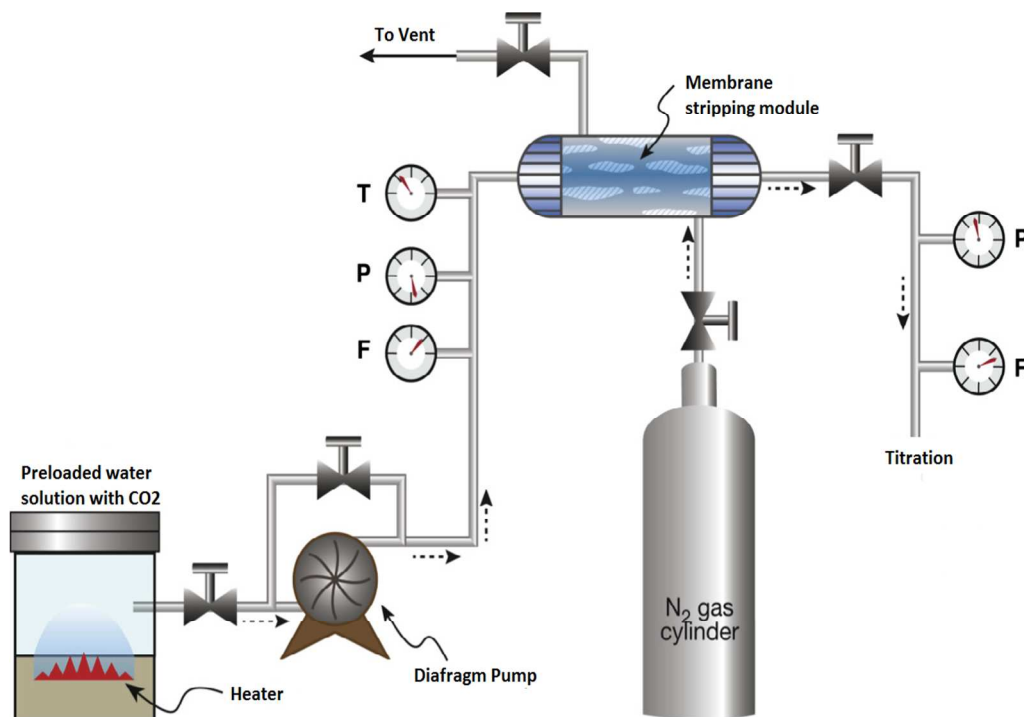


Fig. 2: Flow diagram of experimental CO<sub>2</sub> stripping membrane contactor system.

1

2 The CO<sub>2</sub> stripping flux was calculated based on the inner surface area of the hollow fibers by:

3

$$J_{\text{CO}_2} = \frac{(C_{l,in} - C_{l,o}) \times Q_l}{A_i} \quad (5)$$

4

5 where  $J_{\text{CO}_2}$  is the CO<sub>2</sub> stripping flux (mol m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>),  $C_{l,in}$  and  $C_{l,o}$  are the liquid phase CO<sub>2</sub>

6 concentrations in the inlet and outlet of the membrane modules (mol m<sup>-3</sup>), respectively,  $Q_l$  is

7 liquid flow rate (m<sup>3</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>) and  $A_i$  is the inner surface of the hollow fiber membranes (m<sup>2</sup>). The CO<sub>2</sub>

8 stripping efficiency ( $\eta$ ) of hollow fiber membranes was obtained by following equation:

9

$$\eta(\%) = \left(1 - \frac{C_{l,o}}{C_{l,in}}\right) \times 100 \quad (6)$$

1

## 2 **3. Results and discussion**

### 3 **3.1. Morphological studies**

4 Porous hollow fiber membranes with different hydrophobic MMT nano-clay contents were  
5 fabricated via wet phase inversion method for CO<sub>2</sub> stripping through membrane contactor. It is  
6 well known that the most important parameters of the phase inversion process are  
7 thermodynamic stability of polymer solution and kinetics of mutual solvent-coagulant exchange.  
8 They are responsible for triggering the changes in membrane morphology, permeability and CO<sub>2</sub>  
9 stripping performance. These parameters were critically affected by incorporation of MMT nano-  
10 clay into PVDF polymer solutions. The addition of MMT caused polymer solution to experience  
11 lower viscosity (see Table 2) which consequently decreased thermodynamic stability and  
12 accelerated demixing rate of solvent/coagulant during spinning<sup>42</sup>. The lower viscosity was due  
13 to presence of surface modifier (tallow) used for surface modification of clay particles in the  
14 system. The solution with the highest MMT content (5 wt%) possessed the lowest viscosity  
15 (Table 2). Therefore, the addition of clay particles to the PVDF solutions affected the mechanism  
16 of membrane formation in the water bath and induced changes in both the membrane skin layer  
17 and the membrane sublayer morphology.

18 Figure 2 depicts the FESEM images of the cross-section, outer and inner surfaces of the plain  
19 PVDF membrane and hollow fiber MMM with 5 wt% MMT (M5) representing all mixed matrix  
20 membranes' morphology. From the cross-sectional images (Figs. 2(A1), 2(B1)), it can be seen  
21 that MMMs have longer finger-like pores which meet with a thick sponge-like layer in the  
22 middle of the membranes. The formation of longer finger-like macrovoids for MMMs was due to

1 less thermodynamic stability and faster liquid-liquid demixing caused by addition of clay  
2 particles<sup>43</sup>. In addition, a thick sponge-like layer in the middle of the cross-section is caused by  
3 less penetration of water into this region. The longer finger-like pores of MMMs make the  
4 sponge-like layer thinner leading to higher permeation rates of MMMs. Furthermore, the tear-  
5 like macrovoids observed in plain PVDF hollow fiber membrane have almost disappeared in  
6 MMMs. It confirms that the pores had less time to merge and grow in size as demixing rate was  
7 increased by addition of clay particles.

8 The FESEM images of the inner surface (Figs. 2(A2), 2(B2)) show large pores, although they  
9 might not necessarily be penetrating through the hollow fibers' cross-section. The solvent power  
10 of bore fluid that is stronger than water did not allow the formation of skin layer at the inner  
11 surface<sup>30, 44, 45</sup>.

12 Regarding the outer surface micrographs (Figs. 2(A3), 2(B3)), the surface looks much smoother  
13 than the inner surface, indicating the formation of skin layer due to the fast diffusion rate of  
14 solvent and fast phase inversion rate. The outer surface of the MMMs is slightly rougher than the  
15 outer surface of plain PVDF hollow fiber, but there is no indication of particle agglomeration<sup>24,</sup>  
16 <sup>34, 46</sup>

17

18

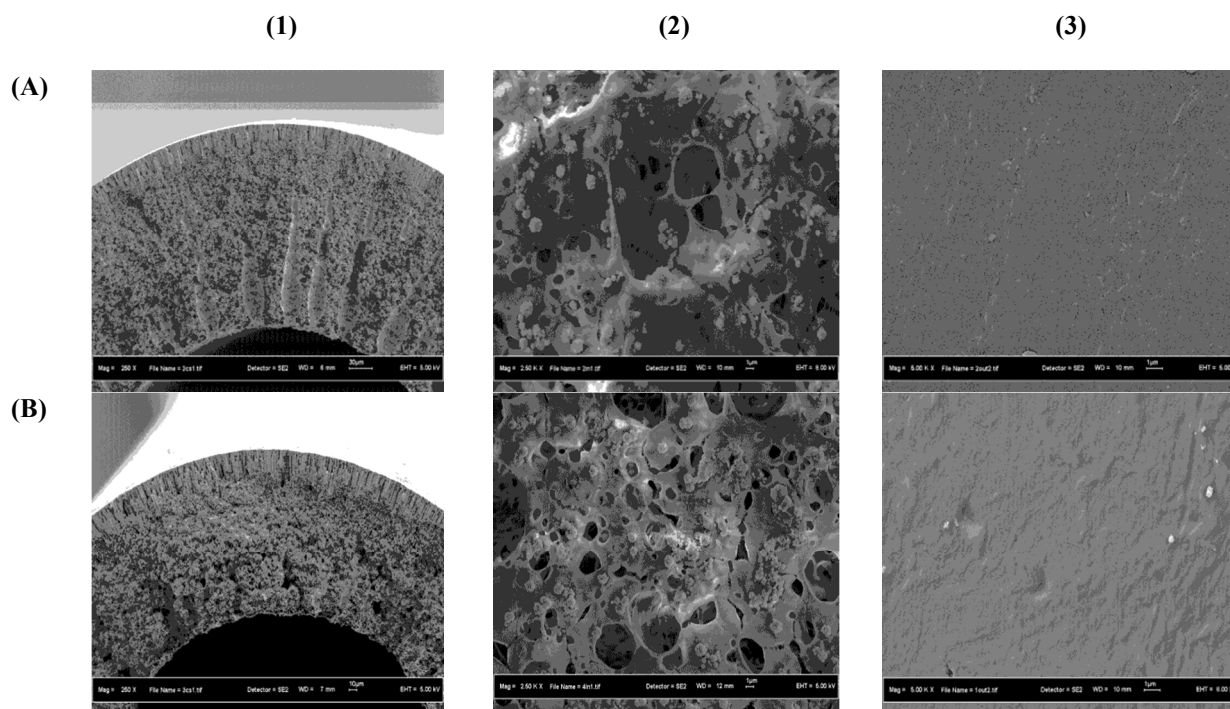
19

20

21

22

23



**Fig. 2: FESEM morphology of the PVDF hollow fiber membranes: (A) plain PVDF (M0); (B) MMM hollow fiber (M5); (1) cross section; (2) inner surface; and (3) outer surface.**

1  
 2  $N_2$  permeance, mean pore size and effective surface porosity obtained from the gas permeation  
 3 tests of the fabricated membranes are presented in Fig. 3 and Table 2. It is obvious that the gas  
 4 permeance of membranes increased by addition of MMT to PVDF dopes showing a maximum at  
 5 M3. The higher permeation rates of MMMs are in accordance with the formation of longer  
 6 finger-like macrovoids. In Table 2, the effective surface porosity increases progressively with  
 7 MMT clay loading. Pore size of membranes slightly increased by adding MMT, but  
 8 interestingly, the pore size of M5 was even smaller than M0. This was the reason why the M5  
 9 exhibited slightly lower permeance than M3 despite its larger effective surface porosity.

10

**Table 2: Characteristics of the fabricated hollow fiber membranes.**



Membrane No.	M0	M1	M3	M5
Polymer solution viscosity (centipoise)	1250	740	665	590
Permeance of N <sub>2</sub> gas at 7 bar <sub>g</sub> (10 <sup>-7</sup> mol/m <sup>2</sup> s Pa)	3.68	6.63	8.74	7.70
Effective surface porosity (m <sup>-1</sup> )	87	124	171	237
Mean pore size, r <sub>p,m</sub> (nm)	26	32	34	22
LEPw (bar)	8 ± 0.5	9.5 ± 0.3	9 ± 0.5	11 ± 0.5
Contact angle (θ)	80° ± 1.5	84° ± 1.25	88° ± 1.5	99° ± 1.5
Stripping flux (mol m <sup>-2</sup> s <sup>-1</sup> ) 27 °C <sup>a</sup>	2.6 × 10 <sup>-3</sup>	--	--	4.19 × 10 <sup>-3</sup>
Stripping flux (mol m <sup>-2</sup> s <sup>-1</sup> ) 45 °C <sup>a</sup>	5.6 × 10 <sup>-3</sup>	--	--	6.99 × 10 <sup>-3</sup>
Stripping flux (mol m <sup>-2</sup> s <sup>-1</sup> ) 80 °C <sup>a</sup>	6.87 × 10 <sup>-3</sup>	--	--	7.55 × 10 <sup>-3</sup>

a: at the highest liquid velocity of 2.8 m s<sup>-1</sup>

1

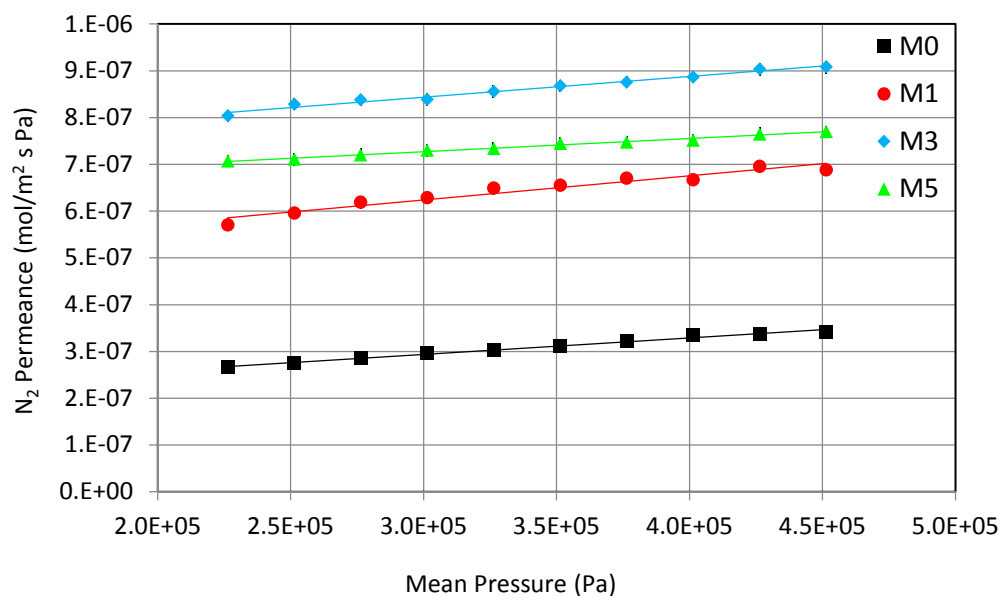


Fig. 3: Measured N<sub>2</sub> permeance of membranes as a function of mean pressure.

1 High membrane hydrophobicity and wetting resistance are crucial factors in membrane stripping.  
2 The high wetting resistance prevents the pore wetting and contributes to stable contactor  
3 performance in long-term operations. The contact angle measurement using sessile drop method  
4 is commonly considered as a simple and convenient method of obtaining qualitative information  
5 about membrane surface hydrophobicity<sup>28</sup>. The contact angle of hollow fiber membranes  
6 increases from 80° of M0 to 99° of M5 (see Table 2). It can be related to the increase of effective  
7 solid surface area and interfacial energy between the solid and liquid by the addition of  
8 hydrophobic nano-fillers in the system<sup>47</sup>. In other words, the presence of the clay particles in the  
9 system reduced surface energy of the membrane. It is well known that the solid surfaces having  
10 lower surface energy have greater contact angle<sup>48</sup>.

11 Liquid entry pressure of water (LEPw) as an indicator of membrane pore wetting is influenced  
12 by membrane hydrophobicity and pore size<sup>49</sup>. The MMMs demonstrated higher wetting  
13 resistance than plain membrane with the highest 11 bar of M5 (see Table 2). It is ascribed to the  
14 observed highest surface hydrophobicity and the smallest pore size of M5 which restrict the  
15 absorbent intrusion into membrane pores.

16 Since surface porosity, hydrophobicity and wetting resistance of membranes were significantly  
17 improved by the addition of MMT, higher stripping performance and efficiency of MMMs can  
18 be expected.

19

### 20 **3.2 CO<sub>2</sub> stripping test**

21 In the CO<sub>2</sub> stripping test, emphasis is on the effects of liquid flow rate and rich CO<sub>2</sub> solution  
22 temperature on the CO<sub>2</sub> stripping flux and process efficiency. CO<sub>2</sub> rich liquid was supplied into  
23 the lumen side of the hollow fiber since the membrane stripping process is known to be a liquid  
24 phase rate controlled process and the flow velocity can be higher in the lumen side than in the

1 shell side <sup>10</sup>. Simioni, et al. <sup>50</sup> increased CO<sub>2</sub> stripping performance of PTFE and  
2 polyethersulfone (PES) flat sheet membranes by installing a stirrer in the liquid side to increase  
3 the turbulence. In addition, practically no change of stripping flux has been reported by  
4 increasing gas flow rate <sup>11, 15, 16</sup>. For example, Mansourizadeh <sup>51</sup> reported an almost constant  
5 physical CO<sub>2</sub> stripping flux when the gas velocity was increased from 0.01 to 0.05 m s<sup>-1</sup>. It is  
6 noteworthy that the effect of gas flow rate was also insignificant in CO<sub>2</sub> stripping where an  
7 aqueous solution containing an organic compound was used as the absorbent <sup>16</sup>.

8 Fig. 4 presents the CO<sub>2</sub> stripping flux as a function of liquid velocity for all the fabricated  
9 membranes at fixed operating temperature and pressure (27 °C and 1.3 bar respectively) with N<sub>2</sub>  
10 as stripping gas. As can be seen, the flux increases with increasing liquid velocity for all  
11 fabricated membranes due to decrease in liquid boundary layer resistance, which contributed to  
12 decrease of the overall mass transfer resistance <sup>7</sup>. A linear dependency of stripping flux and  
13 liquid velocity is also reported for chemical stripping of CO<sub>2</sub> from aqueous MEA solution in  
14 PTFE hollow fibermembrane contactor <sup>16</sup>.

15 The stripping flux also increased progressively from M0 to M5, as the filler loading increased.  
16 The increase of stripping flux from plain PVDF hollow fibers (M0) to the hollow fiber MMMs is  
17 in accordance with FESEM observations, N<sub>2</sub> permeance and wetting resistance results; i.e.  
18 MMMs having higher surface porosity, hydrophobicity and LEPw exhibited higher performance  
19 than plain membrane. Indeed, higher porosity of MMMs allows higher CO<sub>2</sub> gas permeation  
20 through the pores and higher wetting resistance suppress water intrusion into the MMMs' pores,  
21 allowing MMMs to maintain fast CO<sub>2</sub> gas permeation through the membrane pores. Moreover,  
22 as observed in the cross-sectional FESEM images, MMMs possess longer finger-like pores,  
23 which minimize the contribution of sponge-like layer to the CO<sub>2</sub> gas permeation resistance.

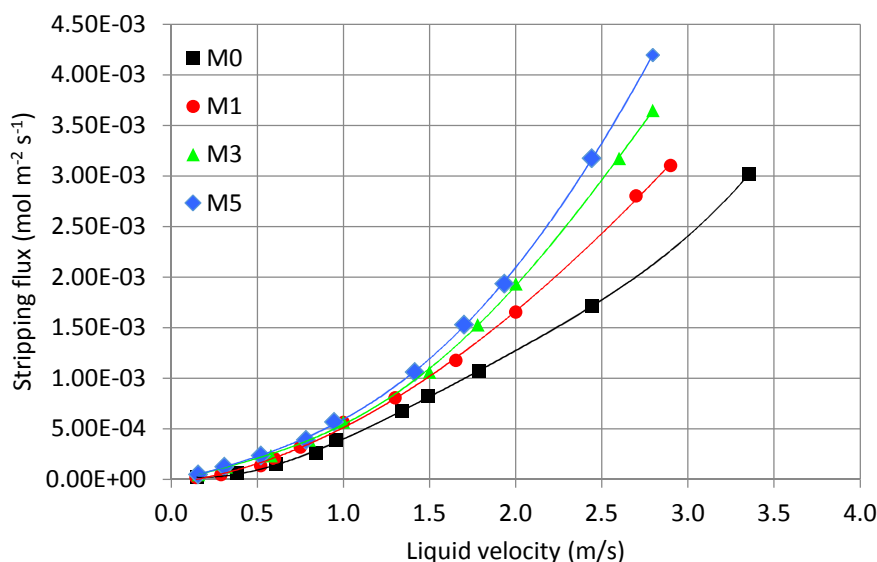
1 However, it is reported sometimes that the hollow fiber membranes with large finger-like  
2 macrovoids are not desired for gas-liquid contacting processes and might lead to increase  
3 membrane pore wetting<sup>52</sup>.

4 It is interesting to note that M5 exhibited lower N<sub>2</sub> gas permeance than M3. While the CO<sub>2</sub>  
5 stripping flux of M5 is higher than M3. This is most-likely attributed to the smaller pore size of  
6 M5 in comparison to M3 (see Table 2), i.e. the larger pores of M3 were partially wetted in the  
7 stripping experiments which reduced the CO<sub>2</sub> flux, while pore wetting of M5 was prevented  
8 more effectively by its smaller pore size.

9 The highest stripping flux at the tested temperature of 27 °C and liquid velocity of 2.8 m s<sup>-1</sup> of  
10  $4.19 \times 10^{-3}$  mol m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> was obtained for M5 MMM, which was approximately 38% higher than  
11 the plain PVDF at the same operating conditions (see Fig. 4 and Table 2). Mansourizadeh<sup>51</sup>  
12 fabricated PVDF hollow fiber membranes for CO<sub>2</sub> stripping from water via membrane contactor.  
13 Their reported stripping flux was significantly lower than the flux of M5 MMM in this study  
14 under the same operating conditions. The lower performance could be ascribed to the larger pore  
15 size of 280 nm and low LEPw (2.5 bar) of their fabricated membrane, which resulted in more  
16 pore wetting and mass transfer resistance. Rahbari-Sisakht, et al.<sup>20</sup> improved hollow fiber PVDF  
17 membrane by blending hydrophobic surface modifying macromolecules (SMMs) to enhance  
18 CO<sub>2</sub> stripping performance through water. The highest stripping flux of  $2.1 \times 10^{-3}$  was achieved  
19 for the surface modified PVDF membrane containing 6% SMM into dope which was almost 99  
20 % lower than the stripping flux of M5 MMM. It was most likely related to the increased  
21 membrane mean pore size from 158 to 654 nm and consequent low LEPw by blending SMM.  
22 Therefore, as an additive, MMT inorganic clay particle is superior to SMM.

1 Interestingly, unlike several works in the literature which reported leveling off of the stripping  
2 flux even at low liquid velocities of  $0.3 \text{ m s}^{-1}$  process<sup>51, 53, 54</sup>, the stripping flux of the MMMs  
3 fabricated in this work kept increasing even at the highest flow rate of  $2.8 \text{ m s}^{-1}$  (see Fig. 4). This  
4 indicates low resistance of MMMs and the dominant liquid boundary layer resistance on the  
5 overall resistance.

6



7 **Fig. 4: Effect of liquid velocity on stripping flux ( $T = 27 \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ ).**

8 The stripping efficiency was calculated by Eq. (6) and the results shown in Fig. 5. The stripping  
9 efficiency also increased by increasing liquid velocity and clay loading. The highest stripping  
10 efficiency of 23 % at the temperature of  $27 \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$  was achieved by M5 at the liquid velocity of  $2.8$   
11  $\text{m s}^{-1}$  which was 64% higher than the plain PVDF hollow fiber (M0).

12

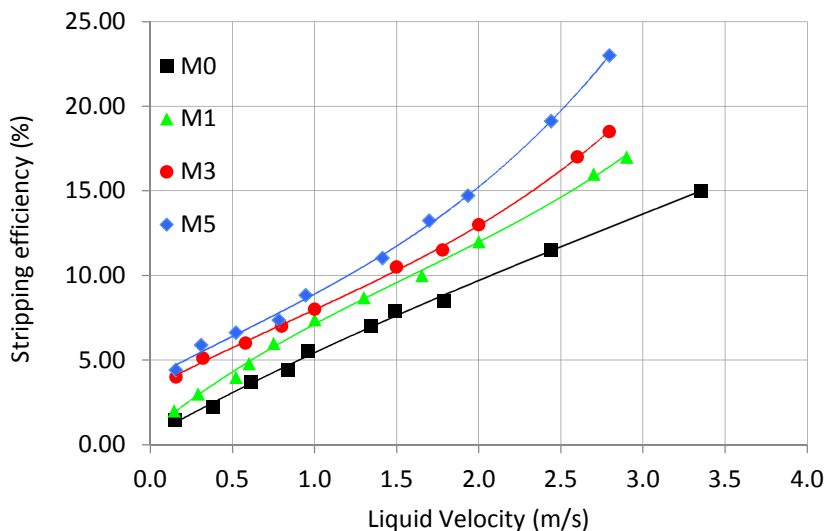


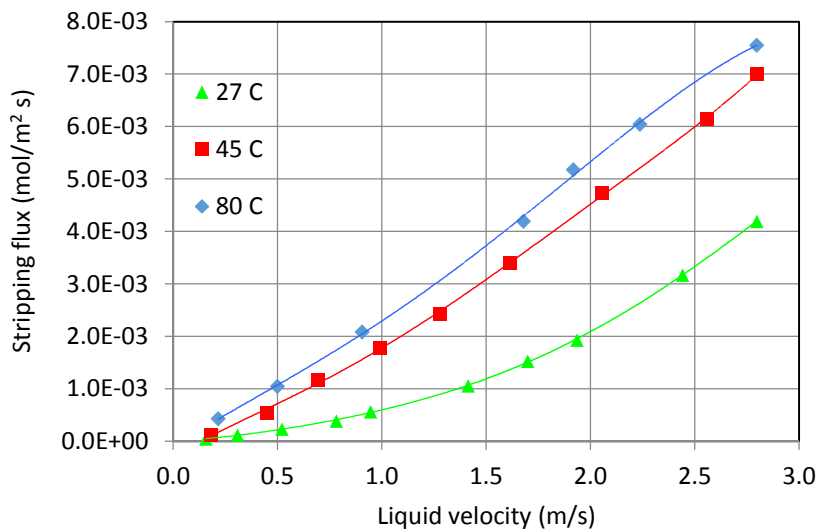
Fig. 5: Effect of liquid velocity on stripping efficiency ( $T = 27\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ ).

1  
 2 As the M5 MMM exhibited the highest stripping flux and process efficiency among all  
 3 fabricated membranes, the effect of rich  $\text{CO}_2$  solution temperature on the stripping flux of M5  
 4 and M0 was measured and the results were compared as presented in Fig. 6. In Fig. 6 the  $\text{CO}_2$   
 5 loaded liquid temperature has a direct influence on the  $\text{CO}_2$  desorption performance. The  
 6 stripping flux increases by increasing temperature at any adjusted liquid velocity. In fact,  
 7 increasing temperature lowered the dissolved  $\text{CO}_2$  concentration in water at equilibrium,  
 8 resulting in an increase in driving force for mass transfer. The flux increase also is due to  
 9 decreasing rich  $\text{CO}_2$  solution viscosity and surface tension by increase in temperature, resulting  
 10 in faster diffusion rate and further stripping performance enhancement<sup>13, 50</sup>. The viscosity of  
 11 water decreases from  $0.9 \times 10^{-3}$  to  $0.36 \times 10^{-3}$  Pa.s<sup>55</sup> and surface tension decreases from  $7.2 \times$   
 12  $10^{-2}$  to  $6.3 \times 10^{-2}$  N/m<sup>56</sup> when the temperature increases from 27 to 80  $^{\circ}\text{C}$ . Consequently, the  
 13 stripping flux of M5 from  $4.19 \times 10^{-3}$  at ambient temperature (27  $^{\circ}\text{C}$ ) considerably increased to

1 the highest value of  $7.55 \times 10^{-3} \text{ mol m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$  at the liquid temperature of  $80 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$  and velocity of  $2.8$   
2  $\text{m s}^{-1}$  (see Table 2 and Fig. 6).

3 However, the flux also possible to decrease or become constant particularly at high operating  
4 temperatures. This is because of decreasing liquid surface tension and viscosity by temperature  
5 which increase the possibility of membrane pore wetting by solvent intrusion<sup>50</sup>. The  
6 interpretation could be supported by a comparison between the obtained stripping fluxes at low  
7 and high tested temperatures. The stripping flux enhancement of M5 when the absorbent  
8 temperature was increased from  $27 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$  to  $45 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$  was 67%, while only 8% was the enhancement  
9 where the absorbent temperature increased from  $45 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$  to  $80 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$  (see Fig. 6 and Table 2). It is  
10 obvious that the stripping flux improvement at low temperatures is significantly greater than high  
11 temperature operations. Therefore, it can be concluded that the enhancement effect of  
12 temperature on stripping flux above a specific absorbent temperature is counterbalanced by  
13 membrane pore wetting. In addition, the membrane wetting and subsequent flux decrease at high  
14 operating temperatures could be related to the possible membrane morphological changes above  
15 that specific temperature, which as an objective will be investigated in our future  
16 communications. The specific temperature value is suggested to be recognized based on the  
17 membrane structure and hydrophobicity. Naim, et al.<sup>7</sup> fabricated PVDF membranes for  $\text{CO}_2$   
18 stripping via membrane contactor and the results revealed that the stripping flux increases by  
19 increasing both liquid velocity and temperature. However, they detected significant performance  
20 deterioration at high temperature of  $80 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ . The authors related the performance decline to the  
21 membrane pore wetting, which caused the membrane resistance to become dominant.

22



**Fig. 6: Effect of rich solution temperature on CO<sub>2</sub> stripping flux of M5 MMM.**

1  
 2 Furthermore, the M5 MMM exhibited better CO<sub>2</sub> stripping flux than plain membrane at elevated  
 3 rich CO<sub>2</sub> solution temperatures and any adjusted liquid velocity (see Table 2).  
 4 Interestingly, the higher CO<sub>2</sub> stripping flux of M5 in comparison with M0 is more pronounced at  
 5 low tested liquid temperatures (see Table 2). As mentioned previously, the flux of M5 at the  
 6 liquid temperature of 27 °C and the velocity of 2.8 m s<sup>-1</sup> was almost 38% higher than the plain  
 7 membrane. However, the value at the absorbent temperature of 45 °C and 80 °C are 20% and  
 8 only 9%, respectively. In fact, pore wetting of M5 is lower than M0 at low temperatures because  
 9 of smaller pore size and higher LEPw, but it seems to become M5 ≥ M0 at high absorbent  
 10 temperature because of capillary condensation which is promoted by the smaller pore size of M5.  
 11 The membrane with very small pore size is more susceptible to capillary condensation of water  
 12 vapor based on the Kelvin equation. Generally, water vapors can condense in channels of  
 13 sufficiently small dimensions and partially wet the membrane<sup>57</sup>. This mechanism of membrane  
 14 pore wetting is more crucial when the water vapor forms into the system by increasing  
 15 temperature and the potential for water vapor re-condensation within the membrane morphology



1 increases<sup>50</sup>. However, unlike several works on membrane stripping that observed re-condensed  
2 water in the gas side, any water droplet was not appeared in the gas side of M5 contactor module  
3 in the present stripping experiment. Hence, the fabricated MMMs may show performance  
4 stability in long-time stripping operations which will be the focus of our future communications.  
5 It can be said that the pore size of membranes utilized at elevated temperature stripping process  
6 should be astutely optimized to eliminate both wetting tendency of liquid penetration and  
7 absorbent vapor re-condensation into membrane pores.

8

#### 9 **4. Conclusion**

10 Hollow fiber mixed matrix membranes (MMMs) were successfully fabricated by means of wet  
11 phase inversion method when hydrophobic inorganic MMT nano-clay was added to the spinning  
12 solutions. The incorporated MMT into PVDF polymer matrix affected phase inversion aspects  
13 toward CO<sub>2</sub> stripping performance enhancement. The fabricated membranes were characterized  
14 in terms of morphology, gas permeation, surface hydrophobicity and wetting resistance. Physical  
15 CO<sub>2</sub> stripping from water by nitrogen as sweep gas was conducted by the gas-liquid membrane  
16 contactor and the effect of the liquid velocity and temperature on the performance were  
17 investigated. Incorporation of MMT clay particles caused formation of longer finger-like pores  
18 together with increase in membrane surface contact angle and wetting resistance. As a result,  
19 MMMs exhibited considerably higher stripping performance than the plain PVDF hollow fiber  
20 with the best performance obtained when 5 wt% of MMT was added to the polymer. The highest  
21 stripping flux for M5 MMM of  $4.19 \times 10^{-3} \text{ mol m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$  at the liquid temperature of 27 °C and  
22 liquid velocity of 2.8 m s<sup>-1</sup> was 38% higher than the plain PVDF. The stripping flux was further  
23 enhanced by increasing the temperature of CO<sub>2</sub> rich solution from 27 to 45 and 80 °C, e.g. the

- 1 stripping flux of M5 increased from  $4.19 \times 10^{-3}$  to  $7.75 \times 10^{-3}$  mol m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> when the temperature
- 2 was increased from 27 to 80° at the liquid velocity of 2.8 m s<sup>-1</sup>.
- 3

### Nomenclature

$A$	contact area (m <sup>2</sup> )
$A_i$	inner surface of the hollow fiber membranes (m <sup>2</sup> )
$C_l$	solute gas concentration in liquid (mol m <sup>-3</sup> )
$C_{l,in}$	liquid phase CO <sub>2</sub> concentrations in the inlet of the membrane modules
$C_{l,o}$	liquid phase CO <sub>2</sub> concentrations in the outlet of the membrane modules
$C_g$	solute gas concentration in gas (mol m <sup>-3</sup> )
$\Delta C_l^{av}$	logarithmic mean of the difference in the concentration of solute gas in liquid phase (mol m <sup>-3</sup> )
$d_p$	pore diameter (m)
$d_i$	inner diameter of hollow fiber (m)
$d_o$	outer diameter of hollow fiber (m)
$d_{lm}$	log mean diameter (m)
$H$	Henry's constant
$J_{CO_2}$	CO <sub>2</sub> stripping flux
$L$	hollow fiber membrane length (m)
$L_p$	effective pore length (m)
$m$	molecular weight (g mol <sup>-1</sup> )
$p$	pressure (pa)
$\bar{p}$	mean pressure (Pa)
$\bar{P}$	total gas permeance (mol m <sup>-2</sup> )

$P_p$	gas permeance by Poiseuille flow regime ( $\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{Pa}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$ )
$P_K$	gas permeance by Knudsen flow regime ( $\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{Pa}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$ )
$Q_l$	liquid flow rate ( $\text{m}^{-1}$ )
$r_p$	pore radius (m)
$r_{p,m}$	mean pore radius (m)
$R$	universal gas constant ( $8.314 \text{ J mol}^{-1} \text{ K}^{-1}$ )
$T$	temperature (K)
$V_l$	liquid velocity in lumen side ( $\text{m s}^{-1}$ )
$\zeta$	surface porosity
$\theta$	contact angle of liquid and surface
$\mu$	gas viscosity (Pa s)
$\eta$	CO <sub>2</sub> stripping efficiency

1

## 2 References

1. A. B. Rao and E. S. Rubin, *Environmental Science & Technology*, 2002, **36**, 4467-4475.
2. P. Kosaraju, A. S. Kovvali, A. Korikov and K. K. Sirkar, *Industrial & Engineering Chemistry Research*, 2004, **44**, 1250-1258.
3. M. Simioni, S. E. Kentish and G. W. Stevens, *Energy Procedia*, 2011, **4**, 659-665.
4. M. Mavroudi, S. P. Kaldis and G. P. Sakellariopoulos, *Journal of Membrane Science*, 2006, **272**, 103-115.
5. R. Wang, H. Y. Zhang, P. H. M. Feron and D. T. Liang, *Separation and Purification Technology*, 2005, **46**, 33-40.
6. A. Mansourizadeh and A. F. Ismail, *Chemical Engineering Journal*, 2010, **165**, 980-988.
7. R. Naim, A. F. Ismail and A. Mansourizadeh, *Journal of Membrane Science*, 2012, **392-393**, 29-37.
8. J.-G. Shim, J.-H. Kim, J. H. Lee and K.-R. Jang, *Energy Procedia*, 2009, **1**, 779-782.
9. M. Rezaei, A. F. Ismail, G. Bakeri, S. A. Hashemifard and T. Matsuura, *Chemical Engineering Journal*, 2015, **260**, 875-885.
10. G. Bakeri, A. F. Ismail, M. R. DashtArzhandi and T. Matsuura, *Journal of Membrane Science*, 2015, **475**, 57-64.
11. S. Koonaphapdeelert, Z. Wu and K. Li, *Chemical Engineering Science*, 2009, **64**, 1-8.
12. F. A. Tobiesen, H. F. Svendsen and K. A. Hoff, *International Journal of Green Energy*, 2005, **2**, 201-215.

21

- 1 13. D. W. Savage, G. Astarita and S. Joshi, *Chemical Engineering Science*, 1980, **35**, 1513-1522.
- 2 14. N. Awanis Hashim, Y. Liu and K. Li, *Chemical Engineering Science*, 2011, **66**, 1565-1575.
- 3 15. H. Kumazawa, *Chemical Engineering Communications*, 2000, **182**, 163-179.
- 4 16. S. Khaisri, D. deMontigny, P. Tontiwachwuthikul and R. Jiratananon, *Journal of Membrane Science*, 2011, **376**, 110-118.
- 5 17. M. Rezaei DashtArzhandi, A. F. Ismail, T. Matsuura, B. C. Ng and M. S. Abdullah, *Chemical Engineering Journal*, 2015, **269**, 51-59.
- 6 18. H. Li and H. Kim, *Desalination*, 2008, **234**, 9-15.
- 7 19. R. Naim, A. F. Ismail and A. Mansourizadeh, *Journal of Membrane Science*, 2012, **423**, 503-513.
- 8 20. M. Rahbari-Sisakht, D. Rana, T. Matsuura, D. Emadzadeh, M. Padaki and A. F. Ismail, *Chemical Engineering Journal*, 2014, **246**, 306-310.
- 9 21. S. Husain and W. J. Koros, *Journal of Membrane Science*, 2007, **288**, 195-207.
- 10 22. S. A. Hashemifard, A. F. Ismail and T. Matsuura, *Chemical Engineering Journal*, 2011, **170**, 316-325.
- 11 23. S. Liu, G. Liu, X. Zhao and W. Jin, *Journal of Membrane Science*, 2013, **446**, 181-188.
- 12 24. K. Y. Wang, S. W. Foo and T.-S. Chung, *Industrial & Engineering Chemistry Research*, 2009, **48**, 4474-4483.
- 13 25. W. L. Chou, D. G. Yu and M. C. Yang, *Polymers for Advanced Technologies*, 2005, **16**, 600-607.
- 14 26. P. Aerts, I. Genne, S. Kuypers, R. Leysen, I. F. J. Vankelecom and P. A. Jacobs, *Journal of Membrane Science*, 2000, **178**, 1-11.
- 15 27. P. Aerts, E. Van Hoof, R. Leysen, I. F. J. Vankelecom and P. A. Jacobs, *Journal of Membrane Science*, 2000, **176**, 63-73.
- 16 28. O. Monticelli, A. Bottino, I. Scandale, G. Capannelli and S. Russo, *Journal of applied polymer science*, 2007, **103**, 3637-3644.
- 17 29. A. Bottino, G. Capannelli, V. D'asti and P. Piaggio, *Separation and Purification Technology*, 2001, **22**, 269-275.
- 18 30. A. F. Ismail and A. Mansourizadeh, *Journal of Membrane Science*, 2010, **365**, 319-328.
- 19 31. G. Bakeri, A. F. Ismail, D. Rana and T. Matsuura, *Chemical Engineering Journal*, 2012, **198-199**, 327-337.
- 20 32. A. Leszczyńska, J. Njuguna, K. Pielichowski and J. R. Banerjee, *Thermochimica Acta*, 2007, **453**, 75-96.
- 21 33. A. Olad, *Advances in diverse industrial applications of nanocomposites*, Publisher InTech Europe, Croatia, 2011, 113-138.
- 22 34. P. Wang, J. Ma, Z. Wang, F. Shi and Q. Liu, *Langmuir*, 2012, **28**, 4776-4786.
- 23 35. M. Rezaei, A. F. Ismail, S. A. Hashemifard and T. Matsuura, *Chemical Engineering Research and Design*, 2014, **92**, 2449-2460.
- 24 36. M. Rezaei, A. F. Ismail, S. A. Hashemifard, G. Bakeri and T. Matsuura, *International Journal of Greenhouse Gas Control*, 2014, **26**, 147-157.
- 25 37. K. Yu Wang, T.-S. Chung and M. Gryta, *Chemical Engineering Science*, 2008, **63**, 2587-2594.
- 26 38. M. Khayet, C. Y. Feng, K. C. Khulbe and T. Matsuura, *Polymer*, 2002, **43**, 3879-3890.
- 27 39. D. Wang, K. Li and W. K. Teo, *Journal of Membrane Science*, 1996, **115**, 85-108.
- 28 40. S. Lee, G. Park, G. Amy, S.-K. Hong, S.-H. Moon, D.-H. Lee and J. Cho, *Journal of Membrane Science*, 2002, **201**, 191-201.
- 29 41. H. Yasuda and J. T. Tsai, *Journal of Applied Polymer Science*, 1974, **18**, 805-819.
- 30 42. M.-J. Han and S.-T. Nam, *Journal of Membrane Science*, 2002, **202**, 55-61.
- 31 43. P. Sukitpaneenit and T.-S. Chung, *Journal of Membrane Science*, 2009, **340**, 192-205.
- 32 44. H. J. Kim, R. K. Tyagi, A. E. Fouda and K. Ionasson, *Journal of Applied Polymer Science*, 1996, **62**, 621-629.

- 1 45. A. Xu, A. Yang, S. Young, D. deMontigny and P. Tontiwachwuthikul, *Journal of Membrane*  
2 *Science*, 2008, **311**, 153-158.
- 3 46. A. Razmjou, E. Arifin, G. Dong, J. Mansouri and V. Chen, *Journal of Membrane Science*, 2012,  
4 **415–416**, 850-863.
- 5 47. Y. Tamai and K. Aratani, *The Journal of Physical Chemistry*, 1972, **76**, 3267-3271.
- 6 48. R. N. Wenzel, *Industrial & Engineering Chemistry*, 1936, **28**, 988-994.
- 7 49. Garcı, amp, x, M. C. a-Payo, M. A. Izquierdo-Gil and C. Fernández-Pineda, *Journal of Colloid and*  
8 *Interface Science*, 2000, **230**, 420-431.
- 9 50. M. Simioni, S. E. Kentish and G. W. Stevens, *Journal of Membrane Science*, 2011, **378**, 18-27.
- 10 51. A. Mansourizadeh, *Chemical Engineering Research and Design*, 2012, **90**, 555-562.
- 11 52. W. Chinpa, *ScienceAsia*, 2008, **34**, 385-389.
- 12 53. G. Bakeri, T. Matsuura, A. F. Ismail and D. Rana, *Separation and Purification Technology*, 2012,  
13 **89**, 160-170.
- 14 54. A. Mansourizadeh and A. F. Ismail, *Desalination*, 2011, **273**, 386-390.
- 15 55. J. Kestin, M. Sokolov and W. A. Wakeham, *Journal of Physical and Chemical Reference Data*,  
16 1978, **7**, 941-948.
- 17 56. W. V. Kayser, *Journal of Colloid and Interface Science*, 1976, **56**, 622-627.
- 18 57. L. R. Fisher, R. A. Gamble and J. Middlehurst, *Nature*, 1981, **290**, 575-576.

19