1	A Stochastic Collision-Attachment-Based Monte Carlo Simulation of Colloidal
2	Fouling: Transition from Foulant-Clean-Membrane Interaction to Foulant-
3	Fouled-Membrane Interaction
4	Junxia Liu [†] , Tianyi Huang [†] , Ruibo Ji [†] , Zhihong Wang [†] , Chuyang Y. Tang * [‡] , James
5	O. Leckie §
6	
7	[†] School of Civil and Transportation Engineering, Guangdong University of Technology,
8	Guangzhou 510006, China
9	[‡] Department of Civil Engineering, The University of Hong Kong, Pokfulam, Hong
10	Kong
11	[§] Department of Civil and Environmental Engineering, Stanford University, Palo Alto,
12	California, U.S.A.
13	
14	
15	
16	*Corresponding Author:
17	Chuyang Y. Tang, <u>tangc@hku.hk</u> , +852 28591976
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23 **ABSTRACT**

The initial behavior of colloidal fouling is governed by foulant-clean-membrane 24 25 interaction (F-M), and its long-term behavior is determined by foulant-fouled-26 membrane interaction (F-F). Nevertheless, the transitional fouling behavior from F-M 27 to F-F has not been fully understood. This study reports a novel collision attachment 28 (CA)-Monte Carlo (MC) approach, with the stochastic colloid-membrane collision 29 events modelled by MC and the probability of colloidal attachment to the membrane determined by the interplay of flux and the energy barrier arising colloid-membrane 30 31 interaction (E_m for F-M and E_f for F-F). The long-term membrane flux remains stable for large E_f , whereas severe fouling occurs when both E_m and E_f are small. Our study 32 33 reveals the existence of a metastable flux behavior for the combination of large E_m but 34 small E_f . The time evolution of flux behavior and colloidal deposition pattern shows a 35 nearly constant flux for an extended period, with the high energy barrier E_m retarding initial colloidal deposition. However, accidental random deposition of a colloidal 36 37 particle could reduce the local energy barrier (towards the smaller E_{f}), seeding for 38 further colloidal deposition in its vicinity. This initiates an uneven patch-wise fouling 39 and eventually leading to a complete transition to F-F dominated behavior. The metastable period can be effectively extended by increasing the energy barrier (E_m or 40 41 E_{f}) or lowering flux, which provides important implications to membrane design and operation. 42

44 INTRODUCTION

Reverse osmosis (RO) and nanofiltration (NF) are widely used in desalination, $\frac{1}{2}$ water 45 reuse, $\frac{3}{4}$ and industrial wastewater treatment. $\frac{5}{6}$ However, their applications are often 46 47 restricted by membrane fouling. Colloidal particles, including organic macromolecules such as humic acid (HA), proteins, and polysaccharides,⁷ are important foulants in RO 48 and NF processes.⁸ It has been generally agreed that colloidal fouling is governed by 49 the interplay of hydrodynamic forces and foulant-membrane interactions. $\frac{8-10}{10}$ As a 50 notable example, Field et al. and Bacchin et al. $\frac{11-14}{1}$ studied the role of permeate flux 51 52 and formulated the concept of critical flux below which little fouling occurs. Solution chemistry $\frac{15-17}{10}$ and membrane properties $\frac{18}{19}$ are equally important via their influence 53 on foulant-membrane interactions.²⁰⁻²² For example, membrane surfaces are often 54 55 designed to be more hydrophilic to impart better antifouling performance, thanks to the suppressed foulant-membrane hydrophobic attraction.^{18, 19} 56

An interesting phenomenon in fouling is the transition from foulant-clean-membrane interaction (F-M) to foulant-fouled-membrane interaction (F-F). Although the initial fouling of a clean membrane is governed by F-M, it transits into F-F upon the complete coverage of the membrane surface by a foulant layer.^{8, 23} Several experimental studies performed under constant pressure conditions reveal that the water flux could remain relatively stable for an extended period (hours to days) before the occurrence of a substantial and continued flux decline.^{19, 24-27} This metastable behavior appears to be

65	more salient for a membrane with smoother and more hydrophilic surface compared to
66	other membranes with poorer antifouling properties. ²⁷ Considering a membrane with
67	an excellent antifouling surface, it would presumably maintain a relatively stable flux
68	behavior as a result of strong F-M repulsive interaction (i.e., greater energy barrier for
69	colloidal particle attachment). ⁸ Nevertheless, any accidental deposition of foulant at a
70	particular location would condition the membrane surface locally, potentially shifting
71	the localized interaction into a less repulsive or even attractive F-F interaction. ¹⁰ This
72	results in a reduction in the energy barrier to initiate the propagation of fouling, in a
73	way analogous to the role of nucleation to crystallization ^{$28, 29$} .

Despite its fundamental importance and practical significance with respect to 75 76 membrane design, process operation, and fouling control, a theoretical framework on such transitional fouling behavior is yet to be established. Due to the stochastic nature 77 of this transition, deterministic models based on traditional approaches (e.g., Navier-78 Stokes equation $\frac{30}{20}$ and force balance $\frac{22}{20}$ may not work. In the current study, we report a 79 80 Monte Carlo (MC)-based approach to describe the random movements of colloidal 81 particles. Although MC has been successfully applied to simulate membrane pore blocking, $\frac{31-33}{31-33}$ cake formation/structure $\frac{31}{34}$, $\frac{35}{35}$ and phase transition, $\frac{36}{31}$ it has been seldom 82 83 used to study the F-M to F-F transitional fouling behavior. To enable the simulation of the random deposition of colloidal particles on a membrane surface, we further adopt 84 the collision-attachment (CA) model, $\frac{37}{10}$ in which the frequency of particle collision 85

events is simulated by the MC approach and the probability for successful particle attachment for any given collision event is assessed based on the classical Boltzmann distribution theory³⁸. The coupled CA-MC approach is able to describe the fine details of the transitional fouling behavior, underpinning the theoretical existence of metastable flux and revealing its dependence on foulant-membrane interactions and operational conditions. Our findings provide important guidelines and new directions for fouling control.

93

94 THEORY

Membrane fouling can be idealized as a collision-attachment process: (1) colloidal 95 96 particles transport towards a membrane surface, leading to their collisions with the surface, and (2) the attachment of the colloidal particles onto the surface.^{37, 39, 40} Based 97 98 on the classical CA theory, the rate of colloidal particle deposition is given by the 99 product of the frequency of colloidal particle collision events and the probability of 100 successful attachment for each collision event. The CA theory has been widely adopted for modelling particle-particle attachment (e.g., in the field of coagulation $\frac{41}{42}$). It has 101 102 been recently adapted for modelling membrane fouling, recognizing a membrane surface as an infinitely large and stationary particle. $\frac{37}{7}$ To model the stochastic process 103 104 of colloidal particle transport and attachment during membrane filtration under constant 105 pressure, a two-dimensional (2D) CA-MC simulation is used in this study. Specifically, the CA-MC simulation involves the following key aspects: (1) colloidal particle 106

107	transport in the vicinity of the membrane surface (i.e., the MC simulation of the
108	transport and collision events); (2) colloidal particle attachment based on the interplay
109	between hydrodynamic conditions and foulant-membrane interaction (i.e., the CA
110	model); and (3) the response in permeate flux as a result of membrane fouling.

Since RO membranes are not designed to treat large particles (which are removed during the pre-treatment steps), this study only considers colloidal particles whose sizes are << 100 nm. In this case, the diffusion of the colloidal particles are mainly caused by their Brownian motion,^{8, 43} while the effects of inertial lift and shear-induced diffusion are negligible.^{9, 44, 45}

117

118 MC simulation of colloidal particle transport. A feed flow channel (with length L and boundary layer thickness δ) is evenly divided into *n* segments along its length 119 (Supporting Information S1.1). Colloidal particle transport is governed by the 120 convection in the transverse direction (caused by the crossflow velocity u in the x121 122 direction), the convection towards the membrane surface (caused by the localized velocity v in the -z direction), and their random diffusion (Supporting Information S1.2). 123 124 Therefore, the displacement of the colloidal particle in horizontal direction Δx and 125 vertical direction Δz within a short time step of Δt can be obtained by:

126
$$\Delta x = u\Delta t + \sqrt{2 \times 2D\Delta t}\sin\theta$$
(1a)

127
$$\Delta z = -v\Delta t + \sqrt{2 \times 2D\Delta t}\cos\theta$$
(1b)

128 where *D* is the diffusion coefficient that can be calculated by the Stokes-Einstein 129 relationship,⁴⁶ with the term $\sqrt{2 \times 2D\Delta t}$ accounts for the colloidal particle diffusion in 130 a 2D plane.⁴⁷ Furthermore, the term θ is a randomly generated angle (0 - 2π) for 131 modelling of the "random walk" of the colloidal particle, which resolves the random 132 walking distance into the horizontal and vertical components ($\sqrt{2 \times 2D\Delta t} \sin\theta$ and 133 $\sqrt{2 \times 2D\Delta t} \cos\theta$, respectively). It is worthwhile to note that the vertical velocity *v* can 134 be estimated according to the local water flux (Supporting Information S1.3).

135

136 **CA modelling of colloidal particle attachment.** The MC simulation can be used to 137 determine the collision events. With the membrane placed at z = 0, a collision is 138 recognized when the value of z turns to negative (Supporting Information S1.4). The 139 probability of successful attachment can be described by the Boltzmann distribution:³⁷

140
$$\frac{N_a}{N_b} = \frac{1}{\exp\left(\frac{\Delta E}{k_B T}\right)}$$
(2)

where N_a and N_b denote the fraction of attached and unattached colloidal particles, 141 respectively, for the collision events; k_B and T are the Boltzmann's constant and the 142 absolute temperature, respectively. The term ΔE is the difference in potential energy 143 144 between the attached vs. non-attached states. In the context of membrane fouling, ΔE 145 is contributed by (1) the energy barrier ΔE_b arising from foulant-membrane interaction, and (2) the hydrodynamic interaction caused by the drag force exerted on the colloidal 146 particle under the flux $J.^{37}$ Therefore, the probability of successful foulant attachment 147 α is given by: $\frac{37}{2}$ 148

149
$$\alpha = \frac{N_a}{N_a + N_b} = \frac{1}{1 + \exp\left(\frac{\Delta E_b - \beta J}{k_B T}\right)}$$
(3)

Eq. 3 shows that colloidal particles need to overcome the energy barrier ΔE_b in order to 151 152 achieve a successful attachment. The value of energy barrier is given by F-M interaction 153 $(\Delta E_b = E_m)$ for a clean membrane or F-F interaction $(\Delta E_b = E_f)$ for a membrane 154 completely covered by foulants (also see Supporting Information S1.5 for the treatment 155 of partially fouled membranes). The value of ΔE_b is highly dependent on colloidal characteristics, membrane properties as well as solution chemistry, $\frac{8}{2}$ and it can be 156 determined theoretically (e.g., using DLVO or XDLVO theory 48-51) or experimentally 157 (e.g., by interaction force measurement using atomic force microscope ^{21, 52-54}). A 158 greater ΔE_b resists particle deposition, i.e., leading to smaller probability of particle 159 attachment. The term βJ in Eq. 3 arises from the effect of hydrodynamics drag 160 161 interaction acting on the colloidal particle, where β is a proportionality coefficient that is governed by the drag coefficient.³⁷ A larger water flux J can provide greater permeate 162 163 drag to overcome the energy barrier, which promotes colloidal deposition.

164

As a result of a collision-attachment event, a colloidal particle may disappear from the feed stream and attach to the membrane surface. In this case, the deposited colloidal particle will modify the local permeability of the membrane (see the section "Permeate flux model") as well as change the localized energy barrier (see Supporting Information S1.5). In the event of an unsuccessful attachment, the colloidal particle will remain in

- the feed stream, in which case we assume an elastic bouncing (by resetting its new
 vertical position as |z|, see Supporting Information S1.4).
- 172

173 **Permeate flux model.** The membrane water flux J can be described by: $\frac{55}{2}$

174
$$J = \frac{\Delta P}{\mu (R_m + R_f)}$$
(4)

175 where ΔP is the applied pressure; μ is the solution viscosity; and R_m is the hydraulic 176 resistance of the clean membrane. The foulant resistance R_f is related to the number of

177 attached colloidal particles N_f and the specific cake layer resistance α_N :

$$178 \quad R_f = \alpha_N N_f \tag{5}$$

179

By combining the permeate flux model with the CA-MC approach, the stochastic process of colloidal transport and attachment as well as the membrane flux behavior can be modelled. The detailed simulation procedures are presented in Supporting Information S1.6, with the typical simulation parameters given in Table 1.

	Parameters	Value	Remarks
Dantiala	Particle size, d_p	2.0×10 ⁻⁸ m	Ref. <u>37</u>
Particle	Particle density, ρ	$1.5 \times 10^{6} \text{ g/m}^{3}$	See note ^a
properties	Particle mass, m_p	$ ho \pi d_p{}^3/6$	In g/#
	Absolute temperature, T	298.15 K (25°C)	Ref. <u>10</u>
Solution	Solution viscosity, μ	8.9 ×10 ⁻⁴ Pa.s	Ref. <u>10</u>
properties	Foulant mass concentration, C_b	5.0 g/m ³	Ref. <u>10</u>
	Particle number concentration, C_n	C_b/m_p	In #/m ³
	Applied pressure, ΔP	0.2-2.0 MPa	
	Crossflow velocity, u	0.2 m/s	Ref. <u>37</u>
Operation	Membrane intrinsic resistance, R_m	$4.5 \times 10^{13} \text{ m}^{-1}$	Ref. <u>37</u>
conditions	Specific cake resistance, α_N	$\alpha_f imes m_p$	See note ^b
	Water permeate flux, J	$\Delta P/(R_m+\alpha_N\times N_f)$	Eqs. 4 & 5
	Boltzmann's constant, k_B	$1.38 \times 10^{-23} J/K$	
Diffusion	Diffusion coefficient, D	$k_B T/3\pi\mu d_p$	Ref. <u>46</u>
	Unit energy, $k_B T$	$4.11 \times 10^{-21} \text{ J}$	
Energy	Energy barrier, ΔE_b	$0-12 k_B T$	See note ^c
	Drag energy coefficient, β	$4.19 \times 10^{-9} \times d_p$	Ref. <u>37</u>
~	Boundary thickness, δ	5.0×10 ⁻⁶ m	Ref. <u>10, 37</u>
Channel	Boundary length, L	5.0×10 ⁻⁵ m	
unnension	Length of each region, L_e	1.0 ×10 ⁻⁶ m	
Simulation	Time step, Δt	5.0 ×10 ⁻³ s	
time	Maximum particle lifetime, <i>t_{max}</i>	$D \times (\exp(\delta J/D) - 1)/J^2$	See Supporting Information S3

Table 1. Simulation parameters

186 Notes:

187 a. The value of m_p was adopted according to the previous reports on particle density for humic acid 188 (HA).⁵⁶

189 b. α_N (in m/#) was determined via α_f (also the specific cake resistance in m/g), and in this study $\alpha_f =$

190 3.0×10^{13} m/g was applied according to Ref. $\frac{37}{2}$

191 c. The energy barrier is given by F-M interaction (E_m) for a clean membrane, F-F interaction (E_f) 192 for a severely fouled membrane, and their hybrid during the fouling transition (see Supporting

193 Information S1.5).

194

195 MODEL VALIDATION

196 In this study, we validate the CA-MC simulation by (1) comparing the particle

197 concentration polarization (CP) behavior obtained from our simulation with a
198 theoretical model,³⁷ and (2) comparing the simulated flux behavior with experimental
199 data.

200

201 The degree of CP at a distance of *z* away from the membrane surface is given by (see 202 Supporting information S2 and Ref.³⁷):

203
$$\frac{C_z - \alpha C_m}{C_n - \alpha C_m} = \exp\left(\frac{J}{D}(\delta - z)\right)$$
(6)

where C_n , C_m and C_z are the particle concentration in bulk flow, near the membrane 204 205 surface and at a distance z away from the membrane, respectively. Compared to the classical CP model (e.g., $C_m/C_n = \exp(\delta J/D)$), $\frac{46.57}{5}$ Eq. 6 incorporates an additional term 206 αC_m to account for the loss of particles from the solution due to particle deposition on 207 208 the membrane (which is a depolarization mechanism often overlooked in traditional CP models^{46, 57-59}). Figure 1a presents the CA-MC model simulation (the discrete data 209 210 points) and the theoretical prediction based on Eq. 6 (the solid lines) at different values of attachment coefficient ($\alpha = 0, 0.01, 0.1$ and 1). In general, the model simulation 211 212 agrees well with the theoretical CP lines. Specifically, severe CP occurs at $\alpha = 0$ (no particle attachment, $C_m >> C_n$). Increasing the value of α leads to less severe CP due to 213 214 the removal of particles from the solution phase, with a significantly reduced CP even 215 for an α of merely 0.01. At $\alpha = 1$ (every collision leads to attachment), both the CA-MC 216 simulation and the theoretical model predict negligible CP. In Figure 1a, the scattering 217 of CA-MC simulation results is due to the random Brownian motion of individual colloidal particles, confirming the ability of our approach for capturing the stochasticnature of particle transport and deposition.

221	Figure 1b further compares the simulated water flux from the CA-MC approach with
222	the experimental results for an NF membrane fouled by HA under a wide range of
223	applied pressure (50 – 300 psi). In all cases, the simulation results agree well with the
224	experimental data. The simulation also correctly predicts the greater flux decline at
225	higher applied pressure (or higher initial flux), which is in good agreement with the
226	literature. ^{<u>8</u>, <u>10</u>, <u>27</u>}





230 Figure 1. Model validation of (a) concentration polarization and (b) water flux decline. 231 In part (a), the solid lines are based on Eq. 6. The scattered dots represent the simulated 232 data based on ten runs of CA-MC simulations under a constant water flux ($J = 25 \mu m/s$). 233 In part (b), fouling of an NF membrane by humic acid is simulated under constant pressure conditions (ranging from 50 to 300 psi, corresponding to initial flux of 10-50 234 μ m/s). The experimental data are obtained from Ref. ¹⁰, and the detailed experimental 235 conditions are documented in our previous reports. $\frac{10, 37}{20}$ Detailed simulation conditions 236 237 for part (b) can be found in Supporting Information S4. 238

239 SIMULATION RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Flux behavior. Colloidal fouling of a clean membrane is governed by the energy 240 barrier resulting from F-M interaction (E_m) , while that of a severely fouled membrane 241 242 is governed by the energy barrier resulting from F-F interaction (E_t). According to Eq. 3, a higher energy barrier can lead to a greatly reduced probability of attachment and 243 244 thus slower fouling. Figure 2a shows the flux behavior at a relatively high $E_f(11 \ k_B T)$ for a wide range of E_m (0-12 k_BT). With an initial flux of 20 μ m/s, no obvious flux 245 246 decline (<2%) occurred regardless of the value of E_m . Even for the case of $E_m = 0$ (i.e., 247 the clean membrane presents no energy barrier against colloidal fouling), the membrane surface will be coated by the foulant to result in a highly repulsive F-F interaction that 248 effectively slows down further foulant deposition, leading to a self-terminated fouling 249 250 behavior. One example of such scenario could be the use of a negatively charged membrane for filtration of positively charged foulant. For example, Wang et al. $\frac{60}{2}$ 251 252 observed a relatively stable long-term flux after an initial slight flux decline for the filtration of lysozyme by a NF membrane (NF270) thanks to the more repulsive F-F 253 254 interaction.







Figure 2. Effect of energy barrier and initial flux on flux behavior. (a) Effect of E_m at E_f = 11 k_BT and $J_0 = 20 \mu m/s$; (b) Effect of E_m at $E_f = 3 k_BT$ and $J_0 = 20 \mu m/s$; (c) Effect of

261 J_0 at $E_m = 11 \ k_B T$ and $E_f = 3 \ k_B T$. See other simulation parameters in Table 1.

263	Much severer flux decline occurs for a lower E_f value of 3 k_BT (Figure 2b). At a long
264	filtration time of 1000 min, the decline in water flux is largely independent of E_m (0-12
265	k_BT). This result agrees well with the existing literature: the long-term fouling behavior
266	is independent of membrane surface properties once the surface is masked by foulant. ^{$\underline{8}$} ,
267	$\frac{10}{10}$ Nevertheless, our simulation clearly shows that the initial fouling behavior is strongly
268	dependent on E_m , with a greater E_m favorable in retarding fouling. A metastable flux
269	behavior appears for $E_m > 9 k_B T$. For example, at $E_m = 12 k_B T$, stable flux can be
270	maintained initially before the occurrence of an obvious decline at around 220 min.
271	This metastable period decreases for smaller E_m values and becomes barely noticeable
272	with a value of 17 min at $E_m = 9 k_B T$. These results underpin the critical importance of
273	developing antifouling membranes with more repulsive F-M interaction, which
274	prevents the fouling of clean membranes by minimizing the attachment coefficient α
275	(Eq. 3). Our results are also consistent with a recent experimental study reporting stable
276	flux for a superhydrophilic NF membrane over 60 h (attributed to strong repulsive acid-
277	base F-M interaction), yet the metastable period was less than 1h for other membranes
278	with less repulsive interactions. ¹⁹ In Figure 2b, the flux decline accecelates after the
279	metastable period. This phenomenon can be explained by the conditioning of the
280	membrane surface by the deposited foulant, eventually transitioning into a F-F
281	dominated behavior. ⁸ $\frac{10}{10}$ Consequently, fouling in the later stage becomes nearly
282	independent of membrane surface properties. $\frac{10}{22}$ In the current study, the metastable

fouling behavior resulting from the combination of high E_m and low E_f is somewhat analogous to homogenous crystalization. The slow nucleation in crystalization (due to the need to overcome the energy barrier for creating new surfaces) can result in metastable conditions without crystal formation for supersaturated solutions.²⁵

287

288 The metastable fouling behavior is also strongly dependent on the initial water flux J_0 . Figure 2c shows the flux behavior for various values of J_0 at fixed $E_m(11 \ k_B T)$ and E_f 289 (3 k_BT). Reducing J_0 from 25 to 15 μ m/s not only makes fouling less severe but also 290 291 greatly extends the metastable period from 30 min (at 25 µm/s) to approximately 310 mins (at 15 μ m/s). At lower J₀ of 10 and 5 μ m/s, membrane flux remains stable over 292 the entire simulation period of 1000 min. The critical importance of initial water flux 293 294 has been well documented in the literature: higher water flux accelerates convection of 295 colloidal particles, promotes more severe CP, and excerts greater drag effects towards the membrane surface.⁸, <u>10</u>, <u>27</u>, <u>37</u>, <u>40</u>, <u>61</u>, <u>62</u> The current study reveals that the metastable 296 behavior is governed by the interplay between E_m and J_0 , with a longer metastable 297 period obtained at greater E_m (Figure 2b) and lower J_0 (Figure 2c). According to Eq. 3, 298 a combination of large E_m and low J_0 ensures a low probility of colloidal particle 299 attachment to the clean membrane, slowing down the membrane conditioning and thus 300 301 extending the metastable period.

302

303 Figure 2c also shows a flux crossover behavior. For the flux curve started with the

304 highest J_0 of 25 µm/s, fouling is so rapid that it quickly transits into a F-F dominated region. This flux curve crosses over with one for $J_0 = 15 \ \mu m/s$ at around 200 min 305 306 (indicated by the arrow in Figure 2c). At this crossover point, the two fouling curves 307 have the same flux, but the one started with $J_0 = 25 \,\mu\text{m/s}$ continues with a rapid rate of 308 flux decline (due to the dominance of F-F interaction with $E_f = 3 k_B T$) and the one with 309 $J_0 = 15 \,\mu\text{m/s}$ remains metastable (due to the dominance of F-M interaction with $E_m =$ 310 11 k_BT). Similar crossover also happens for $J_0 = 10 \,\mu\text{m/s}$ at longer duration. The current 311 study reveals that the use of a higher initial flux results in an earlier transition from F-312 M ($E_m = 11 \ k_B T$) to F-F ($E_f = 3 \ k_B T$). This transition reduces the membrane's ability to resist further foulant deposition, which is responsible for the flux crossover behavior. 313 314 Therefore, excessively high water flux should be strictly prohibited to avoid premature 315 occurrence of F-M to F-F transition.

317 Metastable Period. To achieve a better understanding of the metastable period, we 318 analyze a wider selection of flux-interaction energy combinations. Figure 3 plots the 319 metastable period t_{mp} as a function of E_m and J_0 , with the discrete data points obtained from the CA-MC simulation. At each given J_0 , the logarithm of the metastable period 320 (ln t_{mp}) appears to be linearly dependent on the F-M interaction energy E_m , with a 321 322 doubling in t_{mp} for every increase of E_m by 0.8-0.9 k_BT . Meanwhile, the metastable 323 period increases at lower J_0 (doubling in t_{mp} for every decrease of J_0 by approximately 324 3 μ m/s). Although the metastable period has the strongest dependence on E_m and J_0 , we

also found that it has a weak dependence on E_f (with a larger E_f favoring extended metastable period).

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Figure 3. Effects of energy barrier and initial flux on the metastable period. A threshold flux decline rate of 1‰ per minute is applied. The scattered dots represent the simulation results based on the CA-MC model. Simulation conditions: $E_m = 6-12 k_B T$, $E_f = 0-6 k_B T$, $J_0 = 10-40 \mu m/s$, and other conditions are shown in Table 1. The solid lines are fitting lines given by $\ln t_{mp} = 0.8 E_m/k_B T + 0.2 E_f/k_B T - 0.174 J_0 - \ln(0.00159 J_0) - 4.79$, with t_{mp} in min and J_0 in $\mu m/s$ (R²=0.9945). The theoretical basis of the fitting lines is provided in Supporting Information S5.

336

Transitional fouling behavior. The CA-MC simulation is capable of resolving the fine details of transitional fouling behavior. Figure 4a-d presents the evolution of the foulant distribution pattern over time for different combinations of E_m and E_f at a fixed J_0 of 20 µm/s, with the color scale representing the area number density of deposited colloidal particles (i.e., the number of particles deposited in each simulation grid with an area of 0.1 µm² in the current study). As expected, the combination of high E_m (11 k_BT) and high E_f (11 k_BT) results in very slow particle accumulation (Figure 4a), thanks 344 to the strongly repulsive F-M and F-F interactions. It takes approximately 400 min to reach an average density of 100 perticles per grid (#/grid), and the number is only about 345 346 250 #/grid over the entire 1000-min simulation (Figure 4e). Lowering E_m to 3 k_BT while 347 keeping E_f at 11 k_BT leads to an accelerated initial particle deposition (Figure 4b), 348 reaching 100 #/grid in approximately 2 min owing to the weaker F-M repulsion. 349 Nevertheless, the subsequent deposition of colloidal particles becomes much slower 350 (slightly over 400 #/grid) at 1000 min, Figure 4e), as a result of the rapid conditioning 351 of the membrane surface by the deposited foulant and the transition to a more repulsive 352 F-F interaction. The current study reveals that a high E_f ensures long-term stable membrane operation regardless of the value of E_m (Figure 2a and Figure 4a,b), 353 underpinning the critical importance of pretreatment and adjustment of water 354 chemistry^{22, <u>60, 63, 64</u>} for practical membrane operations. In contrast, the combination of 355 low E_m (3 k_BT) and low E_f (3 k_BT) results in almost instaneous particle deposition as 356 357 well as severe long-term fouling (Figure 4d), reaching approximately 100 #/grid in the 358 first min and 37,000 #/grid by the end of the 1000-min simulation (Figure 4e).

The combination of high E_m (11 k_BT) and low E_f (3 k_BT) presents an interesting scenario (Figure 4c). Owing to the highly repulsive F-M interaction, the initial particle deposition is rather slow (Figure 4e), in good accordance with its initial metastable water flux (Figure 2b). However, a sharp transition occurs during 90 - 200 min (Figure 4e), accompanied with greatly accelerated particle deposition with the transition of

365	strongly repulsive F-M to an unfavorable F-F interaction. Indeed, its initial particle
366	deposition behavior is nearly identical to that for the case of $E_m = 11 \ k_B T$ and $E_f = 11$
367	k_BT (indicating a F-M dominated behavior), while the long term behavior is nearly
368	identical to that for the case of $E_m = 3 k_B T$ and $E_f = 3 k_B T$ (suggesting a F-F dominated
369	behavior). In addition, the transitional window of 90 - 200 min in Figure 4e also agrees
370	well with the ending of the metastable period (90 min) for the corresponding flux curve
371	in Figure 2b.

373 A closer examination of the foulant distribution pattern in Figure 4c reveals that it is 374 highly non-uniform (particularly during the transitional period) compared to other cases 375 (Figure 4a, b, d). This difference is also reflected by the larger standard deviation in 376 Figure 4e (represented by the shading) for the combination of high E_m and low E_f (see 377 further discussion in Supporting Information S7). During membrane filtration, colloidal 378 particles are transported towards the membrane surface under the permeate drag, which is resisted by the energy barrier⁸. While the clean membrane with $E_m = 11 k_B T$ is highly 379 380 antifouling, an accidental deposition of foulant particle would modify the localized surface properties. For the case of $E_f \ll E_m$, it leads to reduced energy barrier locally, 381 382 which serves as a seed to promote further particle deposition in the vicinity of the 383 existing foulant. Consequently, a patch-like "colonization" behavior is expected, where 384 the fouled patches serve as hot spots to accelerate further particle deposition (also see Supporting Information S6). It is worthwhile to note that the time and location for the 385

386 occurrence of the patches are highly random due to the stochastic nature of particle 387 transport and attachment. However, each patch will grow laterally over time to expand 388 their coverage over the membrane surface, leading to an eventual complete coverage of 389 the entire membrane. Upon this completion of the F-M to F-F transition, the energy 390 barrier becomes entirely governed by E_{f} , rendering the later stage of fouling more 391 uniform (Figure 4c and Figure 4e).









Figure 4. The role of energy barrier on the evolution of particle deposition. Parts (a-d) 396 presents the particle deposition pattern over time for (a) $E_m = 11 \ k_B T$ and $E_f = 11 \ k_B T$; 397 (b) $E_m = 3 k_B T$ and $E_f = 11 k_B T$; (c) $E_m = 11 k_B T$ and $E_f = 3 k_B T$; (d) $E_m = 3 k_B T$ and $E_f = 3 k_B T$ 398 3 k_BT . The color scale represents the area number density of deposited particles in 399 number of particles per simulation grid (i.e., the number of particles deposited in each 400 membrane segment with $0.1\mu m^2$ in area). An initial flux J_0 of $20\mu m/s$ is used in the 401 simulation, and other simulation parameters are given in Table 1. Part (e) presents the 402 average area number density as a function of time for different combinations of E_m and 403 E_f values. The solid lines represent the average values. The corresponding shadings 404 represent the standard deviations, which can be used to characterize the uniformity of 405 foulant deposition. For the case of $E_m = 11 k_B T$ and $E_f = 3 k_B T$, the deposition is so non-406 407 uniform during the transition such that some regions are heavily covered by colloidal 408 particles while other regions are nearly free of particles. Accordingly, the coefficient of variation (i.e., the ratio of standard deviation over the average value, also see 409 410 Supporting Information S7) for the spatial distribution of particle deposition can be 411 greater than 1, causing the shading of the curve to cross the horizontal axis.

To further resolve the transitional fouling behavior, Figure 5 presents the evolution of particle accumulation, energy barrier, and attachment coefficient over time at different initial flux values for the case of high E_m (11 k_BT) and low $E_f(3 k_BT)$. At J_0 of 10 µm/s, particle deposition is very slow and the membrane remains largely clean with the exception of a few minor foulant patches towards the end of the 1000-min filtration period. This is in good agreement with its extended metastable period (Figure 2c). Increasing J_0 to 15 µm/s results in accelerated particle deposition, which is

420	accompanied with a drop of energy barrier from 11 k_BT (resulting from E_m) to 3 k_BT
421	(resulting from E_f) and a corresponding shift in the attachment coefficient. Indeed, the
422	shape of these patterns largely mirror each other. Further increase in J_0 results in an
423	earlier occurrence of transitional behavior in particle deposition, energy barrier, and
424	attachment coefficient (Figure 5), in good agreement with their shorter metastable
425	period (Figure 2c).





Figure 5. Evolution of particle accumulation, energy barrier, and attachment coefficient over time at different initial flux values. Simulation conditions: $E_m = 11 k_B T$ and $E_f = 3 k_B T$; other parameters given in Table 1.



434	captures the stochastic transport and attachment of foulant particles. Our simulation
435	provides the theoretical basis for the metastable flux behavior under the condition of
436	high E_m and low E_f , with the metastable period greatly extended at increased energy
437	barrier (E_m and E_f) and lower flux. This study provides critical implications for
438	membrane design and process operation. In view of the great impact of water chemistry
439	on both F-M and F-F, pretreatment of problematic feed water provides effective
440	protection to RO and NF membranes. Although a large E_f can effectively minimize
441	fouling, its value is often constrained by the characteristics of the feed water (e.g.,
442	foulant type and properties). For applications prevailed with unfavorable E_f values, the
443	development of membranes with high E_m values is essential to achieve antifouling and
444	to maintain a stable operation over extended periods. ¹⁹ Nevertheless, it is important to
445	realize that even the best antifouling membrane may fail when it is subjected to
446	excessive flux (Figure 2c), due to the premature transition from F-M to F-F. Therefore,
447	operating below the threshold flux $10, 11, 13, 37$ is critical to prevent such premature
448	membrane failures. In practice, moderate flux is often applied (e.g., 12-17 Lm ⁻² h ⁻¹ for
449	seawater desalination and 12-45 $\text{Lm}^{-2}\text{h}^{-1}$ for bracksih water treatment). ² The
450	combination of moderate flux and large E_m is of great practical significance to extend
451	the metastable period and thus to minimize the required cleaning frequency (e.g., into
452	months or even years).

454 Our study also reveals the critical role of initial foulant "colonization" in the

modification of the localized energy barrier (Figure 5). Therefore, upon the initial 455 occurance of foulant patches, timely cleaning is critical to prevent severe propogation 456 457 of further particle deposition and to restore the unfavorable F-F interaction to the more 458 repulsive F-M interaction. While existing membrane cleaning studies generally focus 459 on cleaning chemistries and choices of methods (e.g., air scouring, backflushing, and chemical cleaning^{63, 65, 66}), future studies also need to emphasize the timing of cleaning 460 461 in relation to the metastable fouling behavior and the onset of the F-M to F-F transition. Our study also implies the critical importance of early fouling detection for effective 462 463 management of membrane operation and cleaning.

464

465 **ASSOCIATED CONTENT**

466 Supporting Information

467 The Supporting Information is available free of charge on the ACS Publications website.

468 S1. CA-MC model; S2. Concentration polarization model; S3. Derivation of maximum

469 particle lifetime; S4. Parameters used for model validation; S5. Derivation of

470 metastable period; S6. Colloidal particle deposition during fouling transition; S7.

471 Uniformity of colloidal particle deposition; S8. Role of cake compressibility on fouling;

472 S9. MATLAB code for the CA-MC simulation.

473

474 **AUTHOR INFORMATION**

475 Corresponding Authors

- 476 *E-mail: tangc@hku.hk. Phone: +852 28591976.
- 477 **ORCID**
- 478 Junxia Liu: 0000-0002-5856-3856
- 479 Chuyang Y. Tang: 0000-0002-7932-6462
- 480 Notes
- 481 The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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