# PREPARATION AND CHARACTERIZATION OF MICRO- AND ULTRAFILTRATION MEMBRANES

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### Summary

In this chapter the reader can find extensive and useful information regarding the

preparation and characterization of different types of microfiltration and ultrafiltration membranes. State-of-the-art preparation and characterization methods are discussed, as well as somewhat newer and more exotic methods. A complete as possible overview is tried to be given. The chapter is supported by 30 illustrative figures and tables and more than 130 references. Much information in this chapter originates form a selected number of handbooks (Microfiltration and Ultrafiltration, Principles and Application by Zeman and Zydney, 1996, Handbook of Industrial Membranes by Scott, 1995, Ultrafiltration and Microfiltration Handbook by Cheryan, 1998 and Basic principles of Membrane Technology by Mulder, 1996) and the author would recommend these books as a good reference for further and even more extensive information regarding microfiltration and ultrafiltration membranes and membrane processes.

# **1. Preparation of Micro-and Ultrafiltration Membranes**

# 1.1. Classification of Micro- and Ultrafiltration Membranes

Microfiltration and ultrafiltration membranes can be classified according to their different characteristics. Most of these characteristics apply to both types of membranes, e.g. type of material (ceramic or polymer), membrane geometry (hollow fiber, capillary, tubular, flat sheet), hydrophilicity (hydrophilic or hydrophobic), reinforced or unsupported, etc.

Only one characteristic, the pore size, is used to make a distinction between micro- and ultrafiltration membranes. Microfiltration membranes generally have pore diameters larger than 50 nm, while ultrafiltration membranes have typical pore diameters between 2 nm and 50 nm, according to IUPAC and the European Membrane Society (EMS) standards (Koops 1995). The pore diameter is the parameter used to specify microfiltration membranes. Ultrafiltration membranes are normally specified by a so-called Molecular Weight Cut-off (MWCO) value, representing the molecular weight of a species that is retained for 90 per cent by the membrane. An exception to this rule is made by the manufacturers of ceramic membranes, who also specify ultrafiltration membranes by pore size. As well as the larger pore size, the surface and volume (or bulk) porosity of microfiltration membranes are also generally larger.

# 1.1.1. Materials

Both types of membranes can be made from different materials e.g. polymers, ceramics, metals or glasses. By far the most commercial membranes are made of polymers followed by ceramics and very few, mostly small scale membranes, are made of metal or glass. Ceramic microfiltration and ultrafiltration membranes are two to four times as expensive as polymeric membranes, but possess excellent chemical, temperature and mechanical stability. The better stability results in a longer life time, which compensates partly for the higher prices per square meter of membrane area. Polymeric micro- and ultrafiltration membranes have reported life times, dependent on the application, of more than five years. Table 1 contains a listing of the most commonly applied membrane materials, where a distinction is made between micro- and ultrafiltration membranes.

Material	Membrane Process	
		LIE
Cellulose acetate	MF	UF
Cellulose nitrate	MF	
Cellulose	MF	UF
Poly(sulfone)	MF	UF
Poly(ethersulfone)	MF	UF
Poly(sulfone)/poly(vinylpyrrolidone)	MF	UF
Poly(ethersulfone)/poly(vinylpyrrolidone)	MF	UF
Poly(vinylidenefluoride)	MF	UF
Poly(tetrafluoroethylene)	MF	
Poly(acrylonitrile)		UF
Poly(ethylene)	MF	
Poly(propylene)	MF	
Poly(imide)		UF
Poly(amide)	MF	UF
Al <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	MF	
$\gamma$ -Al <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub> / $\alpha$ -Al <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>		UF
Zirconia/alumina	MF	
Zirconia/carbon	MF	UF
Zirconia/stainless steel		UF
Silica	MF	UF
Type 316 stainless steel.	MF	

Table 1. The most commonly used materials in commercially available micro- and ultrafiltration membranes.

# 1.1.2. Hydrophilicity and Hydrophobicity

Another distinction that can be made and which is directly related to the membrane material is the measure of hydrophilicity/hydrophobicity. Hydrophilic membrane surfaces are less susceptible to adsorption of species like proteins, bacteria, colloids, etc. and consequently less sensitive to fouling. Generally, hydrophilic polymers show a rather poor chemical and thermal stability, which explains why hydrophobic polymers are mainly used as a basic material for membranes. In order to introduce some hydrophilicity to a membrane several techniques can be distinguished:

- Hydrophobic polymers can be chemically modified by the introduction of polar functional groups, e.g. the introduction of SO<sub>3</sub>H-groups in poly(sulfone), poly(ethersulfone) or poly(ether ether ketone) (Noshay and Robeson 1976; Drzewinski and Macknigth 1985; Brousse et al. 1976; Bailly et al. 1987; Jin et al. 1985; Ogawa and Marvel 1985) or the introduction of COOH-groups in poly(sulfone) by carboxylation.
- Copolymers consisting of hydrophobic and hydrophilic blocks can be used as membrane material, e.g. ethylene and vinylalcohol or ethylene and vinylacetate. This way hydrophilicity can be combined with good chemical and temperature stability.

- Hydrophobic membranes can be treated to introduce hydrophilic functional groups at the membrane surface. Techniques used for surface modification are: (i) chemical modification (Stengaard 1988), where functional groups, like carbonyl- amino- and hydroxyl-groups or even ionic groups like sulfonic acid, carboxylic acid and quaternary ammonium groups are covalently bonded to the membrane surface by chemical reaction; (ii) plasma treatment (Wolff et al. 1988; Krakelle and Zdrahala 1989), where specific functional groups can be introduced by using NH<sub>3</sub>, N<sub>2</sub> or CO as discharge gases; (iii) coating, where a hydrophilic layer is applied by interfacial polymerization or adsorption coating; and (iv) grafting.
- Hydrophobic polymers that serve as the basic material can be mixed with small amounts of a hydrophilic polymer. A polymer combination has to be found that results in a homogenous solution when dissolved (Paul and Newman 1978). Heterogeneous blends normally result in heterogeneous membrane structures with insufficient mechanical stability. Examples of homogenous blends of a hydrophobic and a hydrophilic polymer are (i) poly(sulfone) and poly(vinylpyrrolidone) (Tweddle et al. 1983; Aptel et al. 1985); (ii) poly(ethersulfone) and poly(vinylpyrrolidone) (Wienk 1993; Wienk 1995a; Boom et al. 1993; Boom et al. 1994a; Boom et al. 1994b); (iii) poly(etherimide) and poly(vinylpyrrolidone) (Roesink 1991); (iv) cellulose and poly(acrylonitrile) and cellulose and poly(vinylbutyrate) (Grinsgpan et al. 1986).

### 1.1.3. Geometries

Microfiltration and ultrafiltration membranes are available in different geometry's. Polymeric membranes are manufactured as (i) flat sheets, which are then applied in plate-and-frame modules, pleated in cartridges or packed in spiral wound modules; (ii) hollow fibers, which are characterized by outside diameters smaller than 1.5 mm; (iii) capillaries, which are characterized by outer diameters of 1.5-5 mm; and (iv) tubular membranes, which are characterized by outer diameters larger than  $\pm 5$  mm (Koops 1995).

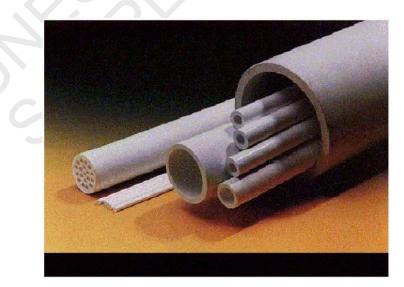


Figure 1. Several ceramic tubular geometries; assortment of ECN Petten, The Netherlands, ceramic membrane products. (Printed with permission of ECN)

Flat sheet ultrafiltration membranes are often reinforced by highly porous nonwoven or macro-porous webs. The same is true for polymeric tubular membranes, while hollow fiber and capillary membranes are self-supporting. Inorganic membranes are manufactured as disks, tubes, multi-channel tubes and honeycomb monoliths, examples of tubular ceramic membranes can be seen in Figure 1.

## 1.1.4. Structures

As well as having a different geometry the membrane structure itself can be quite different. A homogenous membrane consists of one and the same material, while a composite membrane is made up of two different materials, where a thin layer responsible for the separation is applied on top of a porous support layer, e.g.  $\gamma$ -aluminum on top of an  $\alpha$ -aluminum support layer (see Figure 2). Looking at the cross section of a membrane the structure can be either symmetric (or isotropic), with a homogeneous structure throughout the membrane thickness, or asymmetric (or anisotropic), with a thin top layer of small cell/pore sizes at the feed side and a gradually increasing cell/pore size towards the permeate side(see Figure 3). Asymmetric structures are typically formed in the so-called phase-inversion process developed by Loeb and Sourirajan (1962).

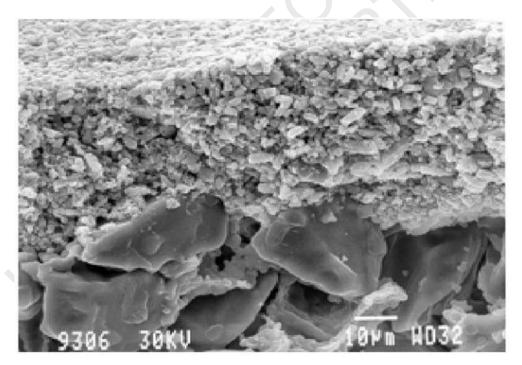


Figure 2. Cross section of a microfiltration ceramic composite membrane;  $\gamma$ -aluminum on top of an  $\alpha$ -aluminum support. A product from Velterope B.V., The Netherlands. (Printed with permission of Velterop)

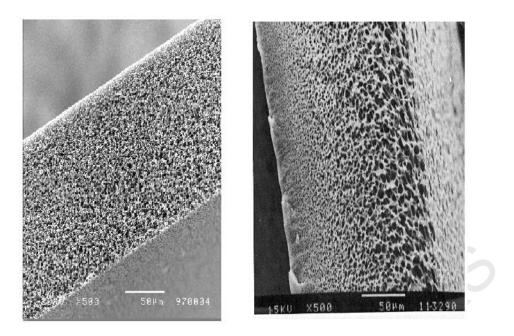


Figure 3. Cross section a symmetric membrane structure (Sartorius) (left) and an asymmetric membrane structure (University of Twente) (right).

### 1.1.5. Surface Charge

Another classification of micro- and ultrafiltration membranes can be made in relation to the surface charge of the membrane; it can have a positive charge, a negative charge or as in most commercial micro- and ultrafiltration membranes be neutral.

### **1.2. Preparation of Filtration Membranes**

The different membrane geometries discussed earlier imply different manufacturing techniques. Flat sheet polymeric membranes are cast as self-supporting sheets or on top of a non-woven or other support for extra mechanical strength (see Figure 4). Hollow fiber membranes are manufactured by a spinning process (see Figure 5), where a polymer solution is extruded through a nozzle and ceramic tubular membranes are prepared by extrusion of a ceramic paste.

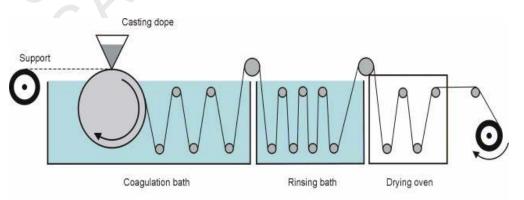


Figure 4. Schematic representation of the membrane casting process.

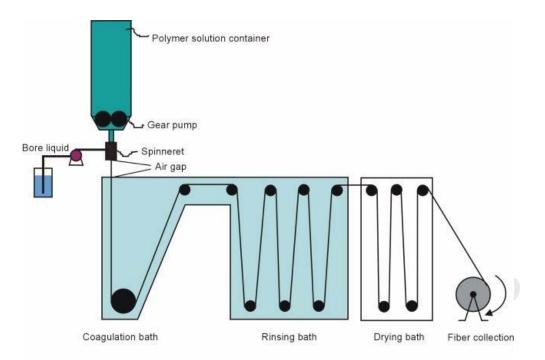


Figure 5. Schematic representation of a hollow fiber spinning process.

For the preparation of flat sheet porous membranes different structure formation techniques can be distinguished, e.g. the phase-inversion process, the track-etch process, two dimensional stretching of a film, etc.

Hollow fibers, capillaries and tubular polymeric membranes are generally formed by a phase inversion process, while the ultimate ceramic membranes structures are formed by a sinter process. Most of the commercial membranes on the market today are produced according to a phase-inversion process (see later).

To influence a membrane structure, such as pore size and porosity (overall as well as surface porosity) or membrane nature (hydrophilicity, chemical stability, etc.) all kinds of additives are used in the polymeric solution. Salts are added to enhance the porosity, weak nonsolvents are added to obtain spongy structures (suppress macrovoids) and influence the porosity and small amounts of hydrophilic polymer are added to enhance wettability and suppress macrovoids.

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