

A natural coagulant protein from copra (Cocos nucifera): Isolation, characterization, and potential for water purification

J.K. Fatombi, B. Lartiges, T. Aminou, Odile Barres, C. Caillet

▶ To cite this version:

J.K. Fatombi, B. Lartiges, T. Aminou, Odile Barres, C. Caillet. A natural coagulant protein from copra (Cocos nucifera): Isolation, characterization, and potential for water purification. Separation and Purification Technology, 2013, 116, pp.35-40. 10.1016/j.seppur.2013.05.015 . hal-02151878

HAL Id: hal-02151878 https://hal.science/hal-02151878

Submitted on 10 Jun2019

HAL is a multi-disciplinary open access archive for the deposit and dissemination of scientific research documents, whether they are published or not. The documents may come from teaching and research institutions in France or abroad, or from public or private research centers. L'archive ouverte pluridisciplinaire **HAL**, est destinée au dépôt et à la diffusion de documents scientifiques de niveau recherche, publiés ou non, émanant des établissements d'enseignement et de recherche français ou étrangers, des laboratoires publics ou privés.

1	A NATURAL COAGULANT PROTEIN FROM COPRA (COCOS NUCIFERA):
2	ISOLATION, CHARACTERIZATION, AND POTENTIAL FOR WATER
3	PURIFICATION
4	J. K. FATOMBI ^{1,3*} , B. LARTIGES ^{2,3} , T. AMINOU ¹ , O. BARRES ³ , C. CAILLET ³ .
5	1- Laboratoire d'Expertise et de Recherche en Chimie de l'Environnement et de l'Eau
6	(LERCEE) Faculté des Sciences et Techniques/Département de Chimie/Université d'Abomey-
7	Calavi, 01 BP 526, COTONOU (Bénin)
8	2- University of Toulouse – Geosciences Environment Toulouse – UMR CNRS-UPS-IRD
9	5563/234 – 14 Av. Edouard Belin – 31400 Toulouse, France
10	3- Université de Lorraine - Laboratoire Environnement et Minéralurgie (LEM) UMR 7569
11	CNRS-INPL (ENSG) 15 Avenue du Charmois 54501 Vandœuvre-lès Nancy (France)
12	Corresponding author: E-mail: jacquesfatombi@yahoo.fr
13	
14	
15	
16	
17	
18	
19	
20	

^{*} Corresponding author : FATOMBI K. Jacques ; E-mail: jacquesfatombi@yahoo.fr

21

22 Abstract:

A natural coagulant protein was extracted from the endosperm of Cocos nucifera, and 23 24 characterized by Fourier Transform Infrared Spectroscopy, Size Exclusion Chromatography, potentiometric titration, electrophoretic mobility, and then tested for its coagulant properties 25 26 using silica nanocolloids. The infrared spectra revealed predominant absorption bands at 1649 cm⁻¹ and 1536 cm⁻¹ characteristics of -C=O in primary and secondary amides of proteins 27 arranged into an alpha-helical secondary structure, and the presence of triolein when fat was 28 not removed from the extract. The molecular weight determined by size exclusion 29 chromatography was about 5.6 kDa, the charge density of the fat extracted protein being 30 1.05meq.g^{-1} , and the isoelectric point 7.5. The proteinous extracts behaved as effective 31 32 coagulants of silica particles, the destabilisation mechanism being consistent with an heteroaggregation of oppositely charged colloids. Overall, the characteristics of that natural 33 protein were closely similar to those of Moringa oleifera seed extract, thus suggesting that 34 copra can be considered as a potential source of an efficient and sustainable coagulant for 35 water treatment in emerging countries. 36

37 Keywords: *Cocos nucifera* - natural coagulant - water treatment .

38 Highlights: •A protein coagulant similar to Moringa Oleifera seed extract, was isolated
39 from copra.

40 •Its potential for water purification was successfully tested with silica41 nanocolloids.

42

44

1- Introduction

In his book "The quest for pure water", Baker (1949) [1] relating the history of water 45 purification, reveals that some nuts such as almonds in Egypt, *Strychnos potatorum* in India, 46 or beans in Soudan, have been used in the ancient times to promote the coagulation of turbid 47 waters. Although alum and other hydrolyzable metal salts have long supplanted those natural 48 clarification aids, other nut-derived substances and plant extracts have recently been 49 considered as potential coagulants and water softeners in emerging countries, where the 50 access to classical inorganic coagulants is sometimes difficult [2-3]. Thus, Opuntia cactaceae 51 [3-5], leaves of *Cassia alata* [6] and of *Calotropis procera* [7], and the now classical *Moringa* 52 oleifera seeds [8-13], have been reported to yield macromolecules of promising coagulating 53 properties that may reconcile a cost-effective water treatment with sustainable development 54 [3, 14]. Until now, only the nature of active agent in Moringa oleifera seeds, i.e. a dimeric 55 cationic polypeptide of 6-17 kDa molecular weight with a 10-11 isoelectric point, and the 56 corresponding aggregation mechanism, have been investigated into details [8-11, 15-17]. 57

Just like Moringa oleifera sometimes referred to as "the miracle tree", Coconut palm 58 (Cocos nucifera) is a multipurpose tree which is a source of food, beverage, oilseed, fibre, 59 60 charcoal, and health products, and is revered by people as "the tree of life". It widely grows across the world, (Asia, Africa, Caribbean, Latin America), and the overall coconut 61 62 production has been estimated to be at least 61.7 million ton/year according to current FAO 63 statistics. In a preliminary study, Fatombi et al. [18] showed that the casein cream extracted from the coconut endosperm possesses a coagulant activity similar to that of M. oleifera 64 seeds, the two natural coagulants being tested on Okpara river water and synthetic 65 66 suspensions prepared with kaolin particles. To better understand the origin of such coagulant activity, an improved characterization of coconut casein cream is needed. In the present paper, 67 Fourier Transform Infrared Spectroscopy, potentiometric titration, electrophoretic mobility, 68

and size exclusion chromatography, are used to characterize the properties of two caseins, i.e. 69 70 with or without fat, extracted from the cream of Cocos nucifera. In addition, the aggregation mechanisms associated with those two natural coagulants are explored using silica 71 72 nanocolloids, a typical component of surface waters which is frequently used to assess the efficiency of metal hydrolysable coagulants [20, 33]. Jar-tests, electrophoretic mobility 73 measurements, and Transmission Electron Microscopy on ultrathin sections cut from resin-74 embedded aggregates, were then used to describe the interaction between the silica particles 75 and the two coconut caseins. 76

77

2- Experimental section

78 2.1- Extraction of casein from coconut cream

The coconuts were purchased from the local markets of Cotonou (Benin Republic). 79 Mature coconuts were first dehusked and cracked to remove coconut water. About a hundred 80 81 grams of finely grated coconut endosperm obtained with a vegetable grater, were then added to 500 mL of distilled water. After shaking for 10 min, the mixture thus obtained was filtered 82 through a 80µm-mesh sieve, and the liquid collected was separated between an aqueous phase 83 (coconut milk) and an organic phase (coconut cream). Hydrochloric acid 1M solution was 84 then added to 100 mL of coconut cream until the precipitation of casein occurred. The casein 85 precipitate was separated from oil and hydrochloric acid residues by centrifugation at 3500 86 rpm for 20min. The pellet of raw casein was oven-dried at 40°C during 24 hours and is further 87 referred to as CaMG (casein with fat). In addition, a fat-free casein named CaSMG hereafter, 88 was also obtained by extraction with hexane in a soxlhet extractor. The coagulant solution 89 was prepared by adding two grams of either CaMG or CaSMG to 100mL of distilled water, 90 91 and the mixture was then agitated at room temperature for two hours.

92 2.2- Characterization of caseins

The infrared spectra of CaSMG and CaMG caseins were recorded with a Fouriertransform infrared spectrometer (Bruker IFS55) equipped with a DTGS detector in the transmission mode. 1 mg of casein was mixed with about 150 mg KBr (FTIR grade), and a pellet was prepared using a 10 T press. The spectra were recorded in the 4000-400 cm⁻¹ range with 64 scans collected at 2 cm⁻¹ resolution.

The electrophoretic mobility of CaSMG and CaMG suspensions (40mg/L of each casein in NaCl 0.1M) was determined with a zetaphoremeter IV (CAD Instrumentation, France) equipped with a CCD camera. The electrophoretic mobility was obtained by measuring the direction and velocity of particles in the applied electric field (800 V/m).

The charge density of coconut caseins was determined by potentiometric titration (Titrando 102 103 809 Metrohm) at 25°C under an inert nitrogen atmosphere. The titration was carried out with 104 100 mg of a given casein suspended into 50 mL NaNO₃ 0.1M solution as a function of titrant volume (HNO₃ 0.1M or NaOH 0.1M). Before analysis, the suspension was allowed to 105 stabilize for 1h under magnetic stirring and nitrogen stream. A quick step titration in acid-to-106 107 basis direction from natural pH to pH 10 was first recorded in order to reach the pH considered as the pH origin of the following titration curve used for the charge density 108 109 determination. The second titration was then performed in the basic-to-acid direction from pH 10 to pH 3. The reference curve was recorded by titration of the pure electrolyte solution 110 NaNO₃ 0.1 M under the same conditions. In the case of a solid/electrolyte interface, protons 111 112 or hydroxyls can be used to probe the surface charge density. Hence, the proton consumption (PC in μ mol/g) was calculated according to the method reported by Prelot et al. [19], i.e. PC = 113 $\Delta V C/m$, where ΔV is the difference between the volume of titrant added to the suspension 114 (V_s) and that added to the reference electrolyte (V_r) ($\Delta V = V_s - V_r$), C being the titrant 115 concentration and *m* the mass of solid (g). 116

The molecular weight of macromolecules contained in CaSMG and in CaMG was 118 inferred using size exclusion chromatography equipped with a GF-250 9.4x250mm column 119 that can separate soluble macromolecules in water in the 4kDa-400 kDa molecular weight 120 range. The column was calibrated with standard proteins: thyroglobulin 670 kDa, IgG 160 121 122 kDa, apo-transferrin 78 kDa, bovine albumin 66 kDa, chicken albumin 44.3 kDa, myoglobulin 17.6 kDa, ribonuclease A 13.7 kDa, and insulin 5.73 kDa. A few micrograms of 123 each standard protein were dissolved in NaCl 0.2M solution, and the calibration curve was 124 obtained from a plot of the logarithm of the molecular weight versus elution time. CaSMG 125 and CaMG samples were prepared by dissolving 50 mg of each casein in 2.5mL NaCl 0.2M 126 127 solution. After shaking for two hours, the suspension was filtered on a membrane (0.45µm pore size). About 100µL of filtrate were injected in the column, the elution being performed 128 with NaCl 0.2M solution at a 1 mL.min⁻¹ rate. The proteins were detected by UV 129 130 spectrophotometry with the detection wavelength set at a 215.8nm.

131

2.3- Preparation of colloidal suspensions and aggregation procedure

The silica suspensions were prepared by diluting Ludox HS 40 (Aldrich) at 100, 250, 132 500 and 750mg/L with deionised water (Millipore, MilliQ). 336mg/L of NaHCO₃ were added 133 to give a buffer capacity similar to that of a surface water [20]. The pH of silica suspensions 134 was adjusted at 6 with dropwise addition of HCl 0.1N solution. The Ludox silica used in this 135 study is an alkaline aqueous dispersion of non porous spherical particles 14 nm in diameter. 136 137 Unlike kaolin particles used in our previous study [18] that present a shape factor and two types of surfaces (edge and basal), the spherical precipitated Ludox silica with an 138 139 energetically homogeneous surface [35] makes a better model for investigating the 140 aggregation mechanisms with the coconut caseins. In addition, it was previously used to 141 assess the coagulating properties of WAC HB (Water Aluminum Chloride High Basicity)142 [20].

143 Mixing of the silica suspensions with the natural coagulant was carried out in a 150mL glass beaker reactor equipped with four Plexiglas baffles to avoid the formation of a vortex at 144 145 high mixing speed. The reactor is fitted with a rectangular paddle located at 1/3 of the beaker height from the bottom. The synthetic suspension was agitated at 250 rpm for 2min; the 146 selected volume of CaMG or CaSMG coagulant solution was then added with an Eppendorf 147 micropipette (100-1000µL). The stirring rate was maintained at 250 rpm for 3min, and then 148 was decreased at 60 rpm for 20 min. At the end of stirring, the aggregated suspension was 149 allowed to settle for 30 min in a graduated Imhoff cone. 150

151 50 mL of supernatant were siphoned out from 25mm under the free water surface. The 152 supernatant was analysed for pH (WTW LF 340), residual turbidity (HACH 2100P), and 153 electrophoretic mobility (CAD Instrumentation Zetaphoremeter). The sludge volume was 154 measured by reading the graduation marks on the side of the Imhoff cone.

Transmission electron Microscopy observation of aggregates was performed with a 155 Philips CM 20 operating at 200 kV, on ultrathin slices obtained from resin-embedded 156 samples. The sludge was first fixed with 2% osmium tetroxide. After one hour of reaction, 157 158 excess of treated water was removed and replaced with solutions of acetone in water (10%, 20%, 40%, 60%, 80%, 90% and then 100%). The samples were then impregnated in an epoxy 159 160 resin (Epon 812, Euromedex). Impregnated samples were placed in molds and polymerized in 161 an oven at 60°C for 24 hours. The blocks obtained were cut using a Reichert OM U2 ultramicrotome. The sections were mounted on a carbon-coated copper grid and stained with 162 lead citrate and uranyl acetate. 163

164 **3- Results and discussion**

165 **3.1-** *Physicochemical characterization of CaMG and CaSMG caseins.*

Both caseins were analysed by FTIR to assess the nature of active functional groups in 166 CaSMG and CaMG coagulants. As illustrated in figure 1, similar absorption bands at 1649 167 cm⁻¹, 1536 cm⁻¹, and 1237 cm⁻¹, can be recognized in both CaSMG and CaMG spectra. These 168 peaks are characteristic of carbonyl C=O stretching vibrations in primary, secondary, and 169 170 tertiary amides, respectively [21], the positions of those infrared bands being consistent with the presence of α -helices in the secondary structure of proteins [17, 22]. The rather broad 171 peaks around 3411 cm⁻¹ and 3290 cm⁻¹ can be assigned to the stretching vibrations of O-H 172 and N-H and to intermolecular hydrogen bonds within the caseins macromolecules, 173 respectively [23]. 174

175 Figure 1: FTIR spectra of CaMG and CaSMG

The CaMG spectrum also reveals intense infrared bands at 1746, 2924, 2854, and 176 2956 cm⁻¹. The strong peak at 1746 cm⁻¹, attributed to the C=O stretching vibration of the 177 carbonyl groups in methyl esters and triglycerides, has been identified in the infrared 178 spectrum of cashew nut kernel [24]. The classical bands at 2924, 2854, and 2956 cm⁻¹ are 179 assigned to C-H asymmetric and symmetric stretching in CH₂ and C-H asymmetric stretching 180 in CH₃, respectively. Those infrared signals are typical of compounds containing long alkyl 181 chains, and their absence in the CaSMG spectrum validates the fat extraction from the casein. 182 The remaining bands at 1467 cm⁻¹ and 1162 cm⁻¹ likely identify the CH_2 scissors deformation 183 vibration and the C=O bending vibration, respectively. Interestingly, the infrared bands 184 185 typical of the fats contained in CaMG and removed during the hexane treatment, are comparable with those of triolein, a triglyceride of oleic acid found in a number of oily nuts 186 [24-25]. On the other hand, the abundant presence of amide functional groups in the caseins is 187 188 consistent with a proteinous nature of those compounds. Moreover, the infrared spectrum of 189 CaSMG is similar to that of purified active protein in *Moringa oleifera* seeds used for190 aggregation of colloidal particles [17].

191 Figure 2: Size exclusion chromatograms of CaMG and CaSMG

192 The size exclusion chromatograms of CaMG and CaSMG are shown in figure 2. CaMG is eluted as two main peaks detected at retention times of 14.15 and 16.8 min, whereas 193 CaSMG appears as a single peak at about 14 min with a minor shoulder around 16.2 min. 194 Obviously, the purified compound in CaSMG chromatogram corresponds to the proteinous 195 matter identified by FTIR. From the calibration curve relating the molecular weight of 196 197 standard proteins to elution time, a molecular weight of about 5.6 kDa can be calculated. Interestingly, the flocculating activity of *M. oleifera* seeds has been attributed to proteins of 198 molecular weight ranging from 6 to 17 kDa [8, 9, 11, 13, 16, 26, 27]. The second peak at 16.8 199 200 min retention time on CaMG chromatogram is tentatively attributed to the triolein-like fat.

201 Figure 3a shows the proton binding isotherms inferred from the potentiometric titration curves of CaMG and CaSMG. Curves with similar shape are obtained for the two 202 caseins. The negative values obtained above pH 3 for CaMG and pH 3.4 for CaSMG, indicate 203 204 a release of protons from caseins, whereas the positive values correspond to an adsorption of protons. At first approximation, it can be considered that the fat associated with CaMG casein 205 do not present any major titratable functional groups, and hence, that the difference between 206 the two curves correspond to the weight of fat in casein. Therefore, CaMG should contain 207 almost equivalent amounts of protein and fat. The net charge densities obtained from the 208 titration curves of CaMG and CaSMG, are 0.47 and 1.09 meq/g, respectively. Such values are 209 lower than that of chitosan (4.5 meq/g) [32], but remain close to the 1.2-7.3 meq/g charge 210 211 density range of usual commercial cationic polyelectrolytes [28].

Figure 3: a) Variation with pH of proton consumption for CaMG and CaSMG; b) Evolution of electrophoretic mobility as a function of pH for CaMG and CaSMG caseins.

The electrophoretic mobility of both CaMG and CaSMG caseins as a function of pH is 215 shown in figure 3b. An identical Point of Zero Mobility (PZM) of 7.5 is found for both 216 217 coagulants, which, in accordance with the potentiometric titration results presented above, indicates that the fat in CaMG does not significantly contribute to the charge of that extract. 218 The difference between the pH at no proton release (~ 3.5) and the point of zero mobility (7.5) 219 likely originates from the organization of the protein coagulant as a soft particle permeable 220 towards ions and hydric fluxes [35]. The PZM of active protein in coconut casein is lower 221 222 than the value ~10 reported in the literature for the purified protein contained in Moringa oleifera seeds [8, 13, 29], thus suggesting a higher content in carboxylic groups in coconut 223 224 caseins.

225

3.2- Jar-test results

Figure 4a compares the performance of CaSMG and CaMG in terms of turbidity 226 removal and sludge volume in the case of 250 mg/L silica nanocolloids suspensions 227 aggregated at pH 6. Similar patterns are obtained for both coagulants: the residual turbidities 228 increase steadily at low casein concentration as small non-settleable aggregates are formed, 229 and after reaching a maximum, decrease steeply with further addition of coagulants as settling 230 aggregates are then produced. At higher casein concentrations, the supernatant turbidities 231 232 remain low and practically constant in the range of dosages investigated. In parallel, the sludge volumes rapidly increase after the respective maxima in residual turbidity, to reach an 233 234 identical and steady plateau value. In other words, the amount of sludge obtained during the 235 jar-test does not depend on the type of casein used. This implies that the quantity of silica particles is a main determining parameter for sludge volume, as confirmed by the proportional relationship between these two variables established for a series of jar-tests performed with varying concentrations in silica colloids (figure 4b). The supernatant pH of the treated water remained essentially constant with only a small decrease of 0.3 pH units at high coagulant concentration.

Figure 4: a) Variation of residual turbidity (solid curves) and sludge volume
(hyphenated curves) as a function of casein concentration for both CaMG and CaSMG ;
OCC indicates the Optimum Coagulant Concentration. b) Variation of maximum sludge
as a function of silica concentration for casein CaSMG.

The optimum coagulant concentration (OCCs) is defined as the minimum dosage 245 needed to attain the low residual turbidity value. It may seem paradoxical to obtain a residual 246 247 turbidity at OCC higher than that of the untreated suspension. However, the light scattered by a few non-settleable fractal aggregates in the micron size range is certainly much higher than 248 that of all dispersed elementary nanoparticles. According to figure 4a, CaSMG is more 249 250 effective than CaMG, especially that a slightly lower residual turbidity and a smaller sludge volume are obtained at the OCC. However, the difference between the two OCCs, 80 mg/L 251 and 100 mg/L for CaSMG and CaMG respectively, is much less than expected if charge 252 neutralization was the direct aggregation mechanism. Indeed, as the charge density of CaMG 253 254 is about half that of CaSMG, the corresponding OCC should be double of that associated with CaSMG. In comparison, the OCC recorded with WAC HB - a commercial aluminum 255 256 chlorosulfate coagulant - to treat a 250 mg silica suspension at pH 6 was about 3 mg/L of Al.

TEM examination of silica nanocolloids aggregated with CaSMG casein at the OCC (figure 5) reveals relatively compact clusters of particles and small organic fibrils originating from the unfiltered coagulant solution before addition. The cationic protein, which according

to its 5.6 kDa molecular weight should be in the nanometer size range [30], likely corresponds to the dark heavy metal-stained grains present at the surface of some silica nanocolloids. It should be noted that the silica particles embedded in the bulk of the resin ultrathin section can be visualized because of mass contrast, but that the coagulant organic matter associated with them can not be stained with heavy metal salts.

268 Figure 6a shows the variation of electrophoretic mobility of particles remaining in the supernatant after settling, as a function of casein concentration. For both CaSMG and CaMG, 269 270 the electrophoretic mobility of residual aggregates increases with coagulant concentration first 271 rapidly up to the OCC, and then more slowly at higher dosages. However, even above OCCs, 272 the complete neutralization of silica colloids can not be achieved. Actually, the mobility curves do not provide any precise indication regarding the optimal coagulation range. Similar 273 electrokinetic behaviors were reported by Jerri et al. [31] for Moringa oleifera cationic protein 274 adsorbed on sand granules, and for *Opuntia* spp. coagulant with kaolin particles [3]. 275

Figure 6: a) Variation of electrophoretic mobility of treated water at pH=6; b) Evolution of OCC as a function of silica nanocolloid concentration at pH=6.

Nevertheless, as illustrated in figure 6b, the optimum coagulant concentration is proportional to the amount of silica particles in suspension, such stoichiometric relation being usually interpreted as resulting from a charge neutralization mechanism [28]. Moreover, the ratio of slopes of OCC-silica amount curves for CaSMG and CaMG is about 2, i.e. approximately the ratio of charge densities measured for the two caseins. The aggregation mechanism of silica particles by caseins is therefore related to charge neutralization, even

Figure 5: TEM micrograph of resin-embedded sludge (CaSMG + silica suspension at 120mg/L) pH=6 (a: compact clusters of silica colloids; b: small organic fibrils; c: coagulant protein)

though the charge of colloids can not be reversed at high dosages. A key observation made by Kwaambwa et al. [10] is that the coagulant protein from *Moringa oleifera* seeds has been shown by neutron reflectivity to adsorb cooperatively at the surface of silicon oxide. Therefore, silica nanocolloids could be aggregated by clusters of coconut protein of increasing size with coagulant concentration, the aggregation phenomenon being equivalent to an heteroaggregation of oppositely charged colloids. It should be noted that the residual fat associated with the protein coagulant could play a significant role in such cluster formation.

291 **4-** Conclusion

292 This study demonstrates that an effective coagulant protein can be extracted from the coconut endosperm. This water soluble protein has a 5.6 kDa molecular weight and a 7.5 293 294 isoelectric point. The destabilisation mechanism of silica particles seems to be related to an 295 heteroaggregation between oppositely charged colloids, the protein component likely forming clusters of increasing size with coagulant concentration. Preliminary jar-tests conducted at pH 296 8 with the fat free casein (CaSMG) showed only a 25% increase of the Optimum Coagulant 297 Concentration for a 250 mg/L silica suspension. This suggests that the natural coagulant 298 protein extracted from copra can certainly be effective over the range of natural water pH. 299

Further work is obviously needed to check whether the coconut protein also possesses efficient antimicrobial and water softening properties, just like the protein extracted from *Moringa oleifera* seeds. Interestingly, *Cocos nucifera* is essentially grown in the intertropical zone where precipitations exceed 2000 mm, whereas *Moringa oleifera* is also present in semiarid areas. This suggests that both trees can be considered as a potential source of natural coagulant in complementary geographical areas.

306

307 Acknowledgements

The authors would like to thank the ''Agence Universitaire de la Francophonie'' (AUF) for granting a post doctoral research fellowship to Jacques K. FATOMBI during its stay at the University of Lorraine (*Laboratoire Environnement et Minéralurgie* (LEM)). **References**

- [1] M.N. Baker, The quest for pure water : the history of water purification from the earliest
 records to the twentieth century, American Water Works Association, New York (1949).
- [2] J.P. Sutherland, G.K. Folkard, W.D Grant, Natural coagulants for appropriate water
 treatment: a novel approach, Waterlines 8(4) (1990) 30-32.
- [3] S.M. Miller, F. Ezekiel, C. Vinkaoyanedel, S. James, Z. Andjulieb, Toward Understanding
 the Efficacy and Mechanism of *Opuntia* spp. As a Natural Coagulant for Potential
 Application in Water Treatment, Environ. Sci. Technol. 42 (2008) 4274–4279.
- [4] A. Abid, A. Zouhri, A. Ider, Utilisation d'un nouveau bio-floculant extrait de cactus
 marocain dans le traitement des rejets chargés de chrome (VI) par le procédé de coagulation
 floculation, Afr. Sci. 5(3) (2009) 25-35.
- [5] J. Zhang, F. Zhang, Y. Luo, H. Yang, A preliminary study on cactus as coagulant in water
 treatment, Process Biochem. 41 (2006) 730–733.
- [6] E.R. Aweng, I. Anwar, M.I. Siti Rafiqah, O. Suhaimi, *Cassia alata* as a potential
 coagulant in water treatment, Res. J. Recent Sci. 1(2) (2012) 28-33.
- [7] B.O. Shittu, T.O.S. Popoola, O. Taiwo, Potentials of *Calotropis procera* leaves for
 wastewate treatment, Proceedings of the International Conference on Science & National
 Development, (2004) 97-101.
- [8] M. Broin, C. Santaella, S. Cuine, K. Kokou, G. Peltier, T. Joe, Flocculent activity of a

- recombinant protein from *Moringa oleifera* Lam. seeds, Appl. Microbiol. Biotechnol. 60(1-2)
 (2002) 114-119.
- [9] G. Kebreab, K.R. Gunaratna, H. Hongbin, B. Harry, D. Gunnel, A simple purification and
 activity assay of the coagulant protein from *Moringa oleifera* seed, Water Research. 39 (2005)
 2338–2344.
- [10] H.M. Kwaambwa, H. Maja, R. Adrian, Adsorption of a Water Treatment Protein from
 Moringa oleifera Seeds to a Silicon Oxide Surface Studied by Neutron Reflection, Langmuir
 26(6) (2010) 3902–3910.
- 338 [11] M. Suarez, J.M. Entenza, C. Doerries, E. Meyer, L. Bourquin, J. Sutherland, I. Marison,
- P. Moreillon, N. Mermod, Expression of a plant-derived peptide harboring water-cleaning and
 antimicrobial activities, Biotechnol Bioeng. 81(1) (2003) 13-20.
- [12] S.A.A. Jahn, Drinking water from Chinese rivers: Challenges of clarification, J. Wat.
 SRT, 50(1) (2001) 15-27.
- [13] T. Okuda, A.U. Baes, W. Nishijima, M. Okada, Isolation and characterization of
 coagulant extracted from Moringa oleifera seed by salt solution, Water Res. 35 (2) (2001)
 405–410.
- [14] S. Kawamura, Effectiveness of natural polyelectrolyte in water treatment, J. Am. Water
 Works Assoc. 83 (1991) 88–91.
- 348 [15] R.S. Ferreira, T.H. Napoleão, A.F. Santos, R.A. Sa, M.G. Carneiro-da-Cunha, M.M.
- Morais, R.A. Silva-Lucca, M.L. Oliva, L.C. Coelho, P.M. Paiva, Coagulant and antibacterial
 activities of the water-soluble seed lectin from *Moringa oleifera*. Lett. Appl. Microbiol., 53
 (2011) 186-192.
- [16] A. Ndabigengesere, K. Narasiah, B.G. Talbot, Active agents and mechanisms of
 coagulation of turbid water using *Moringa oleifera*, Wat. Res. 29(2) (1995) 703-710.

- [17] H.M. Kwaambwa, R. Maikokera, Infrared and circular dichroism spectroscopic
 characterisation of secondary structure components of a water treatment coagulant protein
 extracted from *Moringa oleifera* seeds, Colloids Surf. B: Biointerface, 64 (2008) 118–125.
- [18] K.J. Fatombi, R.G. Jossè, D. Mama, T. Aminou, Etude de l'activité floculante de la caséine acide de la crème de *Cocos nucifera* sur la clarification des eaux de surface, Rev. Sci.
 Eau, 22(1) (2009) 93-101.
- [19] B. Prelot, W. Janusz, F. Thomas, F. Villiéras, R. Charmas, W. Piasecki, W. Rudzinski,
 Adsorption of cadmium ions at the electrolyte/silica interface 1. Experimental study of surface
 properties. Appl. Surf. Sci., 196, (2002) 322-330.
- [20] B.S. Lartiges, J.Y. Bottero, L.S. Derrendinger, B. Humbert, P. Tekely, H. Suty,
 Flocculation of Colloidal Silica with Hydrolyzed Aluminum: An ²⁷Al Solid State NMR
 Investigation, Langmuir, 13 (1997) 147-152.
- [21] A. Dong, J. Matsuura, S.D. Allison, E. Chrisman, M.C. Manning, J.F. Carpenter, Infrared
 and circular dichroism spectroscopic characterization of structural differences betweenlactoglobulin A and B, Biochem. 35 (1996) 1450–1457.
- [22] K. Griebenow, A. Klibanov, Lyophilization-induced reversible changes in the secondary
 structure of proteins. Biochem. 92 (1995) 10969–10976.
- [23] W. Jian-Ping, C. Yong-Zhen, Y. Shi-Jie, S. Guo-Ping, Y. Han-Qing, Synthesis and
 characterization of a novel cationic chitosan-based flocculant with a high water-solubility for
 pulp mill wastewater treatment, Wat. Res. 43 (2009) 5267-5275.
- 374 [24] A.G. Barua, S. Hazarika, M. Hussain, A.K. Misra, Spectroscopic investigation of the
- 375 Cashew Nut Kernel (*Anacardium Occidentale*), The Open Food Sci. J., 2, (2008) 85-88.

376 [25] M.L.S. Albuquerque, I. Guedes, Jr. P. Alcantara, S.G.C. Moreira, Infrared absorption
377 spectra of Buriti (*Mauritia flexuosa* L.) oil, Vib. Spectrosc., 33 (2003) 127-131.

[26] E. Ali, S. Muyibi, H. Salleh, M. Alam, M.Salley, Production of Natural Coagulant from *Moringa oleifera* Seed for Application in Treatment of Low Turbidity Water, J. Wat.
Resource Protect., 2 (2010) 259-266.

- [27] U. Gassenschmidt, J. Klaus, T. Bernhard, N. Heinz, Isolation and characterization of a
 flocculating protein from *Moringa oleifera* Lam, Biochim. Biophys. Acta 1243, (1995) 477481.
- [28] B. Bolto, Gregory J., Organic polyelectrolytes in water treatment, Wat. Res. 41 (2007)
 2301-2324.
- [29] G. Folkard, J. Sutherland, R.S. Al-Khalili, La clarification de l'eau par coagulation en
 utilisant les graines du *Moringa oleifera*. In : L. Fuglie (2002) L'arbre de la vie, les multiples
 usages du *Moringa*. CWS/CTA, Dakar, Sénégal. pp 79-82.
- [30] H.P. Eriksson, Size and shape of protein molecules at the nanometer level determined by
 sedimentation, gel filtration, and electron microscopy, Biological Procedures Online, 11(1)
 (2009) 32-51.
- [31] H.A. Jerri, K.J. Adolfsen, L.R. McCullough, D. Velegol, S.B. Velegol, Antimicrobial
 Sand via Adsorption of Cationic *Moringa oleifera* Protein, *Langmuir*, 28 (4) (2012) 2262–
 2268.
- [32] R. Rojas-Reyna, S. Schwarz, G. Heinrich, G. Petzold, S. Schütze, J. Bohrisch,
 Flocculation efficiency of modified water soluble chitosan versus commonly used commercial
 polyélectrolytes, *Carbohydrate Polymers* 81, (2010) 317–322.

- [33] J. Duan, J. Gregory, Influence of soluble silica on coagulation by aluminium sulphate.,
- 399 Colloids Surfaces A, 107, (1996), 309-319.
- 400 [34] J.F.L. Duval, F. Gaboriaud, Progress in electrohydrodynamics of soft microbial particle
- 401 interphases, Curr. Opin. Colloid Interface Sci., 15(3), (2010) 184-195.
- 402 [35] M.A.V. Axelos, D. Tchoubar, J.Y. Bottero, Small-angle X-ray scattering investigation of
- 403 the silica/water interface: evolution of the structure with pH, Langmuir, 5, (1989) 1186-1190.