

# The Combined Effect of Air Layers and Membrane Superhydrophobicity on Biofouling in Membrane Distillation

David E. M. Warsinger<sup>a</sup>, Jocelyn Gonzalez<sup>a</sup>, Sarah Van Belleghem<sup>a</sup>, Amelia Servi<sup>a</sup>, Jaichander Swaminathan<sup>a</sup>, Hyung Won Chung<sup>a</sup>, John H. Lienhard V<sup>a\*</sup>

<sup>a</sup> Department of Mechanical Engineering, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, 77 Massachusetts Avenue, Cambridge MA 02139-4307 USA

\* Corresponding Author: [lienhard@mit.edu](mailto:lienhard@mit.edu)

Previous studies of membrane distillation (MD) have shown that superhydrophobic membranes experience dramatically less inorganic and particulate fouling. However, little explanation for this improved performance has been given in the literature. Furthermore, studies comparing membrane superhydrophobicity and biofouling are lacking, though superhydrophobic surfaces are known to be more vulnerable to biofouling than other types. In non-membrane surfaces, visible air layers on superhydrophobic surfaces have been correlated with significant decreases in biofouling. Therefore, it was proposed here to use superhydrophobic MD membranes with periodic introduction of air to maintain an air layer on the membrane surface. Superhydrophobic membranes were created with initiated chemical vapor deposition (iCVD) of a fluorinated compound, perfluorodecyl acrylate (PFDA). The substrate membrane was PVDF. To test MD fouling, an MD membrane was placed on top of a fouling solution, with a heater and stirrer to cause evaporation of water through the membrane. Results were analyzed with foulant mass measurements. Alginate gel fouling was examined, as this compound is a common proxy for biological fouling in ocean water. The introduction of air layers was found to dramatically decrease foulant adhesion to the membrane, by 95-97%. Membrane superhydrophobicity made a much smaller impact in reducing fouling.

## Keywords

membrane distillation, superhydrophobic surfaces, alginate, air layers, anti-fouling

## Nomenclature

$\alpha$	foulant sticking efficiency [-]
$\delta_c$	fouling layer average thickness [m]
$\theta$	contact angle [°]
$\omega$	stirrer rotation rate [rpm]
$A$	experimental pre-exponential factor
$A_m$	membrane area [cm <sup>2</sup> ]
$C_X$	salt concentration [g/mL]
$\dot{m}_p$	condensate flux [kg/hr]
$N$	number of particles per unit volume [mol/L]
$t_{induction}$	induction time [s]
$T$	temperature [K]
$v_p$	permeate velocity [m/s]

# 1. Introduction

## 1.1 Fouling in Membrane Distillation

Membrane distillation desalination uses a porous hydrophobic membrane that passes water vapor while rejecting liquid water [1]. Studies have found MD to be more resistant to fouling than other membrane-based desalination processes, such as reverse osmosis (RO) [2, 3]. The mechanism for this resistance, however, is poorly understood [4]. Fouling on the membrane blocks the surface, which reduces permeate flux and therefore hinders MD performance [5].

In past studies, superhydrophobic MD membranes have been shown to be resistant to inorganic scaling [6, 7] and particulate fouling [8]. Past studies on MD have also found that nucleation in the bulk feed fluid contributes significantly to MD fouling [9].

Superhydrophobic surfaces submerged in seawater with air layers have exhibited minimal biofouling compared to other surfaces [10]. In seawater applications, the remains of algae often cause biological fouling. The anionic polysaccharide alginate is a common model for studying algal fouling [11]. Alginate forms a viscous gummy gel on membrane surfaces, significantly impairing mass transport [12, 13]. In the present study, alginate foulants were tested in a beaker-based MD setup with the introduction of air bubbles saturated with water vapor via syringe. This method was applied to either regular hydrophobic or coated superhydrophobic MD membranes. The mass of foulant deposited was measured to determine the effectiveness of air recharging for fouling reduction on hydrophobic and superhydrophobic MD membranes.

## 1.2 Fouling Deposition Theory

The deposition of particles on a membrane measured as the change in the fouling layer thickness can be modeled as a function of the particles convected towards the surface. This model has been previously used for RO membranes [14]:

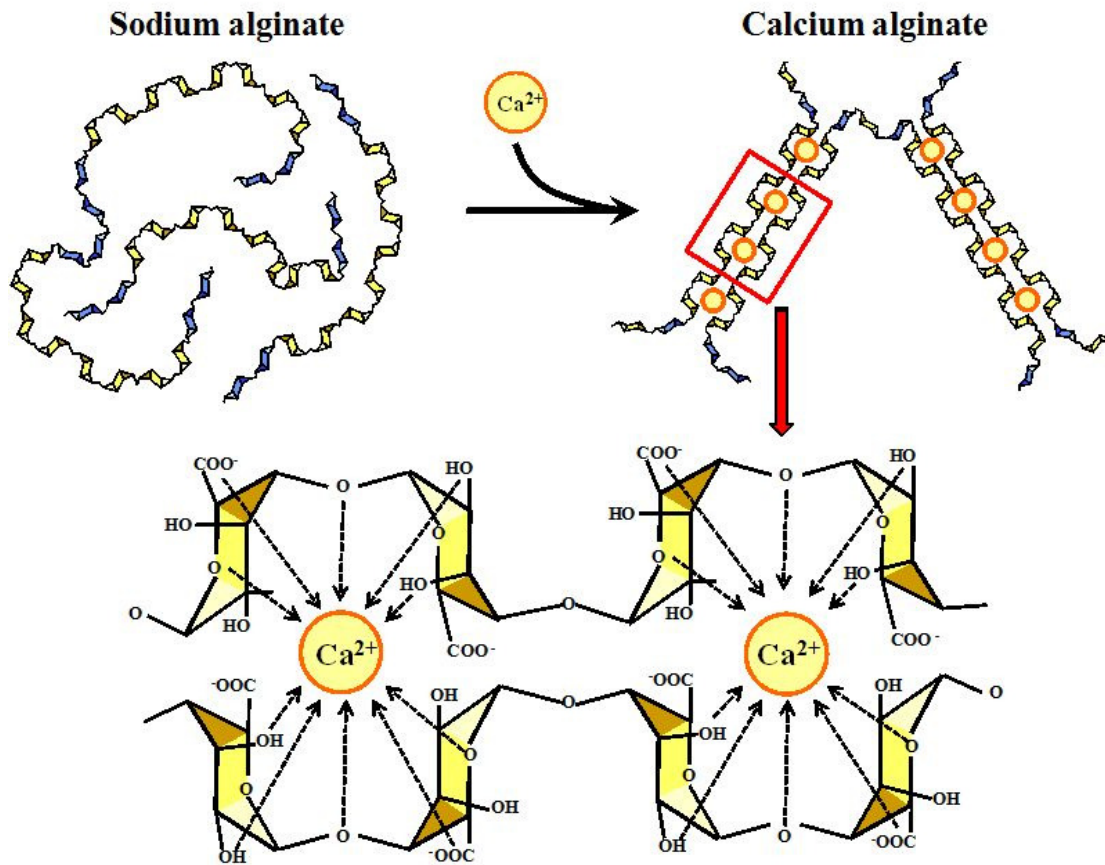
$$\frac{d\delta_c}{dt} = \alpha \delta_c v_p C_x \quad (1.1)$$

where  $t$  is time elapsed,  $\delta_c$  is the fouling layer average thickness,  $\alpha$  is the “foulant sticking efficiency,”  $C_x$  is the salt mass concentration, and  $v_p$  is the permeate velocity passing through the membrane.

An air layer on the feed side of the membrane can block parts of the membrane surface from foulants and increase effective hydrophobicity, thus decreasing  $\alpha$ , the foulant sticking efficiency

### 1.3 Alginate Fouling

Alginate is an anionic polysaccharide, and a major component of the cell walls of algae found in seawater. When exposed to sufficient concentrations of calcium, the calcium replaces the sodium in the alginate. This causes it to form crosslinks, since the +2 charge on calcium ions can form 2 bonds. The cross-linked long molecule chains turn the solution into a gel [15].



**Figure 1.** Alginate gel formation in the presence of calcium ions, from [16]

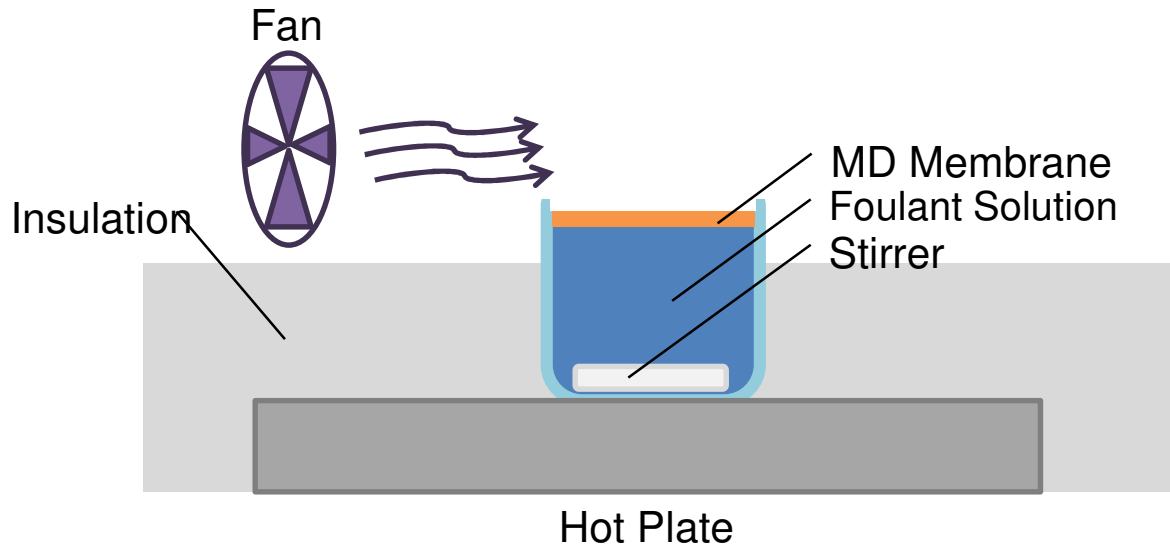
Superhydrophobic surfaces such as those in membrane distillation are known to be more fouling resistant to salts, but more vulnerable to biological fouling [17]. Therefore, improving resistance to biological fouling on these surfaces is a major research goal.

## **2. Methodology**

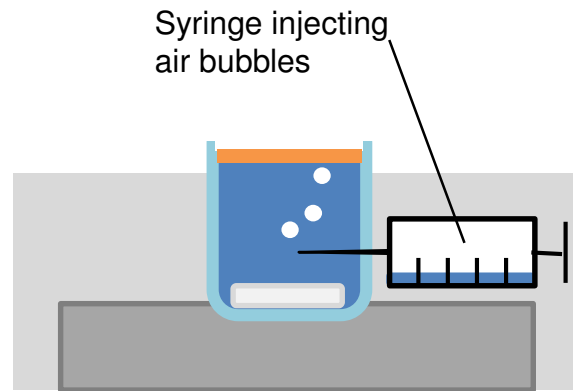
### **2.1 Static Membrane Distillation Setup**

A “static” MD membrane apparatus was used to examine the periodic introduction of air layers to reduce fouling. The membrane divides a hot alginate solution from ambient air. This feed side is designed to have typical MD conditions, while allowing for quick tests and precise weight measurement.

In a static MD setup as seen in Figure 2, a membrane floats on the surface of foulant-containing water. The membrane is flush with the edges of the plastic beaker to avoid water getting on top of the membrane and direct evaporation. Insulation minimized heat loss and excess heating of the air. In this study, fouling was measured by weighing the membrane before and after the study. The entire apparatus was placed within a fume hood to maintain consistent operating conditions (Table 2). The system was monitored with a thermocouple temperature probe and humidity meter.



**Figure 2.** "Static MD" experimental setup of evaporation through an MD membrane for biofouling



**Figure 3.** Air was introduced to the system via syringe containing hot saturated air.

For air recharging with a syringe as seen in Figure 3, saturated air at room temperature was injected into the system every 5 minutes. Each time 5 mL of air was added over ~10 seconds (Table 1), for 4 different trials. The addition of air caused the membrane to lift off the surface.

**Table 1. Experimental conditions for air recharging of MD membranes**

Foulant weight [%wt]	Air Injection Frequency [min]	Test A	Test B	Test C	Test D
0.04% Alginate 0.029% CaCl <sub>2</sub>	10	hydrophobic, control	hydrophobic, air introduction	super- hydrophobic, control	super- hydrophobic, air introduction

In seawater desalination including reverse osmosis, alginate gel layers significantly contribute to creating a biofilm on membrane surfaces. The system was tested with of alginate sufficient to produce a fouling gel layer. The alginate was procured from Sigma-Aldrich. All cases used the same PVDF membrane: the superhydrophobic trials coated this membrane with PPFDA.

**Table 2. Experimental Variable Values.**

Variables	Symbol	Values	Uncertainty
temperature	$T_{f,in}$	60°C	±2°C
humidity	RH	31%	±4%
condensate flux	$\dot{m}_p$	5 LMH	±0.4 LMH
stirrer rotation	$\omega$	60 rpm	±1 rpm

## 2.2 Superhydrophobic Membrane Preparation and Testing

The MD membranes used are polyvinylidene fluoride (PVDF) membranes produced by Millipore. They have a 0.2  $\mu\text{m}$  pore size, and a part number of ISEQ 000 10. These membranes were made superhydrophobic with a coating by initiated chemical vapor deposition (iCVD) of poly-(1H,1H,2H,2H-perfluorodecyl acrylate) (PPFDA) [18, 19, 20].

The superhydrophobic membranes were prepared in a reactor using a process described previously [21]. For the coating, a PFDA monomer (97% Sigma-Aldrich) and t-butyl peroxide initiator (TBPO) (98% Sigma-Aldrich) were used. The monomer and initiator were added into the chamber at rates of 0.03 and 1.0  $\text{cm}^3/\text{min}$  (sccm), respectively. The PPFDA film was 200 nm thick.

The contact angles were measured with a goniometer (model 590, Ramé-Hart) and images were acquired with the software DropImage. An automatic dispenser increased or decreased the drop volume to measure advancing and receding contact angles.

Scanning electron microscope (SEM) images with a JEOL 6010a machine verified the conformity of the superhydrophobic coating.

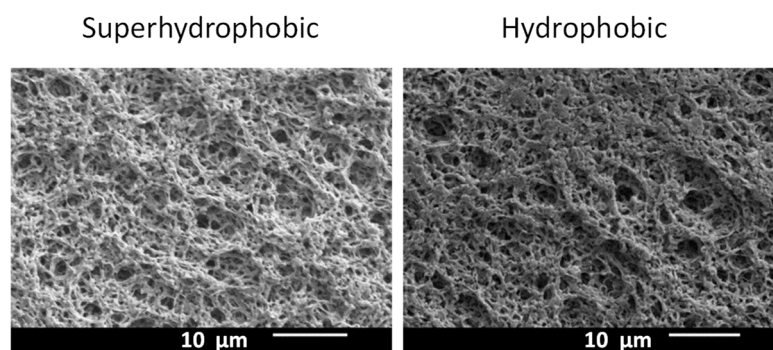
### 3. Results and Discussion

#### 3.1 Fabricated Superhydrophobic Membrane Properties

The PPFDA significantly improved the contact angles of the membranes, as seen in Table 3. Notably, receding contact angles increased the most, by 78°. This result aligns with the literature, where receding contact angles are small for mildly superhydrophobic surfaces, due to pinning of water to the surface. PPFDA provided superior contact angles because it contains more fluorine than PVDF. Additionally, Sidechains also form structures that prevent the fluorine atoms from oriented away from water molecules. The surface roughness overall plays a significant role in increasing surface superhydrophobicity. SEM confirmed that the coating had only a minimal effect on the surface roughness, allowing for an accurate comparison between the membranes.

**Table 3.** Summary of MD Membrane Contact Angles Used In This Study.

Membrane	Static contact angle (°)
Superhydrophobic	157
Hydrophobic	125



**Figure 4.** Membrane SEM. The PPFDA coating from iCVD has a minimal effect on the membrane surface structure and does not clog pores

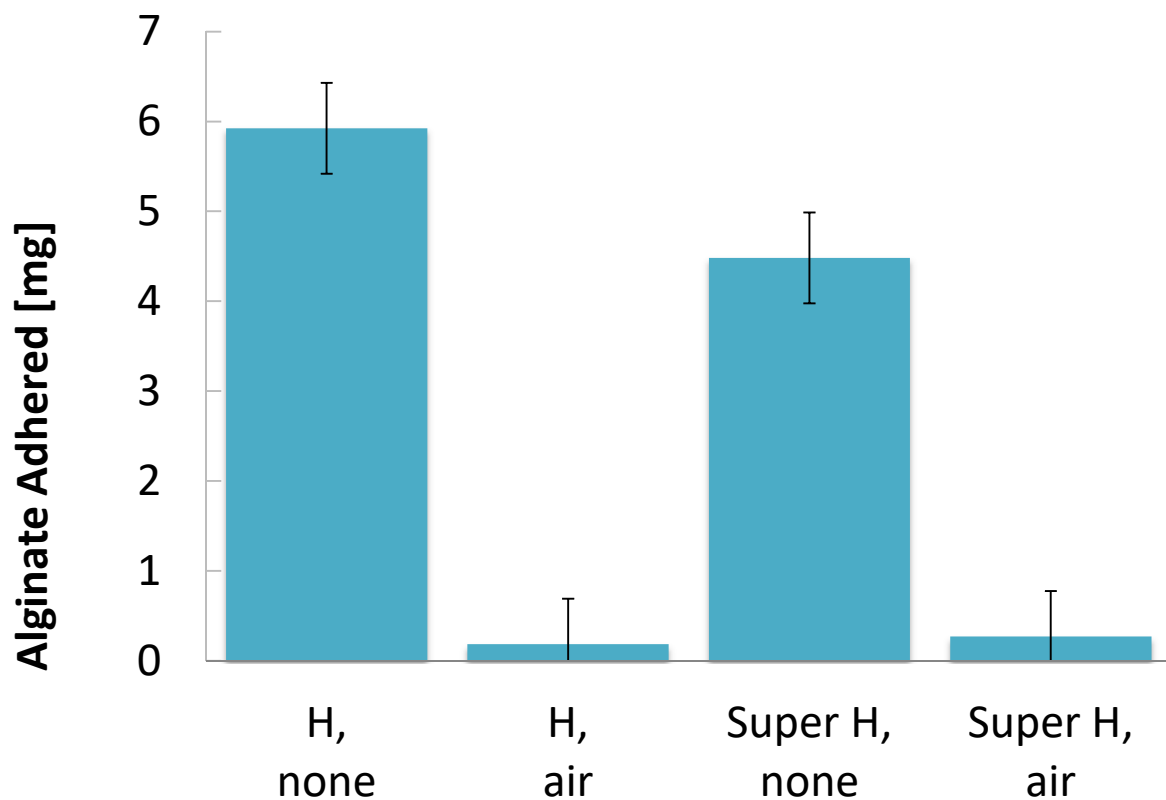




**Figure 5.** Photograph of submerged superhydrophobic MD membrane. The membrane appears reflective due to the air layer on the membrane surface.

### 3.2 Fouling Results

The mass of alginate adhered to the membrane was used to quantify the extent of fouling, as seen in Figure 6.



**Figure 6.** Weight of Salt Adhered to MD Membrane, 0.04% Alginate, CaCl<sub>2</sub>. Alginate fouling was found to have been reduced with the introduction of air on both hydrophobic (“H”) and superhydrophobic (“Super H”) membrane surfaces.

Maintaining air layers dramatically and consistently reduced fouling of alginate on the membrane surface. The gel layers form rapidly when the concentration of calcium is sufficient. Therefore it is not expected that the air affects the formation of gel itself. Instead, the air acts to significantly reduce the adhesion of the gel to the membrane.

It is worth mentioning that no other fouling occurred here, since the salt added, CaCl<sub>2</sub>, is extremely soluble. Notably, biological fouling can reduce membrane hydrophobicity and increase surface energy,

so avoiding biological scale may also help reduce break through and reduce fouling of salts on the membrane.

## **4. Conclusion**

The sustained presence of air layers was proven to be extremely effective in reducing biofouling. The air layers reduced the mass of alginate adhered by 95-97%. The introduction of air layers impairs the adhesion of the alginate gel to the membrane surface, as gel is still present in the bulk solution. The deposition of the PPFDA coating via iCVD effectively created a very hydrophobic membrane, with a static contact angle of 157°. The superhydrophobic membrane without air recharging had only slightly less alginate fouling than the uncoated membrane without air recharging. This differs from results for salt precipitation scaling, which have shown superhydrophobic membranes to significantly reduce scaling. Notably, membrane distillation membranes are known to be resistant to inorganic fouling but vulnerable to biofouling, so superhydrophobicity and air layers may be extremely valuable in reducing fouling on MD membranes.

## **5. ACKNOWLEDGEMENT**

This work was funded by the Cooperative Agreement between the Masdar Institute of Science and Technology (Masdar University), Abu Dhabi, UAE and the Massachusetts Institute of Technology (MIT), Cambridge, MA, USA, Reference No. 02/MI/MI/CP/11/07633/GEN/G/00. This work made use of the Cornell Center for Materials Research Shared Facilities which are supported through the NSF MRSEC program (DMR-1120296).

The authors would like to thank Allen Myerson, You Peng, Emily Tow, McCall Huston, and Grace Connors for their contributions to this work.

## 6. References

- [1] D. Warsinger, J. Swaminathan, L. Maswadeh, and J. H. Lienhard V, “Superhydrophobic condenser surfaces for air gap membrane distillation,” *Journal of Membrane Science*, vol. 492, pp. 578–587, 2015.
- [2] D. M. Warsinger, J. Swaminathan, E. Guillen-Burrieza, H. A. Arafat, and J. H. Lienhard V, “Scaling and fouling in membrane distillation for desalination applications: A review,” *Desalination*, vol. 356, 2014.
- [3] S. Goh, J. Zhang, Y. Liu, and A. G. Fane, “Fouling and wetting in membrane distillation (MD) and MD-bioreactor (MDBR) for wastewater reclamation,” *Desalination*, pp. 1–9, 2012.
- [4] E. Guillen-Burrieza, R. Thomas, B. Mansoor, D. Johnson, N. Hilal, and H. A. Arafat, “Effect of dry-out on the fouling of PVDF and PTFE membranes under conditions simulating intermittent seawater membrane distillation (SWMD),” *Journal of Membrane Science*, vol. 438, pp. 126–139, 2013.
- [5] D. M. Warsinger, J. Swaminathan, E. Tow, and J. H. Lienhard V, “Theoretical framework for predicting inorganic fouling in membrane distillation and experimental validation with calcium sulfate, vol. 528, pp. 381 – 390, 2017.
- [6] A. Razmjou, E. Arifin, G. Dong, J. Mansouri, and V. Chen, “Superhydrophobic modification of TiO<sub>2</sub> nanocomposite PVDF membranes for applications in membrane distillation,” *Journal of Membrane Science*, vol. 415-416, pp. 850–863, 2012.
- [7] Z. Ma, Y. Hong, L. Ma, and M. Su, “Superhydrophobic membranes with ordered arrays of nanopiked microchannels for water desalination,” *Langmuir : the ACS journal of surfaces and colloids*, vol. 25, no. 10, pp. 5446–50, 2009.
- [8] L. Song, B. Li, K. K. Sirkar, and J. L. Gilron, “Direct Contact Membrane Distillation-Based Desalination: Novel Membranes, Devices, Larger-Scale Studies, and a Model,” *Industrial & Engineering Chemistry Research*, vol. 46, no. 8, pp. 2307–2323, 2007.

- [9] D. Warsinger, J. Swaminathan, and J. H. Lienhard V, “The effect of filtration and particulate fouling in membrane distillation,” in *Proceedings of The International Desalination Association World Congress on Desalination and Water Reuse, San Diego, CA, USA, Aug. 2015*.
- [10] H. Zhang, R. Lamb, and J. Lewis, “Engineering nanoscale roughness on hydrophobic surface—preliminary assessment of fouling behaviour,” *Science and Technology of Advanced Materials*, vol. 6, no. 3-4, pp. 236–239, 2005.
- [11] S. Lee and M. Elimelech, “Relating organic fouling of reverse osmosis membranes to intermolecular adhesion forces,” *Environmental science & technology*, vol. 40, no. 3, pp. 980–987, 2006.
- [12] G. Chen, X. Yang, R. Wang, and A. G. Fane, “Performance enhancement and scaling control with gas bubbling in direct contact membrane distillation,” *Desalination*, vol. 308, pp. 47–55, 2013.
- [13] M. Herzberg and M. Elimelech, “Biofouling of reverse osmosis membranes: role of biofilm-enhanced osmotic pressure,” *Journal of Membrane Science*, vol. 295, no. 1, pp. 11–20, 2007.
- [14] E. Hoek, J. Allred, T. Knoell, and B.-H. Jeong, “Modeling the effects of fouling on full-scale reverse osmosis processes,” *Journal of Membrane Science*, vol. 314, no. 1, pp. 33–49, 2008.
- [15] J. Gregor, E. Fenton, G. Brokenshire, P. Van Den Brink, and B. O’sullivan, “Interactions of calcium and aluminium ions with alginate,” *Water Research*, vol. 30, no. 6, pp. 1319–1324, 1996.
- [16] K. Kashima and M. Imai, *Advanced membrane material from marine biological polymer and sensitive molecular-size recognition for promising separation technology*. INTECH Open Access Publisher, 2012.
- [17] M. Krivorot, A. Kushmaro, Y. Oren, and J. Gilron, “Factors affecting biofilm formation and biofouling in membrane distillation of seawater,” *Journal of Membrane Science*, vol. 376, no. 1-2, pp. 15–24, 2011.
- [18] A. Asatekin and K. K. Gleason, “Polymeric nanopore membranes for hydrophobicity-based separations by conformal initiated chemical vapor deposition,” *Nano letters*, vol. 11, no. 2, pp. 677–686, 2010.

- [19] A. M. Coclite, R. M. Howden, D. C. Borrelli, C. D. Petruczok, R. Yang, J. L. Yagüe, A. Ugur, N. Chen, S. Lee, W. J. Jo, *et al.*, “25th anniversary article: CVD polymers: A new paradigm for surface modification and device fabrication,” *Advanced Materials*, vol. 25, no. 38, pp. 5392–5423, 2013.
- [20] M. Gupta, V. Kapur, N. M. Pinkerton, and K. K. Gleason, “Initiated chemical vapor deposition (iCVD) of conformal polymeric nanocoatings for the surface modification of high-aspect-ratio pores,” *Chemistry of Materials*, vol. 20, no. 4, pp. 1646–1651, 2008.
- [21] D. M. Warsinger, A. Servi, S. Van Belleghem, J. Gonzalez, J. Swaminathan, J. Kharraz, H. W. Chung, H. A. Arafat, J. Lienhard V, Combining air recharging and membrane superhydrophobicity for fouling prevention in membrane distillation, *Journal of Membrane Science*, vol. 505, pp. 241–252, 2016