



Forward osmosis desalination using ferric sulfate draw solute

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ARTICLE INFO

Keywords:
Forward osmosis
Desalination
Ferric sulfate
Draw solution
Water flux

ABSTRACT

Lack of suitable draw solutes is one of the major limiting factors hindering commercial realization of forward osmosis (FO) desalination process. This study investigates the feasibility of ferric sulfate as draw solute in FO desalination. A laboratory-scale, cross-flow FO apparatus utilizing commercial FO membrane (cellulose triacetate-based) was used to desalinate synthesized (5000 ppm NaCl) brackish water and (40,000 ppm NaCl) seawater using 280,000 ppm ferric sulfate draw solution at ambient conditions. The observed average water flux was 3.75 and 1.61 L/m² h in case of brackish and seawater, respectively. Using deionized water as feed solution, reverse ferric sulfate flux of 1.88 g/m² h was observed. Product water was recovered from the diluted draw solution by precipitation reaction using barium hydroxide. Pure water samples with salt contents of 60 and 80 ppm were obtained by desalinating brackish and seawater feed, respectively.

1. Introduction

Forward osmosis (FO) is a natural osmotic process that involves permeation of water molecules across a semipermeable membrane from a feed solution of higher water chemical potential (lower osmotic pressure) to a solution of lower water chemical potential (higher osmotic pressure). Ideally, the semipermeable membrane allows only water molecules to pass through while the salts are rejected by the membrane and remain in the feed solution. Typical feed solutions for FO desalination process include brackish and seawater. The solution of lower water chemical potential is often termed as the draw solution, osmotic agent, or osmotic media and is typically a highly concentrated salt solution. After extraction of water molecules from the feed solution, pure water has to be subsequently recovered from the draw solution.

Research investigations into FO have been mainly stimulated to provide solutions to the increased need and challenges in the desalination industry. These include augmenting the global supply of pure water in a sustainable manner, decreasing the aggravated cost and energy requirements, and providing alternative solutions to the current energy-intensive conventional desalination processes such as thermal and reverse osmosis (RO) desalination [1–7]. Compared to conventional desalination technologies, FO is considered cost-effective and energy efficient since it neither requires high hydraulic pressure nor high thermal energy [8,9]. It also exhibits lower and reversible membrane fouling [10–14], promotes higher salt rejection [15–20], and minimizes brine discharge [17,21]. Despite its inherent advantages and extensive industrial and academic research efforts involved,

commercial deployment of FO desalination has not been adequately possible owing to some major limitations including unavailability of suitable FO membranes, concentration polarization effects, and lack of suitable draw solutes that are easy to regenerate and separate from product water [8,17,21–23].

Development of draw solutes is one key area of research in FO desalination. The ideal draw solute for FO desalination must meet the following criteria: (i) ability to generate high osmotic pressure, (ii) highly soluble in water, (iii) chemically inert to the FO membrane, (iv) non-toxic and safe to human health and environment, (v) ability to minimize the concentration polarization effects and reverse draw solute flux, and (vi) easily separable from product water [24–29]. Based on these criteria, several novel draw solutes and product water recovery methods have been proposed for FO applications. These research efforts are presented in Table 1 along with a summary of product water recovery technique and the advantages and disadvantages for each draw solute [30–77].

Generally, the draw solutes can be classified as volatile, organic-based, inorganic-based, and nanoparticle-based draw solutes. Despite extensive research on the applicability of different types of draw solutes, FO desalination technology is still in its infancy owing to several existing challenges related to energy efficiency, toxicity, produced water flux and quality, and reverse salt flux of each type of draw solute [28]. Volatile draw solutes [30–37] generally offer low osmotic pressure and low regeneration [27]. In addition, heating is required in most cases in order to recover product water which tends to decrease the energy efficiency of the FO process. All these factors combined together

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Table 1
Typical draw solutions used in the FO desalination of salty water.

Draw solute type	Draw solute/solution	Recovery method	Advantages and disadvantages	Reference
Volatile draw solutes	Sulfur dioxide (SO ₂) Mixture of water with SO ₂ or aliphatic alcohols Potassium nitrate (KNO ₃) and SO ₂ Ammonium bicarbonate (NH ₄ HCO ₃) Switchable polarity solvent (SPS)	Heated gas stripping operation Heating/distillation Heating and cooling Heating to 60 °C Bubbling air or nitrogen with mild heating	Simple, requires energy, harmful to human health Simple, requires energy, harmful to human health Requires energy, involves multiple steps for product recovery High water flux, energy-efficient, poor water quality Energy efficient, membrane degradation, poor product quality	[30] [31] [32] [33–35] [36]
Organic-based draw solutes	Dimethyl ether Fructose Glucose EDTA sodium salt Polyacrylic acid sodium salt (PAA–Na) Sodium lignin sulfonate (NaLS) Poly (sodium 4-styrenesulfonate) (PSS) 2-methylimidazole-based compounds	Exposure to air None (pure water not produced) RO Nanofiltration (NF) Ultrafiltration (UF) None (pure water not produced) UF FO-membrane distillation (MD) integrated process MD	Energy efficient, fire hazard Applicable only for emergency water supply Safe draw solute, requires energy High water flux, requires energy High water flux, requires energy Low cost, natural abundance, toxicity High water flux, low reverse draw solute flux, requires energy High osmotic pressure, high internal concentration polarization, requires energy Ability to desalinate seawater, requires energy High water flux, requires energy Product water recovery not investigated, possibility of membrane hydrolysis	[37] [38] [39] [40] [41] [42] [43] [44]
Nanoparticle-based draw solutes	Poly (sodiumstyrene-4-sulfonate- <i>co</i> - <i>n</i> -isopropylacrylamide) (PSSS-PNIPAM) Poly (amidobamine) terminated with sodium carboxylate groups (PAMAM-COO _{Na}) Hexavalent phosphazene salts	Centrifugation at 40 °C Hot UF (HUF) Heating to 40 °C NF Temperature change	High water flux, heating (energy) required Low energy required, low water flux Low energy required, low water flux High water flux, poor water quality High water flux, hot draw solution required, poor product quality, RO or NF required to reach the drinkable water level	[45] [46] [47]
Inorganic draw solutes	Poly (aspartic acid sodium salt) (PAspNa) Electric-responsive hyaluronic acid/polyvinyl alcohol (HA/PVA) polymer hydrogels Thermo-responsive microgels Thermo-sensitive polyelectrolytes Semi-INP hydrogels Glucosamine salts Protonated betaine bis(trifluoromethylsulfonyl)imide ([HBet][Tf ₂ N])	UF NF MD Concentrated sunlight Heating NF	High water flux, requires energy High water flux, requires energy High water flux, requires energy Low osmotic pressure, poor product quality	[48] [49]
	Polymer-based cationic polyelectrolyte Ferric-lactate complex Poly(isobutylene- <i>dt</i> -maleic anhydride) Hydrogel/polyurethane interpenetrating network (HPIPN) Oligomeric polytetrabutylphosphonium styrenesulfonate)s EDTA complexes	UF NF MD Concentrated sunlight Heating NF	High water flux, requires energy High water flux, requires energy High water flux, poor water quality High water flux, heating involved High solubility, nontoxic, requires energy	[50] [51] [52] [53] [54]
	Polymer hydrogels Magnetic nanoparticles	Pressure or temperature stimuli Canister separator or magnetic field Electric field integrated with NF MD	High water recovery, susceptible to microbial contamination Simple and easy product water recovery, susceptible to nanoparticle aggregation High osmotic pressure, required energy, complicated process High water flux, product water recovery not investigated	[61,62] [63–65]
	Surface dissociated nanoparticles Citrate-coated magnetic nanoparticles (cit-MNPs) Carbon quantum dots (QDs)	Magnetic field Magnetic separation after heating and UF Magnetic field combined with a thermal stimulus None (pure water not produced)	Environment friendly, low cost, poor water quality High water pressure, high water flux, ability to desalinate seawater, requires energy Low water flux	[69] [70]
	Dextran coated magnetic nanoparticles Poly(sodium styrene-4-sulfonate)- <i>co</i> -poly(N-isopropylacrylamide) (PSSS-PNIPAM)-coated magnetic nanoparticles	Magnetic heating	Low water flux, low water recovery	[71]
	Poly(N-isopropylacrylamide- <i>co</i> -sodium 2-acrylamido-2-methylpropane sulfonate)		High water flux, pure water cannot be produced, diluted draw solution can only be reused as cationic exchange solution or in other applications	[72]
	Nanocomposite polymer hydrogel		No energy required, chemicals required	[74]
	Calcium chloride (CaCl ₂)		No energy required, cannot desalinate seawater, chemicals required	[75]
	Magnesium sulfate (MgSO ₄) Copper sulfate (CuSO ₄) Ferric and cobaltous hydroacid complexes		High water flux, requires energy	[76]
	Triton X100 with Na ₃ PO ₄		Minimized reverse draw solute flux, requires energy	[77]

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