



Step-by-Step Fabrication of PVDF-TiO₂ Hollow Fiber Membrane and Its Application Desalination of Wetland Saline Water via Pervaporation

M. Mahmud¹, Muthia Elma^{1,*}, Aulia Rahma¹, Nurul Huda¹, Riani Ayu Lestari¹, Awali S. K. Harivram¹, Erdina L. A. Rampun¹, Mohd H. D. Othman², Muhammad Roil Bilad³

¹Lambung Mangkurat University, Banjarbaru, Indonesia

²Advanced Membrane Technology Research Centre, Universiti Teknologi Malaysia, Johor, Malaysia

³Department of Chemical and Process Engineering, Universiti Brunei Darussalam, Brunei Darussalam.

Correspondence: E-mail: melma@ulm.ac.id

ABSTRACT

Wetland water is opted as the source of domestic water supply when the availability of clean fresh water is scarce. Wetland water requires proper treatment due to the high concentration of organic matter and high salinity, particularly in the dry season. This research aims to synthesize, characterize, and investigate the performance of polyvinylidene fluoride (PVDF)-TiO₂ hollow fiber membrane for wetland saline water desalination via pervaporation. The PVDF-TiO₂ hollow fiber membranes were fabricated through the dry wet spinning method under various air gaps (10, 15, and 20 cm). Then, the resulting membranes were tested in a pervaporation process at temperatures of 25, 40, and 60°C. Results show that the incorporation of TiO₂ into the PVDF matrix imparted hydrophilicity properties into the resultant membranes. The presence of TiO₂ was confirmed by the TiO₂ stretching vibration at 1640 cm⁻¹ (FTIR) and the TiO₂ phase at diffraction peaks at 25.5 and 37°. The membranes exhibited the highest water flux (7.48 kg/m².h) and salt rejection (> 99.5%) at 40°C. Overall, the developed PVDF-TiO₂ hollow fiber membranes showed encouraging results and demonstrated their effectiveness for the desalination of wetland saline water.

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1. INTRODUCTION

South Kalimantan-Indonesia is located in the Southern part of Borneo, with a population of ~4.3 million, dominantly covered by tropical. The wetland water is commonly used for domestic usage in remote coastal areas and households that are yet to receive clean water from the municipal water supply. Fundamentally, direct consumption of wetland water is not advisable because it has poor quality, and frequently it becomes saline during the dry season (Elma, Mustalifah et al., 2020; Elma, Riskawati et al., 2018; Lestari et al., 2020; Rahma, Elma, Mahmud, Irawan et al., 2019). Wetland saline water contains high salt concentrations of 0.3-3.2 wt% NaCl, which are almost equal to brackish and seawater salt concentrations (Rahma, Elma, Rampun, et al., 2020). Hence, a simple yet versatile treatment is required.

Different types of treatments have been explored for wetland saline water such as pervaporation, ultrafiltration, and coagulation (Elma, Rahma et al., 2020; Mahmud et al., 2020; Rampun, Elma, Syauqiah et al., 2019). These treatments enable to remove natural organic matter (NOM) and salinity (Elma, Bilad et al., 2022; Elma, Ghani et al., 2022; Elma, Mujiyanti et al., 2020; Elma, Pratiwi et al., 2022; Elma, Rahma et al., 2022; Elma, Rahma et al., 2020; Mat Nawi et al., 2022; Nawi et al., 2020; Rahma, Elma, Aliah, et al., 2022; Rahma, Elma, Pratiwi et al., 2020; Rahma, Elma, Rampun et al., 2020; Satria Anugerah et al., 2022). Among these treatments, the pervaporation process provides interesting features of less thermal energy consumption compared to membrane distillation because it only requires vacuum conditions (Rampun, Elma, Rahma, et al., 2019). Previous studies employed inorganic membranes based on silica materials and removed up to 60% of NOM from wetland saline water (Elma et al., 2023; Maulida et al., 2023; Pratiwi et al., 2023; Rahma et al., 2023; Sari et al., 2023).

The materials could operate with minimum issues of membrane scaling and fouling (Elma, Mujiyanti et al., 2020; Elma, Rampun et al., 2020).

Polyvinylidene fluoride (PVDF) is a commercial polymer typically used for the fabrication of ultrafiltration and microfiltration membranes but has been used limitedly for water desalination (Li et al., 2017). PVDF polymer is desirable since it provides (1) good chemical resistance, (2) chemical stability; (3) temperature stability; and (4) mechanical strength (Deshmukh & Li, 1998; Shi et al., 2013). PVDF has been explored for desalination applications due to its high selectivity to reject salt content (Fan & Peng, 2012). However, its inherent hydrophobic properties may cause fouling when used for the traditional pressure-driven filtration processes.

The application of TiO₂ as an additive in polymeric membranes has been reported to enhance the membrane properties, i.e. selectivity, permeability, and physical strength, whilst reducing the membrane fouling propensity (Dzinun et al., 2016). TiO₂ has been chosen due to its low-cost, non-toxic, and commercially available. It reduces the hydrophobicity and imposes anti-fouling properties on the resultant membranes (Parvizian et al., 2020; Sun et al., 2020). However, those resultant membrane properties were found to be dependent on the membrane's fabrication method. For instance, PVDF-TiO₂ hollow fiber membranes fabricated using a wet-spinning method had a strong interaction between polymeric and inorganic networks due to the uniform dispersion of TiO₂ within the polymeric matrix. The incorporation of TiO₂ into the polymeric matrix increased the average pore size compared to the pristine PVDF membrane (Yu et al., 2009).

The dry-wet spinning method is known in membrane fabrication because it has specific benefits such as simplicity, shortening time, and producing asymmetric cross-section structures. In addition, the effect of air gap in

the dry-wet spinning method has been reported in previous studies. The morphological analysis of PVDF membranes prepared under various air gaps (10, 20, 30 cm) was investigated, that the air gap affected the resulting membrane properties such as finger-like structure, membrane roughness, pore size distribution, porosity, hydrophobicity, and tensile strength. [Khulbe et al. \(2007\)](#) applied different air gaps from 10 to 90 cm and found their effect on the membrane roughness. They found different roughness between the inner and outer surfaces of the hollow fiber membrane. The air gap significantly affected the water flux membrane as well. The water flux increased at higher air gaps, leading to an increase in membrane pore size.

[Li et al. \(2017\)](#) investigated the performance of the PVA/PVDF membrane in the pervaporation desalination process at different operating temperatures (50-90°C) and feed salinities (0-250 g/L NaCl). The water flux was at 8.6 L/m²h for 100 g/L NaCl at 80°C. The loss of water flux occurred when treating a high solute concentration of 250 g/L NaCl. The decline in water flux was mainly attributed to the concentration polarization during the pervaporation process. Such findings concluded that the feed temperature and salinity concentration were crucial parameters in evaluating the pervaporation performance. In other work, a composite hollow fiber membrane was synthesized by blending PVA and nano-TiO₂. Interestingly, the membrane could not reject NaCl and Na₂SO₄ (inorganic salt) in the feed solution because of the Donnan effect between the hydroxyl group on the composite membrane surface with similar ionic states ([Li et al., 2014](#)).

To our knowledge, the desalination of wetland saline water using PVDF/TiO₂ hollow fiber membranes through pervaporation has not yet been reported. This study aims to synthesize, characterize, and investigate the performance of PVDF-TiO₂ hollow fiber membranes for wetland saline water

desalination via pervaporation. The membranes were synthesized using the dry-wet spinning method at various air gaps (10, 15, 20 cm) to modulate the resultant membrane properties.

2. METHODS

2.1. Chemicals and Materials

Wetland saline water was taken from Muara Halayung village, Banjar District, South Kalimantan-Indonesia in August 2020 during the dry season. PVDF (Kynar 760 powder series) was selected as the base polymer, TiO₂ (Merck) as the additive, Dimethylacetamide (DMAc, QReC) and ethanol as the solvent, demineralize water as the non-solvent, while epoxy resin (E30CL, Loctite Corporation, USA) as the module potting agent. All chemicals, otherwise clearly specified, were used as analytical grade reagents.

2.2. Step-By-Step Method for Membrane Synthesis and Characterization

The synthesis of PVDF-TiO₂ hollow fiber membranes was done according to our earlier works ([Kamaludin et al., 2019](#)), as detailed in the step-by-step method as follows. PVDF polymer and TiO₂ were dried in an oven at 50°C for 24 h to remove the moisture. Approximately 21 g of PVDF polymer was added into 152 mL of DMAc solution. The mixture was stirred at 530 rpm at 70°C until homogeneous. Then, 6 g of TiO₂ powder was added to the mixture and continuously stirred for 24 h. The resultant dope solution was then cooled to room temperature and degassed in an ultrasonic water bath for 60 min. Finally, the spinning of hollow fiber was performed by loading the degassed dope solution into the dope reservoir through a syringe pump and extruded by spinneret at an extrusion rate of 26 mL/min. The air gap distances were varied by 10, 15, and 20 cm during the spinning process. The resultant membranes were characterized using Scanning Electron

Microscope (SEM) analysis, contact angle, and Fourier Transform InfraRed (FTIR).

2.3. How to Evaluate the Pervaporation Performance

The performance of the PVDF-TiO₂ hollow fiber membrane was tested in the pervaporation set-up as illustrated in **Figure 1**. The performance was assessed in the forms of permeate flux, salt rejection, and organic matter rejection. The feed solution's temperature was varied between 25°C (room temperature) to 60°C at a fixed pervaporation duration of 20 minutes. Permeate conductivity (representing the solute concentration) and the absorbance of UV₂₅₄ (representing the NOM concentration) were measured using a conductivity meter and UV-Vis spectrophotometer, respectively. The membrane performance was determined using the equation below:

$$F = \frac{m}{(A \Delta t)} \quad (1)$$

$$R = \frac{(C_f - C_p)}{(C_f)} \times 100\% \quad (2)$$

Where F is permeate flux (kg/m².h), m is the mass of permeate (kg) retained in the cold trap, A is the surface-active area (m²), Δt is the time measurement (h), R is rejection (%), C_f and C_p are the feed and permeate concentration (wt%) of solute or organic matter.

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

3.1. Characteristics of Wetland Saline Water

The wetland saline water naturally formed a cloudy brown color caused by the appearance of NOM, as shown in **Figure 2**. The NOM also represents a soluble and insoluble material that directly affects the water quality (Dayarathne et al., 2021). The presence of NOM can be proven by using the UV₂₅₄ analysis. **Table 1** shows the inherent water quality of the wetland saline water used in this study. The pH of wetland saline water was around 6.6, still within the WHO standard limit (6.5-8). However, the conductivity and the TDS parameters were higher than the WHO standard; thus, the wetland saline water required further treatment before could be consumed.

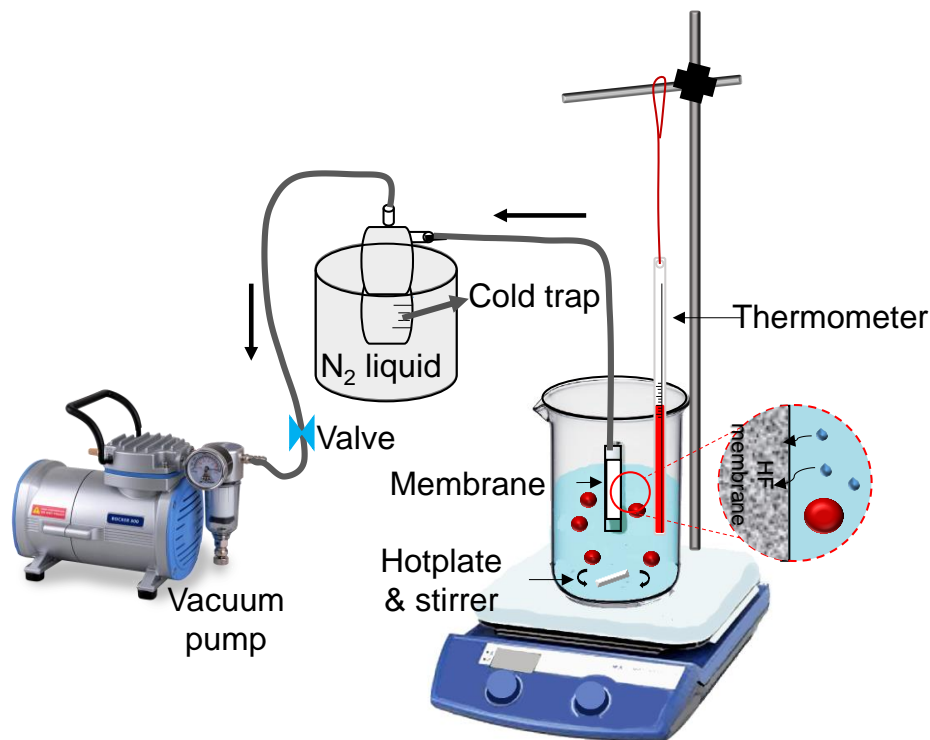


Figure 1. Illustration of pervaporation setup used for evaluating the membrane performance.

Table 1. The inherent water quality of wetland saline water taken in August 2020 at Muara Halayung village (GPS location: -3.479779, 114.621480).

Parameters	Unit	Weeks				Average	Standard
		I	II	III	IV		
pH	-	6.67	6.66	6.64	6.66	6.66	6.5 – 8
Conductivity	ms/cm	9.35	9.34	8.79	8.56	9.01	4 mS/cm
Total Dissolved Solid	mg/L	5400	5370	5365	5360	5373	500
UV ₂₅₄	1/cm	0.315	0.310	0.305	0.295	0.306	-

**Figure 2.** The sampling location (attached photograph picture) and the wetland saline water samples used as the feed for the pervaporation.

3.2. Membrane characteristics

SEM was used as a tool to analyze the surface and cross-section microstructure and morphologies of the resultant PVDF-TiO₂ membranes. Step-by-step analysis of the membrane microstructure based on the obtained SEM images is discussed as follows. Based on **Figure 3 (a-c)**, the cross-section images of the membrane can be observed. It has a macro void that resembles a finger-like structure combined with a sponge-like structure. It is a type of asymmetric pore that is formed by the phase inversion method (Kingsbury & Li, 2009; Wang *et al.*, 2016).

The macro void structures were formed close to the inner and outer membrane surfaces. The sponge-like pores consisted of an interconnected network type and a closed-cell type within the entire membrane

structure. Such structure formation was attributed to the exchanging process between non-solvent and strong solvents during the phase separation as reported earlier (Tan & Rodrigue, 2019).

The white spots visible in **Figure 3(d)**, proved the presence of TiO₂ embedded as part of the membrane matrix. The presence of TiO₂ reduced the formation of finger-like pores massively, as discussed elsewhere (Kamaludin *et al.*, 2019). TiO₂ presence increases the viscosity of a dope polymer solution hence altering the path of polymer-solvent-nonsolvent compositions during the phase inversion process. The aggregation of TiO₂ particles led to a rougher membrane surface for the PVDF-TiO₂ membrane compared to the pristine PVDF membrane, as also found by others (Sakarkar *et al.*, 2020).

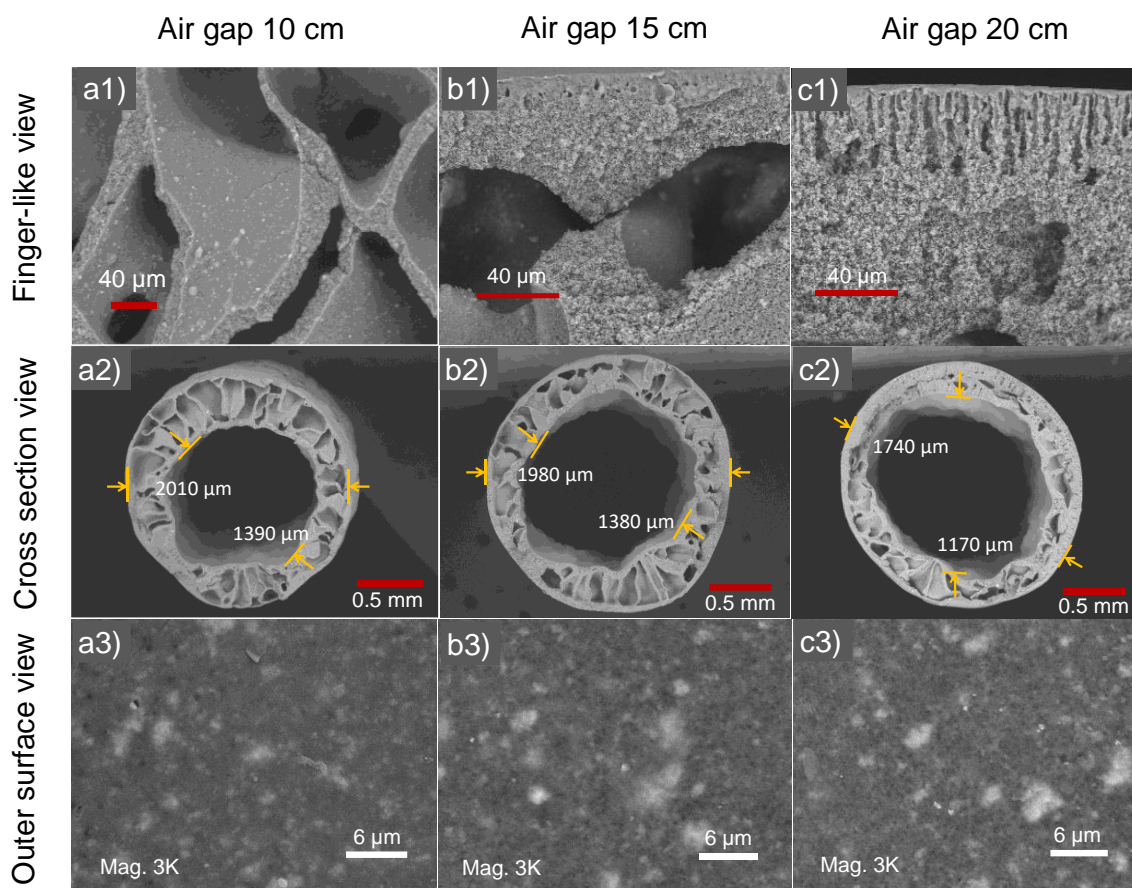


Figure 3. SEM images of the cross-section (a1-c1 and a2-c2) and surface (a3-c3), showing the microstructure and morphology of PVDF-TiO₂ membranes.

The air gap is one of the primary variables that influence membrane morphology. The gravity forces of the falling film during the spinning process imposed elongational stress on the hollow fiber membrane in the air gap region during the dry-wet spinning process. As the air gap increased, the membrane tended to elongate, followed by a decrease in diameter and fiber thickness. **Figure 3 (a1-c1)** shows the outer diameter (OD) of the membranes were 2010, 1980, and 1740 μm for air gaps of 10, 15, and 20 cm, respectively. Meanwhile, the inner diameter (ID) of the membranes were 1390, 1380, and 1170 μm for the air gaps of 10, 15, and 20 cm, respectively. Each membrane with variations of air gap has a thickness of 620, 600, and 570 nm. Similar results were also found by Okubo *et al.* (1991) and Abidin *et al.* (2020).

The shortest air gap distance produced the thickest membrane with the largest OD and the smallest ID attributed to the effect of die

swell in the membrane polymers. Die swell occurred because the material had elasticity (i.e. polymers), and experienced extrusion on the die channel when flew out through the spinneret. After that, the polymers instantly swell because of their viscoelasticity properties (Peng *et al.*, 2008). Such findings prove that the effect of gravity force on air gap impacts polymer deformation during the dry-wet spinning process (Chung *et al.*, 1999).

The polymer has strong intermolecular interactions. At a certain level, it only deformed and did not break the interactions between molecules under stress. This deformation caused the molecules in the polymer to find a new balance to maintain the intermolecular interactions (Khayet, 2003). Therefore, it is possible to a form hollow fiber membrane with a smaller diameter and thickness by increasing the air gap.

The air gap does not only affect the dimensions of the membrane but also affects the structure formed in the membrane matrix. Smaller air gaps tend to form finger-like macro voids. This kind of macro void is highly undesirable because it imparts a low mechanical strength in the resultant membrane. As the air gap increases, the macro void changes from finger-like to sponge-like. This type is more desirable and has better mechanical properties. Sponge-like structures have a smaller void volume than finger-like structures (Gao, 2017). The membrane structure was denser in the more significant air gap than the smaller air gap as illustrated in **Figure 3**. In summary, the membrane morphology was affected by two main mechanisms; a) the orientation of the molecules on the membrane and elongation stress due to gravity effect on the air gap, and b) shear stress and elongation stress in the spinneret (Khayet, 2003).

The hydrophilicity test was performed by the contact angle analysis. The contact angle analysis quantifies the interfacial interaction between solids and liquids to determine the hydrophilicity of the membranes. The membrane can be indicated as hydrophilic when the liquid spreads well on the membrane surface with a contact angle value below 90° (Law, 2014).

The contact angle value (θ) of the PVDF-TiO₂ membrane was 62° as shown in **Figure 4**. PVDF is a polymer-based material frequently used in membrane fabrication. It has hydrophobic properties with a contact angle value of 90° (Zou *et al.*, 2020). Meanwhile, pure TiO₂ has excellent hydrophilic properties, outstanding chemical stability, and potential as an anti-fouling agent (Hong *et al.*, 2017). Blending TiO₂ particles into the polymer-based membrane matrix imparted hydrophilicity properties into the resultant material (Huang *et al.*, 2017; Méricq *et al.*, 2015; Qin *et al.*, 2015). Such changes were attributed to TiO₂ properties, which consisted of highly oxygenated hydrophilic functional groups

Hong *et al.*, (2017) that had a higher affinity towards water than the pristine PVDF membrane (Damodar *et al.*, 2009).

The FTIR spectra of the PVDF-TiO₂ membrane are shown in **Figure 5a**. A step-by-step analysis of the chemical bonds identified from the FTIR spectra is presented as follows. FTIR analysis is a qualitative method to determine the functional groups composed within the membrane matrix (Sakarkar *et al.*, 2021). The fingerprint-like peaks appeared at the wavelength range from 700 to 1500 cm⁻¹ and corresponded to the characteristic of PVDF functional groups, consisting of α , β , and γ crystalline phases. The vibration bond found at peaks 763-766 (Medeiros *et al.*, 2018; Mun *et al.*, 2018), 795, 854, and 975 cm⁻¹ is the characteristic peak of α crystalline phase (Cai *et al.*, 2017).

The characteristic peak for the β crystalline phase was observed at 1275 cm⁻¹ (Cai *et al.*, 2017; Medeiros *et al.*, 2018). The γ crystalline phase characteristic peak was also found at 1234 cm⁻¹. The peaks in the range of 860 – 900 and 1050 – 1200 cm⁻¹ represented the combination of α , β , and γ crystalline phases, which were also reported elsewhere (Benz *et al.*, 2002; Cai *et al.*, 2017; Kaspar *et al.*, 2020; Yoon *et al.*, 2008). The absorption bands found at 820 – 860 and 1140 – 1280 cm⁻¹ were characteristic of asymmetrical stretching and symmetrical stretching of CF₂, respectively (Sakarkar *et al.*, 2021). In addition, the peaks 1403 cm⁻¹ and 1640 cm⁻¹ were attributed to –CH₂ from PVDF and –OH from TiO₂ stretching vibration (Bai *et al.*, 2012; Qin *et al.*, 2015; Yu *et al.*, 2003). Furthermore, the absorption from 800 to 900 cm⁻¹ represented a mixed band of –CH₂ rocking and –CF₂ asymmetric stretching in α , β , γ phases or a combination of the three phases (Cai *et al.*, 2017).

Figure 5(b) represents the XRD spectra of the PVDF-TiO₂ membranes in uncalcined and calcined conditions. Step-by-step analysis of the membrane crystallinity identified from the XRD spectra is detailed as follows.

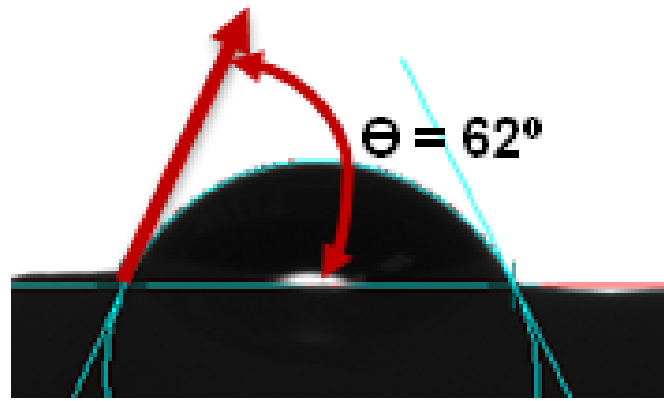


Figure 4. Typical contact angle image of PVDF-TiO₂ hollow fiber membrane.

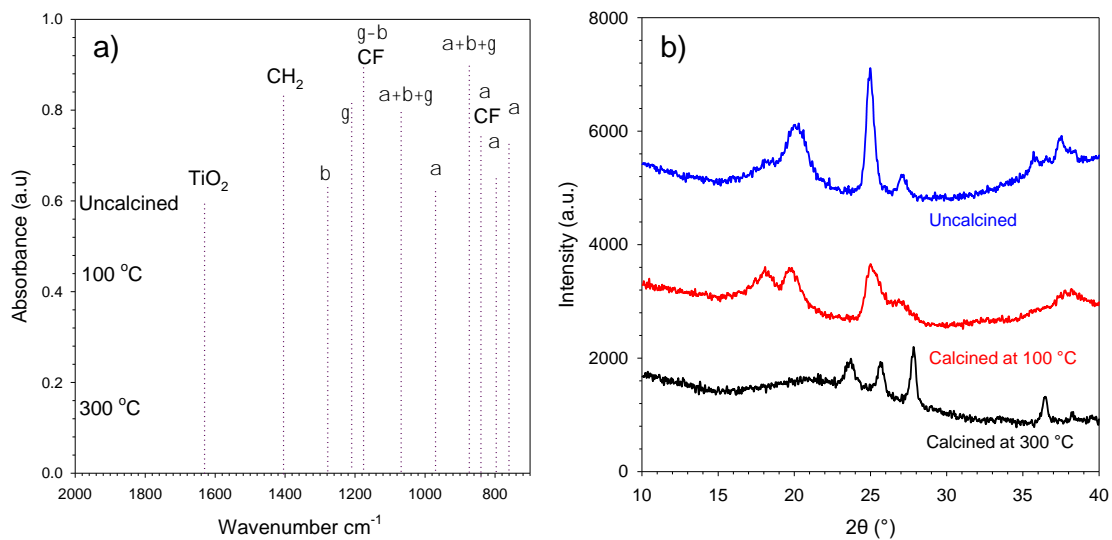


Figure 5. a) FTIR spectra and b) XRD spectra of the PVDF-TiO₂ hollow fiber membrane in various conditions.

The peaks at around 18 and 21° belonged to the PVDF matrix that showed the appearance of α crystalline phase and β crystalline phase, respectively (Cai et al., 2017; Kaspar et al., 2020). Meanwhile, the peaks at approximately 25 and 37° represented TiO₂ particles, indicating that TiO₂ retained its crystalline phase within the membrane matrix (Sakarkar et al., 2021).

The XRD analysis confirmed that the β phase dominated the crystal composition of the PVDF-TiO₂ membrane. It was proven by the distinct diffraction peak of β crystalline phase compared to α crystalline phase for the uncalcined and calcined membranes. However, the diffraction peaks of α and β crystalline phases decreased significantly at 300°C. Such changes could be attributed to

the decomposition of the polymer materials at a higher temperature (Mun et al., 2018). The diffraction peaks at around 25.5 and 37° indicated the TiO₂ crystal remained in the membrane matrix and did not decompose at higher temperatures (Sakarkar et al., 2021). These findings were in tandem with the FTIR analysis.

3.3. Pervaporation of Wetland Saline Water

The performance of PVDF-TiO₂ membranes spun at different air gaps for desalination of varied feeds of wetland saline water is shown in Figure 6. The water fluxes of the PVDF-TiO₂ membrane spun at air gaps 10, 15, and 20 cm were 10.36; 6.48; and 3.81 kg/m².h, respectively for pure water permeation. The result demonstrated that

the pure water permeation increased by decreasing the air gap from 20 to 10 cm. It is due to the longer air gap's length that led to the formation of a thinner separation layer, as discussed elsewhere (Yu *et al.*, 2009). A similar trend was also observed at different feed water conditions, i.e., brackish, saline wetland, seawater, and brine water (Figure 6). For instance, PVDF-TiO₂ spun at a 10 cm air gap recorded the highest permeate flux for brackish water, surpassed that of air gap at 15 and 20 cm by 34.8 and 70%, respectively.

The air gap has a crucial effect on the cross-section morphology and performance of the PVDF-TiO₂ hollow fiber membrane. Increasing air gap resulted in low permeability and high solute rejection (Gao, 2017). It can be well correlated with the morphology of the membrane. As the finger-like pores reduced at longer air gap length, the permeate fluxes decreased (Zakria *et al.*, 2021). This is corroborated by the SEM cross-sectional images shown in Figure 3c1 which incorporated a denser sponge-like structure consisting of a small amount of finger-like pores within the membrane matrix.

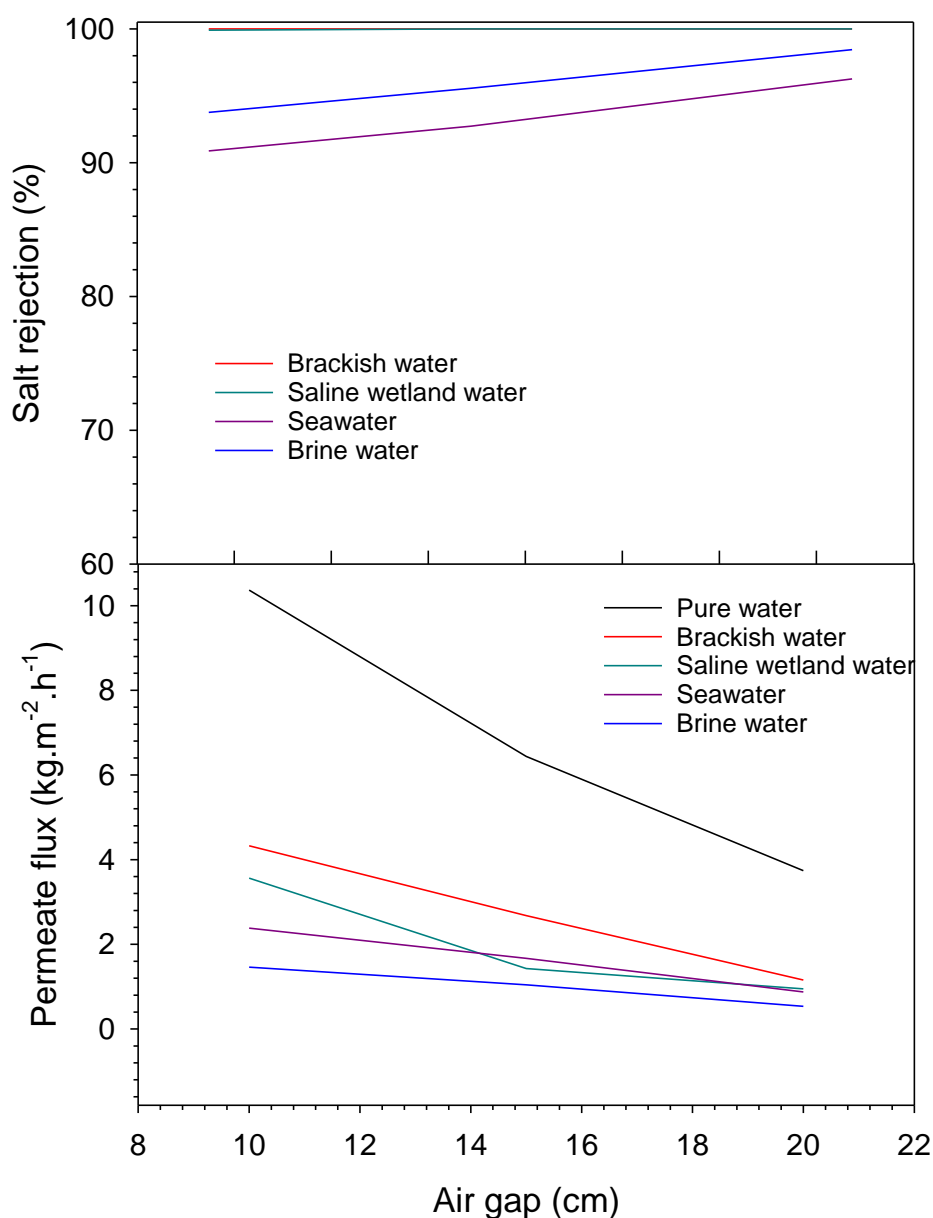


Figure 6. Effect of air gap during the dry-wet spinning on the pervaporation performance of PVDF-TiO₂ hollow fiber membranes treating various feeds.

The permeation performances of PVDF-TiO₂ hollow fiber membrane spun at 10 cm for multiple saline water feed desalination were in the order of brackish > saline wetland > sweater > brine water. Reduction in permeate fluxes as the feed saline concentration increased from 0.3 (brackish) to 5 wt% NaCl (brine) was attributed to the salt concentration polarization effect (Elma et al., 2015). The driving force for salt diffusion increased across the membrane due to the increase in feed salt concentration at the membrane surface (Elma et al., 2013).

Moreover, salt rejections of 90.6-99, 92.6-99.8, and 96-99.7% were recorded for membranes spun at air gaps of 10, 15, and 20 cm in multiple feed water conditions, respectively. As increasing air gap length from 10 to 20 cm, the salt rejection also increased. The air gap length allows the membrane morphology to restrain the NaCl molecule via its thinner and denser finger-like structure (Khayet, 2003). In addition, the longer length of the air gap enables modulation of the distribution of TiO₂ nanoparticles within the outer surface membrane layer, which causes the membrane to become hydrophilicity and improves salt rejection (Yaacob et al., 2020). Salt rejection was generally very high with more than 91% for all air gaps and feed water conditions.

The PVDF-TiO₂ membrane was also tested at various feed temperatures to investigate the pervaporation performance. They were determined by permeability and permselectivity as shown in **Figure 7(a)** and **(b)**. It shows the effect of temperature on the water flux at various feed water conditions at a fixed pervaporation time of 20 minutes. The water flux of wetland saline water was higher than the feed with 3.5 wt% NaCl solution (simulating sea water) but was lower than the feed with 0.3 wt % NaCl solution. The highest water flux of NaCl 0.3 wt%, wetland saline water, and NaCl 3.5 wt% solutions were 15.19, 13.64, and 8.78 kg/m².h at 60 °C, respectively. The finding

could be attributed to the effect of different salt concentrations in each feed. High salt concentration led to the flux decline caused by concentration polarization (Elma et al., 2012). The pervaporation process of wetland saline water was previously using an interlayer-free-silica-pectin membrane. It was found that the water fluxes of the same wetland saline water (using pectin concentrations of 0.5 and 2.5 wt% as template) were 4.78 and 3.22 kg/m².h, respectively. Thus, the pervaporation process using PVDF-TiO₂ hollow fiber membrane had excellent performance because it produced a higher water flux than using an interlayer-free-silica-pectin membranes.

The decline of salt rejection in permeate was observed with the increase in the feed temperature. The decrease of salt rejection followed the order of 60 > 40 > 25°C. Such findings can be well correlated with the condition caused by a random movement of polymer chains under the effect of temperature. The polymer chain movement (expansion) led to the enlargement of membrane pores, which facilitated the diffusion of salt molecules freely through the membrane (Jyoti et al., 2015). The salt rejections for all feed temperatures were higher than 90%, and the highest was 99.9% at 25°C for the wetland saline water. This result is similar to the previous work conducted by other researchers.

Total dissolved solid (TDS) removal and UV₂₅₄ absorbance were measured to determine the membrane's ability to remove the dissolved solids and organic impurities as shown in **Figure 8**. All the TDS removal of wetland saline water at various feed water conditions showed higher than 99.99%. This result indicated that the pervaporation process using PVDF-TiO₂ hollow fiber membrane successfully removed the dissolved solid in wetland saline water. UV₂₅₄ absorbance of the wetland saline water at 25, 40, and 60°C were 98.58, 89.87, and 87.47%, respectively. UV₂₅₄ absorbance decreased

along with the increase in the feed temperature originating from the presence of organic foulant found on the membrane surface. The wetland saline water had a brown color and high NOM constituted of high humic materials (Mahmud & Noor, 2005). The high concentration of polarization of NOM in water contributed to membrane fouling (Goh *et al.*, 2018). UV_{254} absorbance was lower than TDS rejection because the wetland saline water contained high humic material which caused the membrane fouling

during the pervaporation process, while TDS rejection was not affected by the presence of NOM.

The performance of several types of membranes applied for wetland saline water desalination is summarized in Table 2. The developed PVDF-TiO₂ hollow fiber showed decent performance at moderate feed temperature. It was proven by the higher water flux value than previous reports with the salt rejection of more than 99.5%.

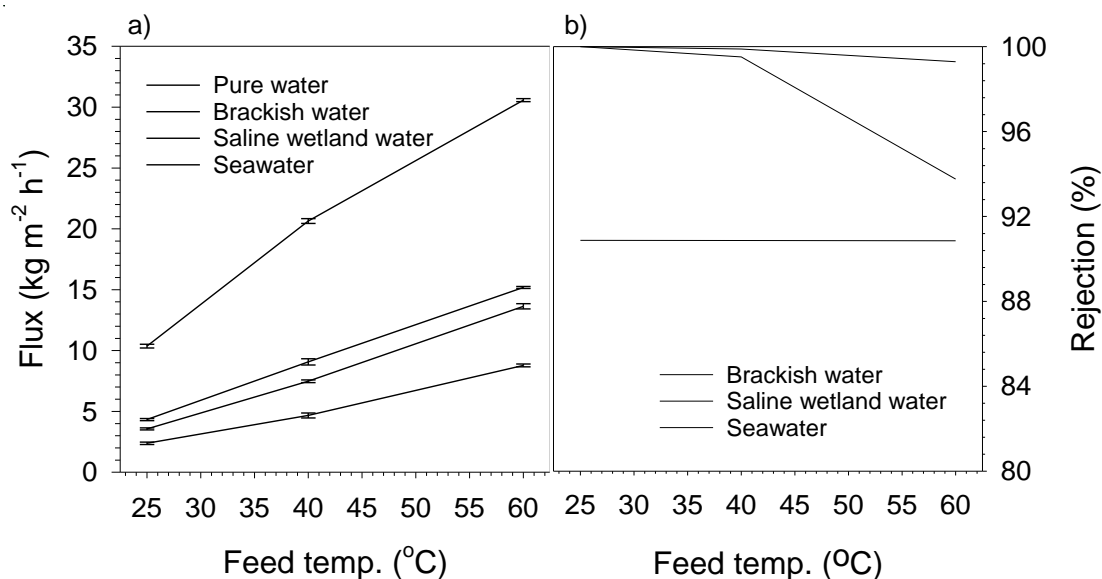


Figure 7. Water flux (a) and salt rejection (b) of PVDF-TiO₂ hollow fiber membrane at various feed temperatures.

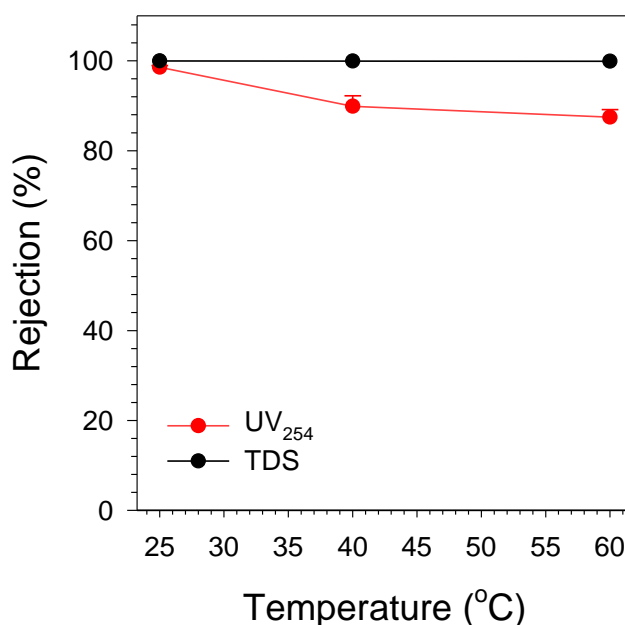


Figure 8. Effect of the feed temperature variations (25°C, 40°C, and 60°C) on TDS removal and UV₂₅₄ absorbance of wetland saline water.

Table 2. Comparison of of several types of membranes used for desalination of wetland saline water.

Type of membranes	Feed Temperature (°C)	Feed Types	Water Flux (kg/m ² .h)	Salt Rejection (%)	References
PVDF-TiO ₂ hollow fiber membrane	40	Wetland saline water	7.48	>99.5	This research
CTA/Al ₂ O ₃ hollow fiber membrane	70	Wetland saline water	6.7	99.8	(Prihatiningtyas et al., 2020)
Silica-Pectin	25	Wetland saline water	4.48	99.9	(Rahma, Elma, Mahmud, Irawan, et al., 2019)
Coagulation (Silica-Pectin)	25	Wetland saline water	5.4	99.9	(Rahma, Elma, Mahmud, Irawan et al., 2019)
Alumina hollow fiber membrane	80	Wetland saline water	42.9	99.5	(Fang et al., 2012)

4. CONCLUSION

PVDF-TiO₂ hollow fiber membrane was successfully prepared and characterized. The results show that membrane morphology (OD, ID, and thickness) decreased with the increasing the air gap. The resultant membrane imparted hydrophilic properties as TiO₂ particles blended well within the membrane matrix as visually observed from the SEM images. The presence of TiO₂ was confirmed through the observed diffraction peaks at 25.5 and 37°. The highest water flux and salt rejection were observed at 7.48 kg/m².h and > 99.5 wt% at 40°C with a decent percentage of TDS and NOMs removal. Overall, it can be concluded that the PVDF-TiO₂ hollow fiber membrane showed the potential to treat wetland saline water via the pervaporation process.

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6. AUTHORS' NOTE

The authors declare that there is no conflict of interest regarding the publication of this article. The authors confirmed that the paper was free of plagiarism.

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