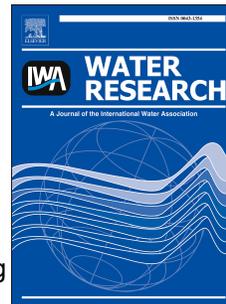


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Slippery for scaling resistance in membrane distillation: a novel porous micropillared superhydrophobic surface

Zechun Xiao, Rui Zheng, Yongjie Liu, Hailong He, Xiaofei Yuan, Yunhui Ji, Dongdong Li, Huabing Yin, Yuebiao Zhang, Xue-Mei Li, Tao He



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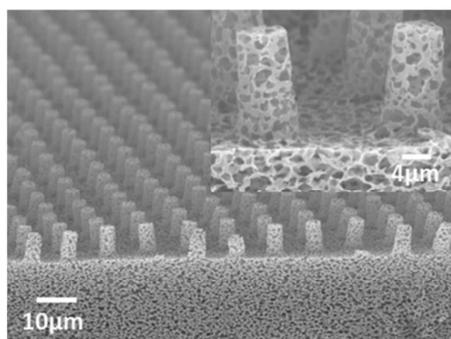
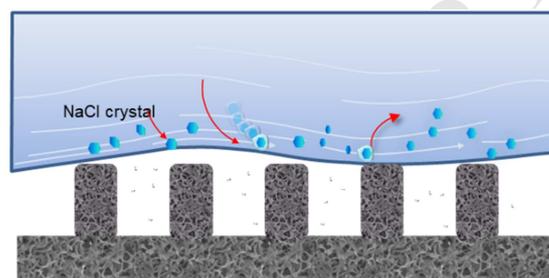
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Graphic Abstract

CF₄ plasma

Superhydrophobic CF₄-MP-PVDF membrane has a
anti-scaling slippery liquid-air-polymer interface

1 **Slippery for scaling resistance in membrane distillation: a novel porous micropillared**
2 **superhydrophobic surface**

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18

19 **Abstract**

20 Scaling in membrane distillation (MD) is a key issue in desalination of concentrated saline water,
21 where the interface property between the membrane and the feed become critical. In this paper, a
22 slippery mechanism was explored as an innovative concept to understand the scaling behavior in
23 membrane distillation for a soluble salt, NaCl. The investigation was based on a novel design of a
24 superhydrophobic polyvinylidene fluoride (PVDF) membrane with micro-pillar arrays (MP-PVDF)
25 using a micromolding phase separation (μ PS) method. The membrane showed a contact angle of
26 $166.0 \pm 2.3^\circ$ and the sliding angle of $15.8 \pm 3.3^\circ$. After CF_4 plasma treatment, the resultant membrane
27 (CF_4 -MP-PVDF) showed a reduced sliding angle of 3.0° . In direct contact membrane distillation
28 (DCMD), the CF_4 -MP-PVDF membrane illustrated excellent anti-scaling in concentrating saturated
29 NaCl feed. Characterization of the used membranes showed that aggregation of NaCl crystals
30 occurred on the control PVDF and MP-PVDF membranes, but not on the CF_4 -MP-PVDF membrane.
31 To understand this phenomenon, a “slippery” theory was introduced and correlated the sliding angle
32 to the slippery surface of CF_4 -MP-PVDF and its anti-scaling property. This work proposed a
33 well-defined physical and theoretical platform for investigating scaling problems in membrane
34 distillation and beyond.

35

36 **Keywords:** micromolding phase separation; surface pattern; slippery; membrane distillation; scaling;
37 membrane

38

39 1. Introduction

40 Highly saline wastewater streams from steel, chemical, petrochemical, and mining industries are
41 of key concern for environmental and economical sustainability in developing countries (Latorre
42 2005, Shannon, Bohn et al. 2008, Bouchrit, Boubakri et al. 2015, Choi, Naidu et al. 2018, Deshmukh,
43 Boo et al. 2018). Therefore, concentrating high salinity liquids has become an important task in
44 water treatment. One of the main objectives in recent years is to concentrate close-to-saturation brine
45 until zero-liquid-discharge (Yun, Ma et al. 2006, Shin and Sohn 2016, Junghyun, Heejung et al.
46 2017). Contemporary technologies, e.g. high pressure reverse osmosis (RO), electrodialysis (ED),
47 mechanical vapor re-compression (MVR) and multi-effect distillation (Li, Wang et al. 2016) have
48 been used, but all have different limitations. For example, RO and ED are powered by electricity, and
49 are normally expensive. MVR and ED not only require high energy but also suffer from corrosion.
50 Membrane distillation (MD) has attracted wide attention for desalinating highly concentrated brine
51 with concentrations up to crystallization (Ji, Curcio et al. 2010, Nghiem, Hildinger et al. 2011, Edwie
52 and Chung 2013, Chen, Lu et al. 2014, Hickenbottom and Cath 2014, Naidu, Jeong et al. 2014,
53 Bouchrit, Boubakri et al. 2015, Chen, Wang et al. 2015, Tian, Yin et al. 2015, Eykens, Hitsov et al.
54 2016, Gryta 2016, Shin and Sohn 2016, Bouchrit, Boubakri et al. 2017, Chen, Tian et al. 2017, Chen,
55 Zheng et al. 2017, Duong, Hai et al. 2017, Junghyun, Heejung et al. 2017, Choi, Naidu et al. 2018,
56 Julian, Ye et al. 2018, Kim, Kim et al. 2018, Naidu, Zhong et al. 2018).

57 MD uses low grade heat or sustainable energy (such as solar power) and is potentially an
58 affordable desalination technology (Alkhudhiri, Darwish et al. 2012, Tijjing, Woo et al. 2015, Eykens,
59 De Sitter et al. 2017). Normally, a MD system is compact, lightweight, and resistant to corrosion.
60 However, similar to other membranes, MD membranes are prone to fouling, scaling and membrane

61 wetting (Tijing, Woo et al. 2015), which will lead to deteriorated performance. For high salt solutions,
62 in particular when the concentration of salt approaches saturation, scaling becomes the most serious
63 problem (Ji, Curcio et al. 2010, Gryta 2011, Edwie and Chung 2013, Chen, Lu et al. 2014,
64 Hickenbottom and Cath 2014, Nariyoshi, Pantoja et al. 2016, Bouchrit, Boubakri et al. 2017, Jiang,
65 Tuo et al. 2017, Tang, Iddya et al. 2017, Julian, Ye et al. 2018, Zou, Dong et al. 2018). Crystals
66 attached to the membrane surface alter surface wettability (e.g. from hydrophobic to hydrophilic),
67 allowing continuous crystal growth into membrane pores and consequently membrane wetting (Yun,
68 Ma et al. 2006, Gryta 2008, Ramezani-pour and Sivakumar 2014). Wetted membranes result in free
69 diffusion of salt molecules from the high salinity feed to the permeate, thus reducing membrane
70 rejection. Although the consequence of scaling can be measured, the mechanism governing scaling is
71 unknown. How to prevent scaling remains a significant challenge in membrane technology.

72 Observations of NaCl scaling have been reported in the literature. When treating 18 wt.% NaCl
73 brine in direct contact membrane distillation (DCMD), a critical size of 25 μm was found for the
74 crystals on the PVDF membrane surface, which acted as initial growth sites and led to the full
75 membrane coverage (Chen, Lu et al. 2014). Single NaCl crystals of 40 μm were also reported in a
76 membrane distillation-crystallization (MDC) process, where about 9 to 16% of the total crystals were
77 on the membrane surface and the piping (Nariyoshi, Pantoja et al. 2016). Scaling often occurred
78 when the feed reached saturation (Bouchrit, Boubakri et al. 2015, Gryta 2016, Bouchrit, Boubakri et
79 al. 2017). Injection of air (Choi, Choi et al. 2017) and increase of the feed flow velocity (Naidu,
80 Jeong et al. 2014, Choi, Choi et al. 2017) can mitigate scaling. However, when optimization of
81 process parameters such as flow rate and temperature reversal were used to mitigate rapid flux
82 decline in concentrating salt lake brine, there was little success (Hickenbottom and Cath 2014).

83 Instead of optimizing process parameters, membrane modification provides another important
84 route to mitigate or prevent scaling. An electrically conducting membrane surface can be made by
85 coating a carbon nanotube/poly(vinyl alcohol) (PVC) layer onto a polypropylene support, which can
86 effectively dissolve silicate scale during desalination of geothermal brine (Tang, Iddya et al. 2017). It
87 has been shown that air bubbles can be created on the superhydrophobic surface of a perfluorodecyl
88 acrylate modified poly(vinylidene fluoride) PVDF membrane (i.e. via initiated chemical vapor
89 deposition, iCVD), which can suppress MD fouling despite increased crystal formation (Warsinger,
90 Servi et al. 2016). However, in another study, a superhydrophobic membrane prepared by coating
91 TiO₂ nanoparticles on a PVDF electrospun nanofiber support followed by chemical
92 fluorosilanization, promoted more uniform and slower crystal formation and removal of the crystal
93 deposition was easy (Razmjou, Arifin et al. 2012, Meng, Ye et al. 2014, Meng, Ye et al. 2015).

94 The majority of research on superhydrophobic membranes are based on chemical modification
95 and /or the design of hierarchical structure (Razmjou, Arifin et al. 2012, Wei, Zhao et al. 2012, Meng,
96 Mansouri et al. 2014, Meng, Ye et al. 2014, Yang, Li et al. 2014, Meng, Ye et al. 2015, Tian, Yin et al.
97 2015, Yang, Tian et al. 2015, Lee, An et al. 2016, Tijing, Woo et al. 2016, Warsinger, Servi et al.
98 2016, Ren, Xia et al. 2017). Contradictory results were often observed (e.g. the examples above).
99 These might be due to variations in the feed as well as undefined surface morphology. An intuitive
100 assumption in MD is the existence of a static membrane/liquid interface. Therefore, it has been
101 believed that mimicking the hierarchical structure of lotus leaves could provide an anti-fouling
102 solution. However, actual fouling/scaling in MD occurs at triple-phase interfaces consisting of liquid
103 phase (feed) – air phase (in pores) – solid phase (polymer). If the tri-phase interfaces are not always
104 static, scaling can occur in different ways. The mechanisms underlying fouling and scaling in MD is

105 highly complex. To address this challenge, our vision is to design a simple, but structurally
106 well-controlled membrane surface that can modulate the interface properties and provide a dynamic
107 contact line between the membrane and water phase.

108 Advances in nanofabrication technology have been used to create superhydrophobic surfaces (Li,
109 Reinhoudt et al. 2007, Xue Mei Li 2007, Li, He et al. 2008) and surfaces with multidimensional
110 roughness (Kim, Lee et al. 2016). A recent study shows that MD membranes patterned with a groove
111 structure have a weak hydrophobic interaction with BSA proteins and hence low fouling propensity
112 (Xie, Luo et al. 2017). However, since the evaluation was in static conditions, information on scaling
113 was not available. Similarly, corrugated PVDF membranes demonstrate the ability to alleviate salt
114 deposition and fouling in DCMD of real seawater (Kharraz, Bilad et al. 2015), but the dynamics of
115 scaling was unknown.

116 Here, we attempt to understand the dynamic mechanisms of scaling at the liquid-air-solid
117 interface in MD. For the first time, a patterned superhydrophobic PVDF membrane with porous
118 micropillars was prepared via a micro-molding phase separation (μ PS) technique. A similar
119 technique has been used to create macro-patterned surfaces for pressure driven membranes (Çulfaz,
120 Rolevink et al. 2010, Çulfaz, Haddad et al. 2011, Çulfaz, Wessling et al. 2011, Hashino, Katagiri et al.
121 2011, Won, Lee et al. 2012, Jamshidi Gohari, Lau et al. 2013, Lee, Won et al. 2013, Gençal, Durmaz
122 et al. 2015, Maruf, Greenberg et al. 2016, Won, Jung et al. 2016, ElSherbiny, Khalil et al. 2017).
123 However, pressure driven processes only involve a liquid-solid interface with a convective flow of
124 liquid across the membrane. Therefore, it is fundamentally different from the vapor diffusion-based
125 MD process. Here, porous micro-pillar formation together with CF_4 plasma treatment allowed the
126 creation of a superhydrophobic PVDF membrane, which is employed to investigate: (1) the

127 relationship between the micro-pattern and the hydrophobicity of the membrane surface; and (2) the
128 relationship between the micro-pattern and the scaling property in DCMD for highly concentrated
129 NaCl solutions. The superhydrophobic membrane demonstrated excellent anti-scaling properties
130 when used to treat a saturated NaCl solution by DCMD. The results lend us to propose a “slippery
131 surface” as a dynamic means of preventing scaling in MD. The novel multiscale hierarchical surface
132 illustrated in this work also offers a promising platform for understanding and mitigating the scaling
133 and fouling problems in other processes beyond MD.

134

135 **2. Materials and methods**

136 2.1 Materials and chemicals

137 PVDF (Solef 1015) was kindly supplied by Solvay. N, N-Dimethylacetamide (DMAc, AR) and
138 Diethylene glycol (DEG, AR) were purchased from Sinopharm Chemical Reagent Co. Ltd and used
139 without further purification. The silicon wafer mold with a pillar array was designed in house. The
140 dimensions of the pillars are 5 μm in diameter (D), 10 μm in height (H) and 10 μm in period (P)
141 (Fig.1). A commercial flat sheet polyvinylidene fluoride membrane (abbreviated as C-PVDF, GVHP,
142 Millipore, USA) with a nominal pore size of 0.22 μm and thickness of 125 μm was used as a
143 benchmark.

144 2.2 Fabrication of polydimethylsiloxane (PDMS) mold

145 Oligomer PDMS and the curing agent (SYLGARD 184, Dow Corning Co. Ltd) were pre-mixed
146 at a weight ratio of 10:1. After de-gassing in vacuum for 10 min, the mixture was cast onto the
147 silicon wafer template. Then the wafer and the PDMS solution was transferred into a vacuum oven
148 and cured for 3 hours at 60°C. The PDMS replica was then peeled off and stored in a clean container.

149 The entire process was carried out in a clean room.

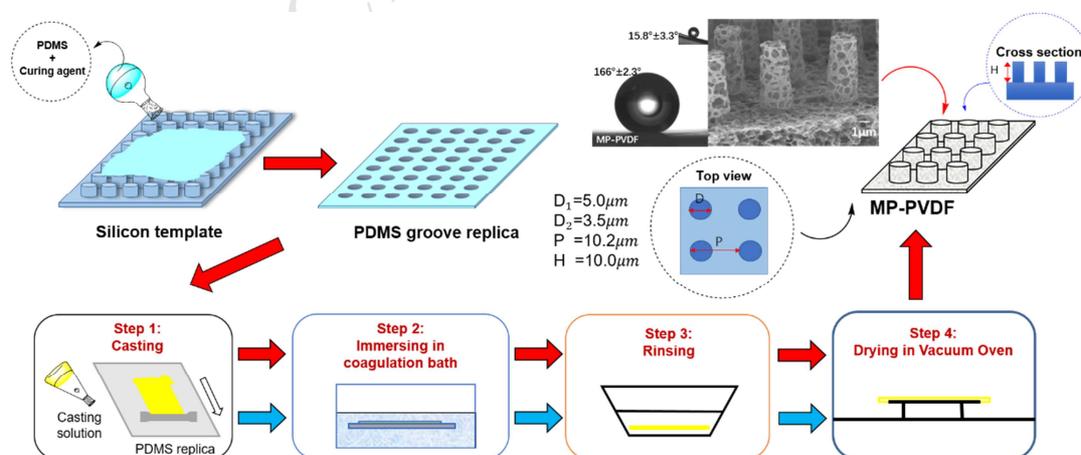
150

151 2.3 Fabrication of MP-PVDF membrane

152 A PVDF casting solution (PVDF/DEG/ DMAc, 15/27.4/57.6 wt.%) was prepared by mixing the
 153 components in a flask at 90 °C and agitated for 12 h. The polymer solution was then filtered using a
 154 metal filter of 40 μm . The casting solution was kept at 90 °C to de-gas. Fig. 1 shows the procedure
 155 for the fabrication of micro-pillar PVDF membranes and details are as follows.

156 An appropriate amount of the PVDF solution was spread uniformly on the PDMS replica on top
 157 of a glass plate to a thickness of 600 μm using a home-made stainless-steel casting knife. The
 158 solution was exposed to water vapor for 10 s (10 cm above a coagulation water bath, 75°C) and then
 159 immersed in the coagulation bath for 15 minutes to induce precipitation. Upon precipitation, the
 160 membrane delaminated from the replica spontaneously. After rinsing with water to remove solvent
 161 and additives, ethanol was used to rinse the membrane before being dried in a vacuum oven at
 162 ambient temperature for 48 h. The resultant membrane is denoted as micro-pillared PVDF membrane
 163 (MP-PVDF).

164



165

166 Fig. 1 Schematic for the fabrication of micro-pillar PVDF membranes (MP-PVDF). The silicon

167 wafer mold has pillars with the dimension of 5 μm (diameter), 10 μm (height) and 10 μm (period).

168 2.4 Membrane modification by CF_4 plasma treatment

169 MP-PVDF membrane was further treated with CF_4 plasma (an IoN40 plasma system, PVA
170 Tepla Co.Ltd) to improve its hydrophobicity based on our previous methods (Wei, Zhao et al. 2012,
171 Yang, Li et al. 2014, Yang, Tian et al. 2015, Chen, Tian et al. 2017, Chen, Zheng et al. 2017). In
172 brief, the substrate was cleaned first under argon plasma at 45W for 15s and then in CF_4 gas at a flow
173 rate of 120 cm^3/min (SCCM) at 200W for 15 min. After the CF_4 modification, the chamber was
174 cleaned using an O_2 plasma at 200W for 15 min to avoid any CF_4 deposition on the electrodes.

175 2.5 Membrane characterization

176 Water contact angle (CA) and sliding angle (SA) of the samples were measured using a contact
177 angle goniometer (Maist Drop Meter A-100P) via the sessile drop method. The tilt angle at which the
178 droplet started rolling off the surface was denoted as the sliding angle. Pore size and pore size
179 distribution were analyzed using porometry (Porolux 1000, Supplementary information Method S1)
180 (Wei, Zhao et al. 2012, Yang, Li et al. 2014, Yang, Tian et al. 2015, Chen, Tian et al. 2017, Chen,
181 Zheng et al. 2017). Scanning electron microscopy (HITACH TM-1000 and FEI Nova Nano SEM
182 450) was used to characterize membrane morphology. The sample was sputtered with a thin layer of
183 gold in a vacuum prior to SEM characterization.

184 2.6 MD performance

185 A bench scale DCMD unit (Supplementary Data Fig. S1) developed previously (Wei, Zhao et al.
186 2012, Yang, Li et al. 2014, Yang, Tian et al. 2015, Chen, Tian et al. 2017, Chen, Zheng et al. 2017)
187 was used to evaluate scaling on the membranes using 4 wt.% or 25 wt.% NaCl solutions. For the
188 MP-PVDF and CF_4 -MP-PVDF membranes, the side with pillars was in contact with the feed. The

189 conductivity of the permeate was regularly measured to identify the point when salts from the feed
190 penetrate to the permeate. Since 25 wt.% is close to the saturated concentration for a NaCl solution,
191 the experimental duration was significantly reduced. The feed and the permeate temperatures were
192 maintained at 60 ± 0.3 °C and 20 ± 0.3 °C respectively. The flux (J , kg/m²·h) was calculated based
193 on equation (1):

$$194 \quad J = \Delta m / A \Delta t. \quad \text{Equation (1)}$$

195 Where Δm (kg) is the amount of water transported from the feed to the permeate, Δt the interval of
196 the collection (h) and A the membrane area (m²).

197

198 **3. Results and discussion**

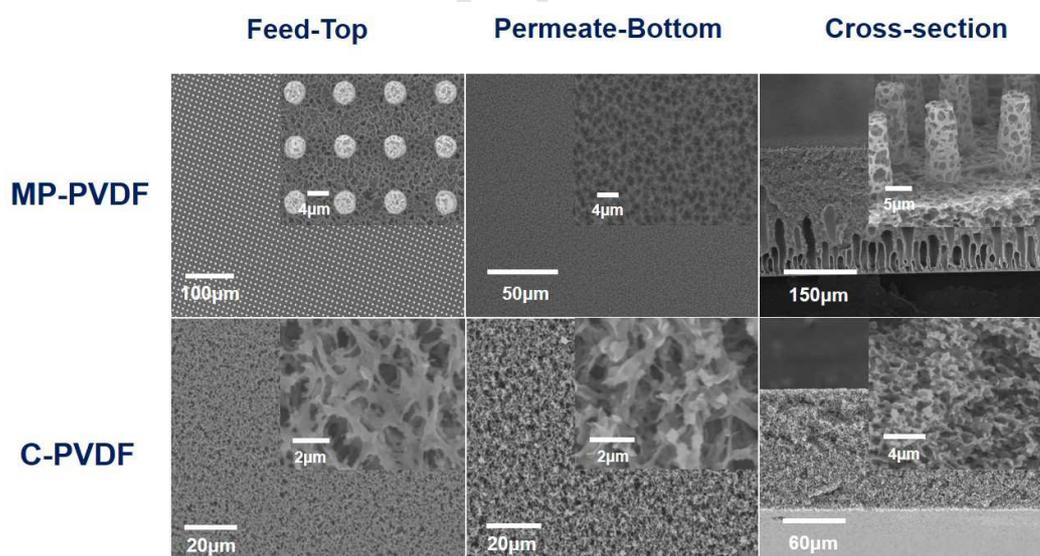
199 3.1 Morphology of the MP-PVDF membrane

200 Fig. 2 shows the SEM images of the top, bottom and cross-section of the commercial PVDF
201 (C-PVDF) and micro-pillar PVDF (MP-PVDF) membrane. Both membranes show a porous top and
202 bottom surface, as well as a macroporous cross-section. The surface porosity and pore size of
203 MP-PVDF membranes appears to be lower than C-PVDF membranes. In addition, MP-PVDF
204 membranes contain porous pillar arrays with open structure throughout (Fig. 2, inserts). For the sake
205 of clarity, the membrane surface facing the feed is denoted as the top surface. In this study, the top
206 surface of the MP-PVDF membrane (Fig. 2) was the one in contact with the PDMS replica. During
207 membrane formation, phase separation started from the open surface of the polymer solution;
208 instantaneous demixing occurred at the water/polymer solution interface, resulting in a finger-like
209 macrovoid structure (i.e. MP-PVDF cross-section in Fig. 2). However, solvent and additives from the
210 polymer solution within the PDMS replica had to diffuse through the whole membrane to the water

211 bath and therefore it was a slow process. This allowed the polymer-lean phases to grow and
 212 eventually enlarge into micropores (He, Mulder et al. 2003, Li, Ji et al. 2008, Ji, Li et al. 2010, Li, Ji
 213 et al. 2010). The interconnected porous structure in the top surface of the PVDF membrane is due to
 214 the competition between the solid-liquid phase separation and liquid-liquid separation for a
 215 semi-crystalline polymer (Xing, Song et al. 2016). The open porous surface in the pillars is of
 216 particular interest for creating a superhydrophobic surface.

217 The MP-PVDF membrane features an array of conical pillars of 5 μm at the bottom (i.e. the part
 218 connected to the bulk membrane) and 3.5 μm at the tip. Compared to the original pillar structure on
 219 the silicon mold, this reduction at the tip is likely caused by membrane shrinkage during phase
 220 separation. Nevertheless, the height and period for pillars on the membrane are the same as the
 221 designed silicon mold, i.e. 10 μm in both height and period.

222



223

224 Fig. 2 SEM images of MP-PVDF and C-PVDF membranes. Feed-Top, Permeate-bottom and cross
 225 section. The top surface of MP-PVDF was slight tilted for a better view. Inserts are enlarged views.

226

227 As listed in Table 1, the MP-PVDF membrane has a thickness of $\sim 264 \mu\text{m}$, whereas the
228 commercial PVDF membrane (C-PVDF) is of $130 \mu\text{m}$. Attempts to reduce this thickness could be
229 possible by controlling the casting process. Slightly higher porosity is found in MP-PVDF
230 membranes ($\sim 79\%$) than C-PVDF membrane (75%), indicating a more open porous substrate in
231 MP-PVDF. However, the mean pore size of MP-PVDF membranes ($0.120 \mu\text{m}$) is smaller than
232 C-PVDF membranes ($0.230 \mu\text{m}$). Interestingly, the contact angle for MP-PVDF membranes
233 ($166.0 \pm 2.3^\circ$) is significantly higher than that of C-PVDF membranes ($139.2 \pm 3.7^\circ$). The CF_4 plasma
234 treatment may fluorinate membrane surfaces by F atom insertion or deposition of Teflon polymers
235 (Yang, Li et al. 2014, Tian, Yin et al. 2015, Yang, Tian et al. 2015). This leads to a slightly enlarged
236 mean pore size (i.e. from $0.120 \mu\text{m}$ to $0.201 \mu\text{m}$), and further increased contact angle (i.e. from 166°
237 to 176°). As shown in Fig. S2 (Supplementary Data), C-PVDF membrane possessed a narrow
238 distribution of pore size, whereas C-PVDF and CF_4 -MP-PVDF showed a relatively large pore size
239 distribution.

240 The most striking difference is the sliding angle: C-PVDF membranes showed no sliding angle
241 below 90° ; MP-PVDF membranes showed a sliding angle of 15.8° ; and CF_4 -MP-PVDF showed a
242 sliding angle of only 3.0° . The surface of CF_4 -MP-PVDF membrane was so water repellent that a
243 water droplet stuck to the needle rather than the membrane surface during the contact angle test.
244 When the water droplet was released from the needle by a gentle flick, it rolled off the surface upon
245 slight tilting. The surface energy follows a reverse order compared to the contact angle: C-PVDF
246 membrane show the highest surface energy of 72 mJ/m^2 , and CF_4 -MP-PVDF membranes show the
247 lowest energy of 0.27 mJ/cm^2 . This water repelling property and low surface energy of the
248 CF_4 -MP-PVDF membrane surface are not trivial characteristics, which are most probably related to

249 the scaling/fouling process as shown in the experiments below.

250

251 Table 1. Characteristics of the C-PVDF, MP-PVDF and CF₄-MP-PVDF membranes.

Membrane	C-PVDF	MP-PVDF	CF ₄ -MP-PVDF
Thickness/ μm	132 \pm 3	263 \pm 2	264 \pm 2
Mean pore size/ μm	0.230 \pm 0.0020.235 \pm 0.013	0.078 \pm 0.0120.120 \pm 0.005	0.073 \pm 0.0090.201 \pm 0.013
Porosity (%)	75.3 \pm 2.1	79.6 \pm 3.7	78.9 \pm 5.3
Contact angle/ $^{\circ}$	139.2 \pm 3.7	166.0 \pm 2.3	175.6 \pm 1.3
Sliding angle / $^{\circ}$	>90	15.8 \pm 3.3	3.0 \pm 0.8
Surface energy (mJ/m ²)*	71.8 \pm 2.4	47.3 \pm 0.6	0.27 \pm 0.12

252 * Supplementary information Method S2 for determination of surface energy.

253

254 Both MP-PVDF and CF₄-MP-PVDF membranes can be categorized as superhydrophobic due to
 255 their high contact angle and low sliding angles. The commercial PVDF membrane has a very open
 256 porous surface, but its contact angle was only 139 $^{\circ}$, and its sliding angle is above 90 $^{\circ}$. Water droplets
 257 on a hydrophobic surface are normally considered as either in the Cassie-Baxter state or in the
 258 Wenzel state (Li, Reinhoudt et al. 2007, Xue Mei Li 2007, Li, He et al. 2008, Tian, Li et al. 2015).
 259 The difference between the two states is the contact areas between the water and the solid substrate:
 260 The Wenzel state is characterized by a larger contact area and more interaction between the liquid
 261 phase and solid phase, whereas air pockets between the liquid and solid phase are expected for the

262 Cassie-Baxter state. Sliding angle is an indirect macroscopic feature indicating interaction between a
263 surface and a water droplet. A sliding angle above 90° , is an indication of strong interaction between
264 the surface and water. This minor, but very important information shows that the surface
265 characteristics of the C-PVDF membrane is different from that of micropillared membrane
266 (MP-VPDF and CF_4 -MP-PVDF). For C-PVDF membranes, the water contact angle was found to be
267 much higher than 90° , and no obvious wetting upon immersion in water was observed. However, if
268 comparing to MP-PVDF and CF_4 -MP-PVDF membranes with a high contact angle and low sliding
269 angle, it is likely that water on C-PVDF surface is in a meta-Cassie-Baxter state with partial wetting.
270 The cause might be related to the surface morphology: C-PVDF membrane has a homogeneous
271 porous surface, but both MP-PVDF and CF_4 -MP-PVDF have pillars with higher surface porosity.
272 The state of water in contact with the membrane surface is not clear yet at this stage, but worthy of
273 future analysis. Previous work on MD membranes with a superhydrophobic or omniphobic surface
274 only considered static water contact angles, and did not measure sliding angles (Wei, Zhao et al.
275 2012, Lin, Nejati et al. 2014, Yang, Li et al. 2014, Nejati, Boo et al. 2015, Tian, Yin et al. 2015,
276 Yang, Tian et al. 2015, Boo, Lee et al. 2016, Boo, Lee et al. 2016, Lee, Choi et al. 2016, Lee, An et
277 al. 2016, Lee, Boo et al. 2016, Tijing, Woo et al. 2016, Wang, Hou et al. 2016, Wang, Jin et al. 2016,
278 Chen, Tian et al. 2017, Chen, Zheng et al. 2017). In the MD process, water flows along the
279 membrane surface, and thus behaves dynamically. Increasing the feed flow rate was reported to
280 mitigate scaling (Naidu, Jeong et al. 2014, Choi, Choi et al. 2017), which might be relevant to the
281 dynamic behavior at the interface between water and membrane.

282

283 3.2 MD performance

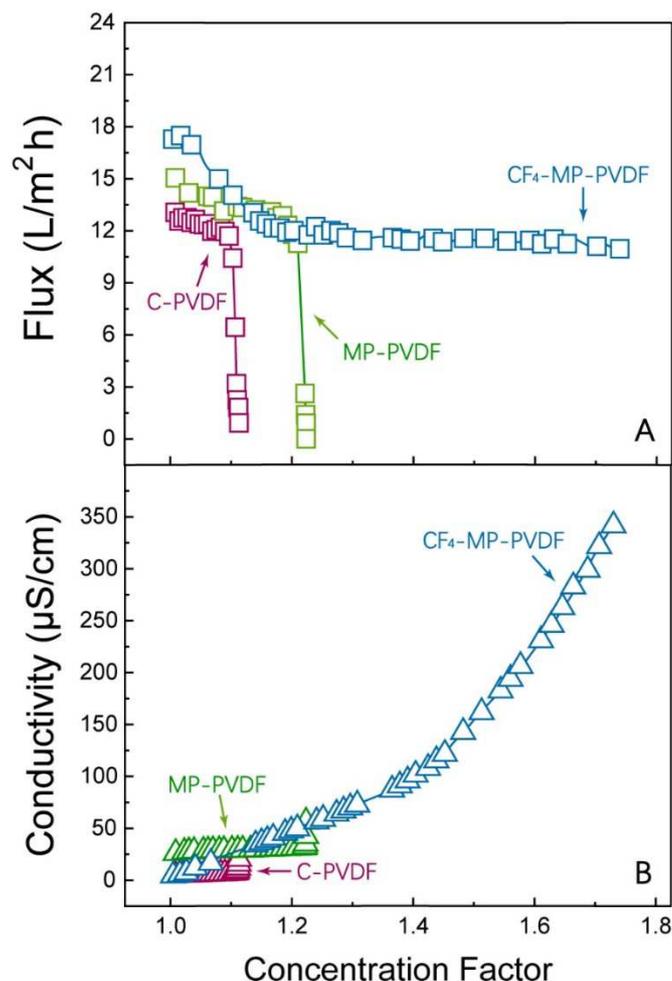
284 Fig. 3 shows the flux and permeate conductivity using C-PVDF, MP-PVDF and CF₄-MP-PVDF
285 membranes. An initial feed solution of 25 wt.% NaCl was concentrated until changes in the flux or
286 permeate conductivity occurred. We intentionally selected this close-to-saturation concentration to
287 reduce the experiment time. With increased concentration, the C-PVDF membrane showed a gradual
288 decrease in flux. When the concentration factor (i.e. the ratio of the salt concentration during the
289 process to its initial concentration in the feed) reached about 1.1, the flux suddenly dropped to zero.
290 A similar trend was found for the MP-PVDF membrane, but at a concentration factor of about 1.2. In
291 contrast, CF₄-MP-PVDF membranes maintained a surprisingly stable flux at much higher
292 concentration factors (i.e. 1.76). Initial tests using a 4 wt.% NaCl feed solution showed no obvious
293 variations in both flux and permeate conductivity for the three membranes. They were intact and
294 remained integral (Supplementary information, Fig. S3). Reproducibility of the DCMD results was
295 confirmed as shown in Supplementary Data, Fig. S4.

296 In terms of flux, CF₄-MP-PVDF showed a slightly higher initial flux than MP-PVDF. This is
297 probably due to the enlarged effective evaporation surface area at the liquid-air-solid interface which
298 contributed to the increased water flux (Yang, Li et al. 2014, Yang, Tian et al. 2015). This difference
299 gradually disappeared when the concentration factor reached 1.1, and after that both CF₄-MP-PVDF
300 and MP-PVDF membranes showed a similar flux.

301 In the case of permeate conductivity, very different results were obtained (Fig. 3B). The
302 permeate conductivity of C-PVDF membranes increased gradually until a concentration factor of 1.1
303 (i.e. the flux declined to zero). Similar trend was observed for MP-PVDF membranes. For
304 CF₄-MP-PVDF, the permeate conductivity increased continuously throughout the whole process

305 until 350 $\mu\text{S}/\text{cm}$, without obvious sacrificing in MD flux. This phenomenon is striking in that
306 saturated NaCl feed would generally cause instantaneously scaling and dramatic flux decline in MD
307 (Tun, Fane et al. 2005, Gryta 2010, He, Gilron et al. 2013). Increase in permeate conductivity is an
308 indication of diffusion of NaCl from saturated feed to the permeate; however, at the concentration
309 factor of 1.76, the CF_4 -MP-PVDF membrane showed a rejection of 99.9% (Supplementary Data Fig.
310 S5). Although this value is very high, rigorous analysis would claim that current membrane is not
311 perfect or other unknown mechanism exists. Minor defects in the membrane allow diffusion of NaCl
312 from feed to permeate; at low feed NaCl concentration, the diffusion of NaCl is minor thus the
313 permeate conductivity does not show appreciable increase; but at saturation, diffusion of NaCl was
314 noticed in the permeate. Besides the contribution of defects, the other contribution might be that the
315 NaCl aerosols, generated at the interface from the saturated feed, eventually pass the porous
316 hydrophobic pores and end in the permeate. Sea salt aerosols (SSA) have been routinely found at the
317 marine boundary (Tyree, Hellion et al. 2007, Jentsch, Ciobotă et al. 2011). We have to admit that
318 this hypothesis is of no direct proof yet and requires further scientific investigation.

319



320

321 Fig. 3 DCMD performances of C-PVDF, MP-PVDF and CF₄-MP-PVDF membranes with an
 322 initial 25wt. % NaCl feed solution. A and B: Water flux and permeate conductivity of three
 323 membranes as a function of concentration factor. The feed temperature was maintained at 60 °C
 324 and the permeate temperature at 20 °C. The concentration factor is defined as the ratio of the salt
 325 concentration in the feed during the process to the initial salt concentration (i.e. 25 wt.% NaCl).

326

327 After the DCMD experiment, membrane samples were removed from the test cell and
 328 characterized as shown in Fig. 4. The contact angle for both C-PVDF and MP-PVDF membranes,
 329 was significantly reduced. The sliding angle of MP-PVDF membranes increased dramatically from
 330 15.8° to above 90°, indicating that the surfaces became sticky to water. In contrast, the contact angle

331 of CF₄-MP-PVDF membranes remained unchanged, but the sliding angle slightly increased from 3.3°
332 to 10.5°. Optical images showed that the surfaces of CF₄-MP-PVDF on both feed and permeate sides
333 remained clean. However, the surfaces of both C-PVDF and MP-PVDF membranes showed NaCl
334 crystals (as highlighted by the red circles in Supplementary Data Fig. S6). This observation was
335 further confirmed by the SEM images (Fig. 4B): a layer of NaCl crystals of various sizes were
336 observed on the C-PVDF surface and some cubic crystals even imbedded in the middle of the
337 support; furthermore, even permeate surface showed some cubic particulates which would be NaCl
338 crystals. The surface of MP-PVDF was fully covered by a thick layer of NaCl crystals, and no
339 full-sized pillars could be identified, no obvious large NaCl crystals were found in the porous
340 structure.

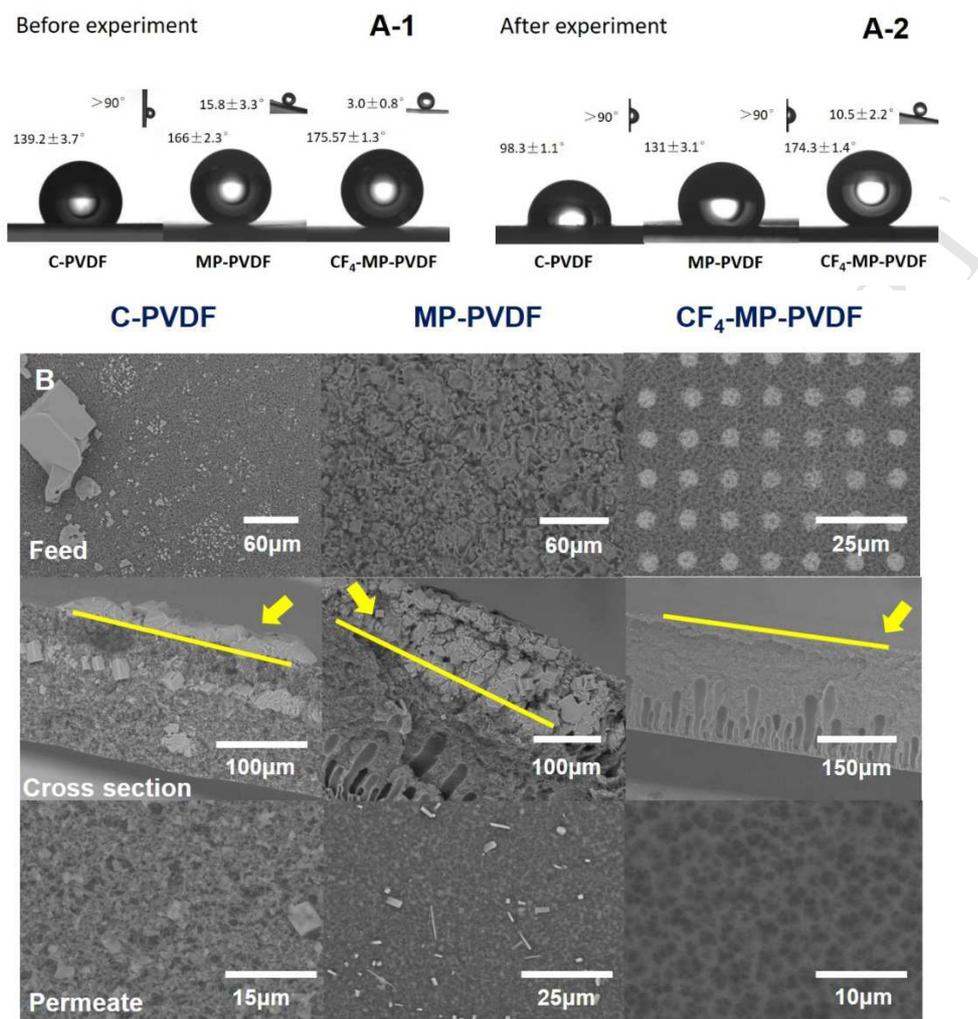
341 Obviously, the scaling behavior of three membranes in concentrating the NaCl solution was
342 different, caused by the different membrane morphology and/or chemistry. A large thick layer of
343 crystals on MP-PVDF membrane indicates that the NaCl was mainly at the membrane surface (and
344 in the original open space between pillars), but for C-PVDF membranes, liquid might have
345 penetrated into the support; or C-PVDF membrane was partially wetted. In MD process, external
346 concentration polarization and temperature polarization tend to increase the possibility of NaCl
347 nucleation at the membrane surface (Schofield, Fane et al. 1987, Martínez-Díez and
348 Vázquez-González 1999, Yang, Tian et al. 2015). Consequently, at a concentration factor of 1.1, the
349 feed bulk reached salt concentration above the saturation point (Godoy, Carvalho et al. 2017); at the
350 same time, the salt concentration at the membrane/liquid interface is even higher than the bulk. It is
351 thus probable that the nucleation of NaCl occurs at membrane surface before in the bulk. Therefore,
352 the scaling for both C-PVDF and MP-PVDF membranes is initiated from the surface rather than in

353 from the bulk feed. Difference in the extend of scaling for C-PVDF and MP-PVDF membranes could
354 be resulted from the different surface morphology. The micropillars in the MP-PVDF membranes
355 surface tend to create micro turbulence (Lee, Won et al. 2013, Jung, Won et al. 2015, Won, Jung et al.
356 2016); the thick crystal layer is most probably originated from this turbulence which lead to quick
357 nucleation of NaCl crystals, thus coverage of the membrane surface. However, C-PVDF membrane
358 has rather homogeneous surface pores; nucleation of NaCl crystals lead to wetting, resulted in
359 crystals in the support layer. This phenomenon has been reported and nucleation and wetting of the
360 polypropylene membranes by NaCl concentrated solution. As a consequence, the MD flux declined
361 as soon as the membrane was wetted (Gryta 2002, Gryta 2002).

362 Very interesting observation was that CF₄-MP-PVDF membrane did not show any scaling or
363 fouling, and the MD flux was very stable at a concentration factor of 1.78, far above the saturation.
364 Assuming that the feed did not form NaCl crystals in the bulk, the solution was then super-saturated.
365 Although supersaturation without crystallization is possible (He, Sirkar et al. 2009, He, Sirkar et al.
366 2009), one would expect that the vapor pressure of the supersaturated solution decreases;
367 consequently, the MD flux would gradually decline. Therefore, the stable MD flux was an indication
368 of constant feed NaCl concentration. This means that there probably was crystallization of NaCl
369 from the feed solution after the solution was supersaturated. However, no suspension was observed
370 in the bulk feed caused by the crystallization of NaCl in the experiment. The phenomenon will be
371 further addressed in the next session. To unravel this puzzle is scientifically interesting and
372 challenging, at present, we are not able to identify the origin of scalant yet. An online monitoring
373 method will be required and the effect of the membrane surface morphology and chemistry on the
374 scaling formation will be clarified and published in the future.

375

376



377

378 Fig. 4 Characteristics of C-PVDF, MP-PVDF and CF₄-MP-PVDF membranes before and after
 379 DCMD test. (A-1) and (A-2): contact angles and sliding angles of three membranes before and after
 380 DCMD; (B): SEM images of the surfaces and cross-section. For the cross-section images, arrows and
 381 lines indicate the membrane surface at the feed side. C-PVDF and MP-PVDF membranes showed
 382 aggregates of crystals.

383

384 3.3 Origin of anti-scaling: hypothesis

385 The reduction in the contact angle is obviously caused by the scaling by NaCl. Upon saturation,
 386 C-PVDF was scaled by NaCl crystals, followed by a rapid flux decline to zero. Although the

387 MP-PVDF membrane showed a delay to a concentration factor of 1.2, scaling was inevitable (Fig.
388 3 and Fig. 4 B). With such a harsh saturated solution, the clean surface of CF₄-MP-PVDF on the
389 feed side demonstrated a surprising anti-scaling property. CF₄-MP-PVDF membranes have a very
390 low sliding angle (Fig. 4 A-1), and their surface was repellent to water droplets. Correlation
391 between the two phenomena raised questions: Did the water “feel” slippery at the
392 liquid-air-polymer interface? Did this prevent the attachment of nucleation of NaCl crystals or
393 attachment of crystals to the interface, leading to the CF₄-MP-PVDF membranes being resistant to
394 scalant even in a supersaturated solution? In our research, however, the results of the contact angle
395 and sliding angle have already given hints on the dynamic behavior in MD. We utilized a peristaltic
396 pump in the experiment to give extra force to increase the release of the matters from the membrane
397 surface for reduction of scaling. Special care was taken to prevent bulky amount of air flow into the
398 system; but sporadically some bubbles could be visualized to enter the module. As shown in Video
399 S1 (Supplementary information), interesting phenomena on membrane surfaces in the feed were
400 observed: (1) for MP-PVDF membrane, bubbles were constantly seen, slowly moving along the
401 surface in the direction of the flow; (2) for C-PVDF membrane, bubbles were seen, but mostly
402 remaining in place; sporadically some small air bubble flowing into the module moved along the
403 flow; (3) for CF₄-MP-PVDF membranes (the video was modified into slow motion for a clear
404 view), there were bubbles which appeared and disappeared constantly following the pulses of the
405 pump; moreover, a large motion of liquid-air interface was observed along the membrane surface.
406 Above difference, though preliminary and qualitative, enlightens us on an important factor for
407 scaling resistance for CF₄-MP-PVDF membrane.

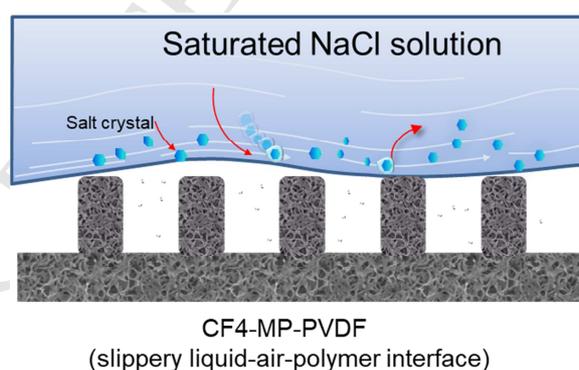
408 Hereby, we propose a hypothesis that the dynamics at the liquid-air-polymer interface largely

409 dictate scaling. We first define a “stick” or “slippery” surface based on sliding angle. C-PVDF was
410 defined as a “sticky” surface since its sliding angle is above 90° (Fig. 4 A-1). This “sticky” surface
411 might cause non-slip of the liquid phase at the interface. For a superhydrophobic surface with a
412 very low sliding angle, CF_4 -MP-PVDF is defined as a “slippery” surface since its sliding angle is
413 far below 10° (Fig. 4 A-1). This means that water actually “floats” above the air-polymer surface.
414 For MP-PVDF membranes, the magnitude of stickiness or slipperiness lies between the two
415 extremes.

416 Slippery surface (SLIPs) with liquid infusion has been reported for inhibition of ice nucleation
417 or anti-ice/anti-frost performance (Kim, Wong et al. 2012, Kim, Kreder et al. 2013, Wilson, Lu et al.
418 2013). The slippery surface we proposed could be identified as “an air/vapor infused surface”. This
419 logic deduction would lead to similar concept of anti-scaling for NaCl crystals. This engineered
420 slippery liquid/air/solid interface is theoretically resistant to any crystalline particulates. We admit
421 that the effect of the chemistry nature and nucleation/growth of the crystals to scaling for
422 micropillared membrane is unknown and worth of further investigation. Because MD involves
423 mass transfer, concentration and temperature polarization, it is much more complicated than the
424 SLIPs surface created by liquid infusion (Kim, Wong et al. 2012, Kim, Kreder et al. 2013, Wilson,
425 Lu et al. 2013). At present, we are conducting non-intrusive observation the formation of scaling
426 and evidence will be reported in the near future (Fortunato, Jang et al. 2018, Lee, Jang et al. 2018).

427 Consequently, a slippery surface is hypothesized to be scaling resistant because dynamically the
428 liquid remains floating above the polymer phase; or the fluid solid interface is constantly changing;
429 in other words, the liquid feels slippery at the interface. The observation of a large air/liquid
430 interface flowing along the membrane surface was an indirect proof. However, the direct

431 consequence is that, no crystals directly contact the polymer phase even though there are NaCl
432 crystals in the liquid phase. Thus, the chance for scaling is low (Fig. 5). For CF₄-MP-PVDF
433 membrane, due to the constantly moving interface, very limited interaction of the liquid and the
434 membrane polymer could not allow the formation of nuclei on the membrane surface; even if the
435 solution contains crystals, it is also very difficult to attach to the surface. On the contrary, for a
436 “sticky” surface, there exists a rather static liquid-air-polymer interface; above saturation, the
437 chance for nucleation and growth on the membrane surface increases; Driven by the concentration
438 and temperature polarization, NaCl crystals would form on the surface and so does scaling. The
439 in-situ observation of the dynamic scaling process at the interface remains challenging. We are
440 currently working with other scientists using optical coherence tomography (OCT) (Fortunato, Jang
441 et al. 2018, Lee, Jang et al. 2018) to further confirm the observation and compare different surface
442 morphology on the scaling for various inorganic salts.



444

445 Fig. 5 Schematic of the slippery interface in relation to anti-scaling for CF₄-MP-PVDF membrane.

446

447 The other quantitative measure of the slipperiness of hydrophobic soft polymeric membrane
448 surfaces has not yet been established in the literature. Nevertheless, the measurement of

449 slipperiness of superhydrophobic surface has been reported as the slip length based on Navier's
450 model (Granick, Zhu et al. 2003, Choi, Ulmanella et al. 2006). Measurement of the slip length of a
451 surface would indirectly support the present correlation of slip and scaling. Beyond scaling, the
452 investigation of current slippery surface is useful for quantifying the flow resistance of the inner
453 surface of a channel (Choi, Ulmanella et al. 2006, Truesdell, Mammoli et al. 2006, Daniello,
454 Waterhouse et al. 2009, Haase, Wood et al. 2016). Low friction has been shown at a nanopatterned
455 surface (Cottin-Bizonne, Barrat et al. 2003), which might be related to the formation of
456 "nanobubbles" that gave rise to reduced friction resulting in a slippery surface (Tyrrell and Attard
457 2001, Shin, Park et al. 2015). As shown in video S1 (Supplementary information), we didn't
458 observe nanobubbles, but a moving air/liquid interface along the superhydrophobic CF₄-MP-PVDF
459 membrane surface. This observation provided a qualitative proof of the possible slippery character
460 at the interface. Yet, the scientific evidence requires further experimental verification of the slip
461 length and simulation of the flow pattern. The fundamental dynamic mechanism of scaling in
462 membrane distillation could then be clarified. Understanding the dynamic scaling resistance might
463 also shed light on fouling by other organic matter. This assumption lies in the probability of
464 interaction between the foulant (in the feed) and the membrane materials. If direct contact between
465 the membrane materials and the feed fouling is largely suppressed, fouling resistance might be
466 observed.

467

468 **4. Conclusion remarks**

469 Superhydrophobic polyvinylidene fluoride (PVDF) membranes with micropillar arrays

(MP-PVDF) were created via a micromolding phase separation (μ PS) technology, providing a simple method for creating well-controlled surface morphology. With an additional CF_4 plasma treatment of MP-PVDF, the resultant CF_4 -MP-PVDF had a significantly increased contact angle (174°) and decreased sliding angle (3.0°). This CF_4 -MP-PVDF membrane showed less scaling upon concentrating highly saline NaCl solution (25 wt.%) by direct contact membrane distillation. In contrast, both commercial PVDF and MP-PVDF membranes showed severe scaling followed by flux reduction. Membrane autopsy showed that scaling by NaCl crystals and possible wetting occurred in C-PVDF and MP-PVDF, but not CF_4 -MP-PVDF membranes. Visual observation of a floating water/air interface in CF_4 -MP-PVDF membranes qualitatively demonstrated that a slippery surface might contribute to resistance to scaling. We hypothetically correlate the sliding angle to the slippery surface of CF_4 -MP-PVDF and its anti-scaling properties. This work may provide a platform and methodology for understanding scaling beyond membrane distillation.

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Highlights

1. MicroMolding phase separation (μ PS) was utilized to prepare pillared hydrophobic membranes
2. Porous micropillars PVDF surface appeared superhydrophobic.
3. CF_4 plasma modification turned the surface from superhydrophobic to slippery
4. Slippery surface showed significant resistance to scaling in treating saturated NaCl solutions by membrane distillation.

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