1	Effects of Coupling Multiple Factors on CaCO₃ Fouling in
2	Agricultural Saline Water Distribution Systems
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7	Abstract: Saline water is an alternative resource that could be used to meet agriculture irrigation
8	demands. Fouling, particularly that caused by calcium carbonate (CaCO ₃), often occurs in saline
9	irrigation water distribution systems, and severely restricts the utilization of saline irrigation water.
10	So far, water acidification is the common practice for avoiding CaCO ₃ fouling. However, this
11	approach is often ineffective and regularly contributes to environmental pollution. This study
12	investigated an affective practice to overcome CaCO3 fouling issues by regulating shear stress,
13	temperature and ions in saline irrigation water irrigation systems. The effects of different near-wall
14	shear stress at 0.05, 0.20, 0.40 and 0.60 Pa, coupling with temperature of 10, 20 30 and 40 °C and
15	cations Mg^{2+} and Fe^{3+} were analyzed. Results demonstrated that the CaCO ₃ fouling rate was
16	linearly increased at initial shear stress, while decreased at higher shear stress, and the highest
17	fouling rate was observed at 0.40 Pa, ranging between 21.4%-80.3%. The coupling of temperature
18	and cations with shear stress significantly ($p < 0.05$) affected the fouling growth rate at each shear
19	stress. The differences in fouling rate (fitting curves slopes $k \ge 1$) among different shear stress get
20	larger with increasing temperature, while they decreased and increased with the addition of Mg^{2+}
21	and Fe ³⁺ , respectively, when compared with pure solution of CaCO ₃ . Refinement analysis showed
22	the largest unit-cell volume and lattice parameter of calcite at shear stress of 0.40 Pa, resulting in a
23	significant effect on distribution of fouling particle sizes and morphologies. Moreover, some
24	anti-fouling measures were further proposed based on the formation behavior of CaCO3 fouling.
25	These findings might provide a new perspective to control CaCO ₃ with potential implications for
26	sustainable saline water management for irrigation.



28 **1. Introduction**

29 Fresh water scarcity is the major constraint for global food security and sustainable development 30 of human society. Agricultural irrigation accounts for 69% of global freshwater consumption 31 (FAO, 2016), but its demand it is forecasted to increase by 19% till 2050 (Liu et al., 2020). 32 Widespread saline water is an alternative resource that could fulfill agriculture irrigation demands 33 (Zhang et al., 2019). However, the high concentrations of cations and anions present in saline 34 water often produce fouling in saline irrigation water distribution systems (SIWDS) (Zhang et al., 35 2016). Calcium carbonate (CaCO₃) is a predominant fouling sediment that accounts for 36 52.4%-94.1% of total fouling in SIWDS (Li et al., 2019; Ma et al., 2020), leading to numerous 37 deleterious issues, i.e. decrease the system hydraulic efficiency (Li et al., 2019), pipeline surface 38 corrosion (Hasson et al., 2019), partial or complete clogging of irrigation emitters (Alsadaie et al., 39 2019), negative effects on crop yield production (Ngan and Habimana, 2020), as well as increases 40 both capital and operational costs of irrigation systems (Zhou et al., 2017). So far, the CaCO₃ 41 fouling in SIWDS is often prevented by strong acids injection to lower the water pH (Peragón et 42 al., 2017). However, these applications brought severe drawbacks such as soil environmental 43 hazards (Song et al., 2019), and crop yield reductions (Khoshravesh et al., 2018). Therefore, 44 investigating an acceptable physical anti-fouling operating conditions in SIWDS are key 45 challenges.

Recent studies began to characterize the hydrodynamic operating conditions, which play an
important role in minimizing fouling on pipeline surfaces (Kaya et al., 2014). Shear stress is an
important hydrodynamic operating condition with a direct effect on CaCO₃ fouling (Freeman et al.,

49	1990; Jaffrin et al., 2004; Paz et al., 2012). Several studies have explored the influence of
50	near-wall shear stress (Hou et al., 2020), duration and frequency of shear stress (Chan et al., 2011),
51	and constant shear stress (Rochex et al., 2008; Cowle et al., 2019) on fouling. These studies have
52	clearly demonstrated a significant correlation between the shear stress and fouling process.
53	However, the latest research advancement have beenmainly focused on the characteristics of
54	biofouling formation. The impacts of near-wall-shear stress on CaCO ₃ fouling in SIWDS are still
55	elusive. It is well understood that shear stress significantly alter the fouling growth (Helalizadeh et
56	al., 2000), fouling nucleation mechanism (Yang et al., 2011), restructuring and breakage of
57	agglomerates (Soos et al., 2008), and morphologies and sizes distribution of crystal (Sonwai, &
58	Mackley, 2006). However, CaCO ₃ fouling process is not only depending on shear stress, but fluid
59	temperature and ionic composition also plays a critical role on fouling growth. Thus, fouling
60	process is influenced by mass-transfer (Ca ²⁺ and HCO ₃ ⁻ ion) (Hasan et al., 2012),
61	surface-integration (Pääkkönen et al 2012), and sometimes the combination of both (Wang et al.,
62	2016). These experimental parameters should be operated together (Korchef, A. 2019) which is
63	therefore essential to explicitly understand the fouling mechanism. Furthermore, the formation of
64	CaCO ₃ fouling is related to the unit-cell parameters, such as cell-volumes, crystal sizes, and lattice
65	parameters (Zhang et al., 2015). The development of Rietveld refinement technique has made it
66	possible to investigate the characteristics of crystal, which might expose the potential interaction
67	mechanism of shear stress and CaCO ₃ fouling.
68	Thus, consider the fouling behavior in SIWDS under actual field conditions, CaCO3 fouling

was cultured on drip irrigation pipelines under the conditions of different near-wall shear stress,
temperature and ions. The objectives of this work were to (1) investigate the CaCO₃ fouling

mechanism under different near-wall shear stresses and operating conditions (temperature and added ions); (2) determine the control threshold of near-wall shear stresses for mitigating CaCO₃
fouling; and (3) elucidate the impacts of near-wall shear stresses on the lattice parameters of CaCO₃ fouling and the potential action mechanisms of shear stresses.

75 **2. Materials and methods**

76 2.1 Shear stress and water source preparation

An experiment was conducted applying four types of near-wall shear stress (0.05, 0.20, 0.40 and 0.60 Pa), which were in the domain of laminar flow in SIWDS and were comparable with previous studies (Hou et al., 2020). The applied shear stress was coupled with water temperature (10, 20, 30 and 40 °C), and two types of cations (Fe³⁺ and Mg²⁺). Accumulatively the experiment had a total of 48 treatments, being their specific arrangements summarized in Table S1.

82 The experiment of CaCO₃ fouling was carried out with an accelerated CO₂ dissolved 83 technique. At first, the CaCO₃ solution was prepared by dissolving 3.0 g of solid CaCO₃ in 10 L of 84 deionized water until no solids were lift in solution. CO₂ gas was continuously fed into the 85 solution overnight until Ca^{2+} , CO_3^{2-} , HCO_3 - were prepared. A total of three solutions were 86 prepared i.e., pure solution of CaCO₃ (CC), FeCl₃ (FC) and MgCl₂ (MC). During the experiment, 87 the concentrations of the solutions were maintained as 0.2 g/L, and pH at a steady state of 5.5-5.7. 88 Hereafter, to avoid any possible effects of left-over solids in solutions that might act as seed 89 material and might affect the CaCO₃ fouling, the solutions were filtered through a 0.22 µm 90 membrane filter before being introduced to the test devices.

91 **2.2** Shear stress apparatus configuration and operation

92 An accelerated scale method using an annular reactor (AR) device, previously developed by Hou 93 et al. (2020), was used. A total of 48 identical AR devices were used for fouling. The AR consisted 94 of water storage bucket, a peristaltic pump, latex tubes, and a simulator as depicted in Fig. 1. The 95 detailed description of AR device dimensions and operating conditions are detailed in Table S2. 96 The device was composed of two exterior and interior concentric rotating cylinders. The rotation 97 speed of internal cylinder was controlled by a servo head pump, generating desired near-wall shear 98 stress at the internal surface of exterior stationary cylinder. The share stress simulation 99 methodology is briefly explained in Supplementary materials section 1.1. Applied temperatures 100 were carefully controlled by putting the AR devices in temperature-controlled incubators. A total 101 of 8 incubators were set up, and each incubator consisted of 6 ARs.

102 Every individual AR was equipped with 24 polyethylene (PE) slides (pieces of drip irrigation 103 laterals used for irrigation water distribution in agriculture fields) having dimensions of 19×1 cm, 104 which were fixed at internal surface of exterior cylinder. The physical characteristics of PE were 105 measured as roughness surface (Sq) 145 nm \pm 6.1 nm, maximum height (Sy) 1504 nm \pm 15.3 nm, 106 and specific surface area (Sdr) $0.18\% \pm 0.02\%$. Thereafter, the arrangement and fixation of PE 107 slides against the interior surface were done as described by Hou et al. (2020). Peristaltic water 108 pumps with latex tubes and 10.08 ml/min flow rate were used to gently feed the prepared water 109 solution from buckets to AR devices, and recirculate to solution buckets. The temperature of 110 solutions was checked on daily basis, using a thermometer (type: O-264WT; range: -10 -300 °C; 111 accuracy: 1 °C between -10 and 100 °C; manufacturer: Dretec, Japan). Meanwhile, AR operated

- 112 10 h per day (8:00 a.m. 2:00 p.m., 3:00 p.m. 7:00 p.m.), lasting the experiment 300 h (30 days).
- 113 Samples were collected after every 50 h, by randomly selecting 3 PE slides, which were cut out

from each AR.

115

#Fig. 1 approximately here#

116 2.3 Sampling and characterization methods

117 2.3.1 Fouling dry weight extraction

118 The three selected PE pieces from each device at every sampling event were taken to analyze the 119 fouling dry weight. The collected samples were dried in an oven for 20 min at 60 °C. A high precision electronic weight balance (accuracy 10^{-4} g) was used to weight the samples (with fouling 120 121 substances on it). The pieces were then placed in zip-lock bags, and 20 mL of deionized water 122 were added to detach the fouling substances using an ultrasonic cleaner (manufacturer: Chaowei; type: GVS-10L; working rate of power: 240 W; frequency: 60 Hz). Hereafter, the clean and dried 123 124 PE pieces (without fouling substances on it) were weighed again, being the difference between 125 two weights was characterized as fouling dry weight.

126 **2.3.2** Fouling characterization and evaluation

127 At the end of experiment, the phase composition and structure of fouling particles were identified 128 by X-ray diffractometry (XRD). The samples were vacuum-dried at -15 °C and scanned using a 129 X-ray diffractometer (manufacture: Bruker, Germany; type: D8-Advance). The basic test 130 conditions of the test process were: voltage 40 kV, current 40 mA, Cu target, and wavelength $\lambda =$ 131 1.5406 Å. The XRD patterns were recorded in the scanning range of $2\theta = 15-80^{\circ}$ using a small 132 angular step of 2 θ equal to 0.017° and a fixed counting time of 4 s. The obtained polycrystalline diffraction patterns were then ameliorated by Rietveld refinement using the General Structure
Analysis System (GSAS) (Larson and Von Dreele, 1994) to calculate the composition distribution
(unit-cell volume & lattice parameters) of the obtained crystals. Finally, the obtained XRD map
was analyzed using the supporting Topas software (Bruker _AXS, 2009) to determine the relative
proportions of composed CaCO₃ polymorphs.

138 2.3.3 Apparent morphology of fouling particles

The CaCO₃ fouling particles sizes and morphologies were examined using a scanning electron microscope (SEM) (manufacturer: Japan Jeol, model: JSM-6510A), at an operating voltage of 20 kV after sputtered gold film and magnification ranging from 400× to 15,000×. The aspect ratios of particles size distributions were obtained by analyzing a minimum of 100 particles, using Morphologi G2 (Malven) instrument and its software.

144 **2.4** Statistical analysis

The statistical analyses were carried out using SPSS (ver. 22.0 IBM, USA). Paired T-test was applied to determine significant difference among pair of shear stress treatments (*p.* adjusted < 0.05). Linear regression and analysis of variance (ANOVA) were applied to quantify the effect of each single and coupling factors. Structural equation modeling analysis (SEMA) was performed using SPSS AMOS v.24 (AMOS, IBM, USA) to analyze the direct and indirect effect of applied shear stress, temperature, and ions, on content of calcite and aragonite, and fouling total dry weight.

152 **3. Results and analysis**

153 **3.1 Effects of near-wall shear stress on fouling dry weight**

154

155 development: growth induction (nucleation) phase (0-50 h), rapid growth phase (50-200 h) and 156 stability phase (200-300 h) (Fig. 2). The fouling growth augmented with increase of shear stress 157 from 0.05-0.40 Pa, while it decreased at 0.60 Pa. As observed from Fig. 2, the highest fouling dry 158 weight at 0.40 Pa ranged between 0.18-1.83 mg/cm², which was 71.3%-80.3%, 35.6%-56.3% and 159 21.4%-54.2% higher than 0.05, 0.20 and 0.60 Pa, respectively. Meanwhile, significant (p < 0.05) 160 differences were found among all shear stress treatments at each temperature and ions (Table S4). 161 The significance analysis (Table 1) showed that the coupling of shear stress with water 162 temperature and ions significantly affected (p < 0.05) the fouling growth rate. 163 In order to estimate the coupling effect of temperature and ions on fouling growth at shear 164 stress, linear correlations between 0.05 Pa and other shear stresses were performed (Fig. S1). 165 Significant linear correlations ($R^2 > 0.65$; p < 0.05) were obtained at each temperature and ion. 166 The increased temperature positively increased fouling growth rate characterized by the larger 167 slopes $(k \ge 1)$ of the fitting curves (Table S5). For instance, k values at 0.40 Pa compared with 0.05 168 Pa at 10 °C reached to 3.22-4.28, while these were increased to 3.93-4.96, 4.41-5.41 and 4.77-5.41, showing that the fouling rate was increased by 81.9%-86.3%, 73.1%-79.1% and 67.5%-79.1% at 169 170 20, 30 and 40 °C, respectively. Similarly, the k variation among different ions was analyzed at 171 each temperature. The k variation at 0.40 Pa in CC ranged from 3.89-5.40, while FC tend to 172 slightly increase and reached 4.28-5.71. However, MC were found to comparatively declined the k 173 values reached 3.22-4.77 at 10-40 °C, respectively.

Overall, the growth of CaCO₃ fouling under each operating condition was divided in three phase

174	On other hand, the different shear stresses significantly affected the fouling growth rate at
175	each temperature and ions (Table S6). The slope (k) of fouling growth rate increased with greater
176	shear stress. Taking the example of k values at 40 °C when compared with 10 °C under 0.05 Pa
177	reached 2.54-3.48, which were increased to 3.85-5.10, 3.56-5.23 and 4.27-6.23 with shear rates of
178	0.20, 0.40 and 0.60 Pa, respectively. Besides, the k values under different shear stress in FC varied
179	noticeably, increasing from 3.48, 5.20, 5.28 and 6.24 for 0.05, 0.20, 0.40 and 0.60 Pa, respectively.
180	#Fig. 2 approximately here#

181 **3.2** Effects of near-wall shear stress on fouling phase change

182 Fig 3 shows X-ray powder diffraction and Rietveld refinement patterns (obtained for the samples 183 at the end point (300 h) of system operation) and the mineral component proportions. The X-ray 184 results revealed that the calcite was the most stable phase under each treatment since it contributed 185 as 81.6%-93.3%, while aragonite ranged between 12.4%-24.9%. The T-test analysis (Table S4) 186 showed that the quantity of calcite and aragonite minerals were significantly (p < 0.05) different 187 among different shear stress in each operating condition, except for aragonite between 0.2 and 0.4 188 Pa. Among the treatments, the maximum amount of calcite was obtained at 0.40 Pa, ranging 189 between 0.02-1.54 mg/cm² and being 25.8%-75.9%, 35.1%-82.6%, and 4.7%-66.3%. higher than 190 0.05 Pa, 0.20 Pa and 0.60 Pa, respectively (Fig 3 d, e, f). The coupling of shear stress with 191 temperature and ion types presented a significant effect (p < 0.01) on calcite growth (Table 1). The content of calcite showed linear increasing trend with increase of temperature at each shear stress. 192 193 However, addition of ions obviously changed the growth of calcite at each shear rate. For instance, 194 the lowest content of calcite at constant temperature (40 °C) ranged between 0.20-1.06 mg/cm² and

199	#Fig. 3 approximately here#
198	79.3%-77.9% higher than with CC and FC, respectively (Fig 3 (g, i)).
197	increased considerably reaching 0.03-0.08 mg/cm ² (Fig 3 (h)), which was 14.7%-66.1%, and
196	CC and FC, respectively (Fig 3 (d, f)). Moreover, the content of aragonite in presence of MC
195	was obtained with MC (Fig 3 (e)), which was 12.7%-34.1%, and 32.7%-36.8% lower than that for

- 200 #Table. 1 approximately here#
- **3.3 CaCO₃ particles size and morphology evaluation**

The variation of CaCO₃ fouling particles sizes and apparent morphologies were determined under
each shear stress, in presence/absence of ions and at different temperatures. The average largest
particle sizes across the treatments were obtained at 0.40 Pa, ranging between 1.35-7.45 μm (Fig.
4 (a, b, c)). The fouling particle sizes increased positively with higher temperatures. Considering a
constant shear stress of 0.4 Pa, the largest crystals were found at 40 °C sized 6.18, 1.39 and 6.67
µm for CC, MC and FC, respectively.

208 Fig. 5 shows the SEM images of CaCO₃ fouling particles obtained at 40 °C (40 °C were taken 209 as example, the detailed SEM images at 10, 20 and 30 °C are summarized in (Fig. S2). The SEM 210 images clearly agreed with the XRD results, indicating that CaCO₃ particles typically contain 211 dominant proportion of calcite and small quantity of aragonite. The apparent morphologies of 212 CaCO₃ particles exhibited a certain difference with the different treatments. Those particles in CC 213 and FC at initial shear stress (0.05 and 0.20 Pa) were the mixture of calcite (Fig. 5 (a, b)) and 214 aragonite (Fig. 5 (i, j)), but with increasing of shear rates (0.40 & 0.60 Pa) pure crystals of calcite 215 were typically obtained as large particles of euhedral pseudo hexagonal platelets exhibiting

- dense-tight-thick layers (Fig. 5 (c, d & k, l)). On other hand, a higher quantity of aragonite with a
 smaller mono-crystalline, loose and distorted morphologies was obtained in MC (Fig. 5 (e, f, g, h)).
- . . .
- 219 #Fig. 4 approximately here#
- 220

#Fig. 5 approximately here#

221 3.4 Variation of crystal unit-cell and lattice parameters

222 The XRD Rietveld refinement analysis was performed to determine the variation in CaCO₃ 223 crystals structure and sizes affected by shear stress, temperature and ions (Fig 6). The X-ray 224 results showed that the two phases acquired of CaCO₃ fouling particles were calcite and aragonite. 225 Therefore, Rietveld refinement analysis was performed with calcite space group of (R-3C (167))226 and aragonite (Pmcn (62)) (Crystallography Open Database (COD)). The calcite unit-cell volume 227 (Cv) was 367.47, and lattice parameters were a = 4.98 Å, b = 4.98 Å and c = 17.05 Å, aragonite 228 were 227.03 Å; a = 4.96 Å, b = 7.96 Å and c = 5.741 Å. Fig 6 shows that, the average R_{wp} 0.003-0.04, and x^2 values 0.13-0.43 were recorded for all 229 230 samples. The unit-cell volume of calcite exhibited largest expansion patterns at 0.40 Pa. Whereas, 231 it increased Cv by 3.57-9.73, 2.44-5.62 and 1.13-3.24, when compared to 0.05, 0.20 and 0.60 Pa, 232 respectively. Meanwhile, lattice parameters at 0.40 Pa were also increased by a axis 0.001-0.003, 233 0.0009-0.001, and 0.0003-0.001 Å, b axis 0.0008-0.002, 0.0009-0.002, and 0.0004 -0.0008 Å and 234 c axis 0.04-0.11, 0.02-0.07, and 0.008-0.04 Å compared to 0.05, 0.20 and 0.60 Pa, respectively. 235 Calcite lattice parameters were found significantly (p < 0.05) different among different shear 236 stress (Table S8). However, the Cv, and lattice parameters (a, b and c) of aragonite were almost 237 kept unchanged and most of the treatments were found non-significantly (p > 0.05) different.

238

#Fig. 6 approximately here#

239 3.5 Structural equation modeling analysis (SEMA)

240 This study also performed structural equation modeling analysis (SEMA) to further validate the 241 hypothesis (Fig. 7). Consistent with experiment results, shear stress showed the strongest direct 242 effects on calcite growth ($\beta = 0.46$; p < 0.01) and presented weak correlation with aragonite ($\beta =$ 243 0.22; p < 0.05). At same time, ions also showed the strongest correlation with both calcite and aragonite ($\beta = 0.53, 0.58; p < 0.01$). However, temperature was in a weak and non-significant 244 245 correlation with calcite and aragonite ($\beta = 0.23, 0.06; p < 0.05$), respectively. Matching with 246 results of coupling effect of shear stress with temperature and ion on fouling growth slope, the 247 inter-correlation among these three factors was found significant. Finally, both calcite and 248 aragonite directly affected the total weight of CaCO₃ fouling with a significant correlation (β = 249 0.73, 0.27; *p* < 0.01).

250

#Fig. 7 approximately here#

251 **4. Discussion**

4.1 Effects of different operating conditions on CaCO₃ fouling growth

A set of experiments were designed to systematically determine the influence of varying operating conditions i.e., near-wall shear stress, water temperature and ions on fouling growth in SIWDS. The obtained results demonstrated that the growth of CaCO₃ fouling significantly (p < 0.05) depended on shear stress, temperature and ions (Fig. 2). Some studies postulated that the higher shear stress (cross-section flow velocity) sometimes linearly increases (Andritsos et al., 1997), or

258	decreases fouling growth rate (Crittenden et al., 2015; Lee et al., 2013). The CaCO ₃ fouling is
259	mainly controlled by mass-transfer, surface-integration, or both mechanisms (Mwaba et al., 2006).
260	In this study, the effects of applied near-wall shear stress on CaCO ₃ fouling presented a quadratic
261	correlation ($R^2 > 0.90$, $p < 0.05$) for each temperature and ion types (Fig. S3). This indicated that
262	the fouling growth rate was positively increased at initial shear stress from 0.05 to 0.40 Pa and
263	then there was a remarkable transition from positive to negative at higher shear rate of 0.60 Pa.
264	The highest fouling rate at each temperature was obtained when the near-wall shear stress and
265	flow velocity were 0.40 Pa and 0.24 m/s, respectively (Fig. S3). Hereafter, the fouling rate was
266	significantly decreased when the shear rate reached 0.60 Pa and flow velocity was 0.41 m/s. These
267	observations indicated that CaCO3 fouling process was likely the mass-transfer controlled before
268	reaching 0.40 Pa, hereafter changed to activation-controlled at higher shear rate of 0.60 Pa.
269	However, these results were quite different from those reported by Helalizadeh et al. (2000), who
270	applied flow velocities between 0.5 and 2 m/s, and found that the fouling process was
271	mass-transfer controlled when the flow velocity was between 0.40 and 0.80 m/s, Hereafter the
272	mechanism was activation controlled when flow velocity increased to 0.80-1 m/s, which could be
273	probably explained by the high temperature (50-90 °C) and ions solution concentration (0.25-1
274	mg/L) applied in the experiment. Wang et al. (2016) applied a flow velocity range of 0.06-0.80
275	m/s, and explained this phenomenon as the laminar boundary layer was increased linearly until
276	0.06-0.30 m/s, increasing the fouling average growth rate. However, when velocity was increased
277	above 0.30 m/s, the turbulence flow increased the shear stress on surface of pipeline and fouling
278	removal rate, as well as shortened the fluid residence time at the wall surface, thus, reducing the
279	probability of the depositing material to adhere to the surface (Pääkkönen et al., 2012).

280 The effects of different temperature on fouling growth demonstrated that the increase in 281 temperature linearly increased CaCO₃ fouling growth. Similar results were reported by Hasan et al. 282 (2012), who found the higher the solution temperature the lower the fouling resistance. They 283 further explained that the wall temperature directly increases with the increase of solution 284 temperature, which increases the supersaturation at wall surface. The increased wall temperature 285 decreases the inverse-solubility of CaCO₃, increasing the supersaturation at the wall surface and 286 eventually further leads to increase fouling rate (Wang et al., 2016). In addition, the Rietveld 287 refinement analysis demonstrated significant expansion of unit-cell volume and lattice parameters 288 of calcite with increase of temperature at each shear stress (Fig. 6). These results were also in a 289 good agreement with previous reports (Chang et al., 2017).

290 Furthermore, the nature of CaCO₃ fouling growth was not obviously changed under FC but 291 slightly increased the fouling rate when compared to CC. The growth of CaCO₃ fouling regardless 292 of shear stress and temperature were significantly (p < 0.05) inhibited under MC when compared 293 with CC and FC. However, MC strongly promoted the formation of aragonite at each shear stress and temperature. The effect of Mg²⁺ has been reported briefly by several authors (Martos et al., 294 295 2010; Rodriguez-Blanco et al., 2012), suggesting that the dehydration energy difference between Ca²⁺ and Mg²⁺ ion is responsible for the inhibition of the CaCO₃ precipitation. The Rietveld 296 297 refinement of X-ray diffraction demonstrated that the lattice parameters of calcite were exclusively 298 changed with added ions. Thus, lattice parameters of calcite were slightly increased in CC and FC. Ma et al. (2016) postulated this occurrence, as doped Ca^{2+} probably would be introduced to the 299 300 host lattice of CaCO₃ crystal in CC or FC, thus causing the expansion of lattice parameters. 301 However, lattice parameters in MC were comparatively lower than those in CC and FC. This was 302 due to the substitution of the Ca^{2+} ions in $CaCO_3$ by the Mg^{2+} since the atomic ion radius of Mg^{2+}

303
$$(1.598 \text{ Å})$$
 is smaller than that of Ca²⁺ (1.974 Å) (Mejri et al., 2014).

304 The XRD diffraction results and SEM images indicated that the CaCO₃ fouling was a mixture 305 of calcite and aragonite minerals. However, with the exception of MC, calcite minerals were the 306 predominant phase under each condition (Fig. 3). The total fouling particle size of calcite was 307 positively increased with shear stress and temperature (Fig. 4). Furthermore, the calcite crystal 308 cell-volume and lattice parameters showed obvious expansion with increase of particle size. 309 Several previous studies have demonstrated the significant (p < 0.05) positive or negative 310 correlation between crystal size and lattice parameters (Mhadhbi et al., 2010; Sheng et al., 2010). 311 Our results were in strong agreement with results previously reported (Mhadhbi et al., 2010; Qi et 312 al., 2005). The calcite crystals were tightly compact and smooth surfaces with very small quantity 313 of aragonite particles was found at higher shear rates. According to Daoyin et al., (2018), the 314 higher shear stress results in breakup of aggregates, since the stable size of aggregates decreases 315 with increasing shear stress.

316 4.2 Coupling effects of temperature and ions on shear stress fouling

This study also investigated the coupling effects of water temperature and added ions on CaCO₃ fouling at different near-wall shear stress. The coupling of shear stress at each temperature demonstrated that the fouling rate was positively increased at initial shear stress, while decreased at higher shear stress rates. This could be attributed to increased convective heat transfer, where increasing flow velocity decrease the wall temperature. Pääkkönen et al. (2012) found that increased velocity from 0.20 to 0.40 m/s reduced the wall temperature by 15 °C, which strongly 323 describe the variation in fouling rate. On the other hand, the coupling of varied temperature at 324 shear stress and added ions fouling rate demonstrated that the rise in temperature from 10-40 °C, 325 linearly increased CaCO₃ fouling growth (Table S5), which has been discussed earlier. Similarly, 326 the coupling effects of added ions on fouling growth at each shear stress were estimated (Table 327 S7). The coupling of shear stress with added ions indicated that the fouling growth rate was 328 reduced by higher shear stresses. This was due to greater mass transfer boundary layer thickness at 329 lower flow velocities, therefore molecular diffusion strongly affected fouling growth. However, 330 the higher flow velocities decreased the boundary layer thickness and fouling process was 331 changed from mass-transfer to reaction-controlled. Therefore, water temperature and ions addition 332 are two important factors that should be taken into consideration when applying shear stress to 333 alleviate CaCO₃ fouling.

4.3 Engineering implications for anti-fouling in SIWDS

335 This study clearly demonstrated that CaCO₃ fouling was significantly affected by near-wall shear 336 stress under different operating conditions i.e., different temperature and ions. It is important to 337 evaluate the engineering implications to further validate the results for successful application in 338 SIWDS. The average thickness of CaCO₃ fouling reached its maximum at a shear stress of 0.40 Pa 339 and at a velocity of 0.24 m/s, while the higher shear stress 0.60 Pa at 0.41 m/s decreased its 340 growth rate. Previous studies (Li et al., 2015; Puig-Bargués and Lamm 2013) suggested that better 341 sediments removal rate is achieved when flushing velocity was around 0.45 m/s. Considering 342 these results, this study strongly recommends the shear stress equal or above 0.60 Pa should be 343 maintained in SIWDS. In addition, the emitter complex labyrinth channels create discontinuity in

344 flow velocity (Liu et al., 2016) and, consequently, create high-speed and low-speed flow zones, 345 which significantly alter the solid particles deposition rate at inlet, mid and end parts of emitter 346 flow channels (Xiao et al., 2020). We suggest a careful design to minimize the dead areas (regions 347 that allow suspended particles to settle and deposit) in SIWDS and to avoid shear forces around 348 0.4 Pa on emitter surfaces. On other hand, the increasing temperature linearly increased the 349 fouling growth rate. Therefore, evening irrigation events are recommended to the crop fields when 350 using SIWDS particularly in summer season or in hot weather areas, Dong et al. (2016) reported that night drip irrigation decreased the soil shallow root zone temperature by 0.6 °C, promoted 351 352 plant height, and crop yield by 2 % and 10 %, respectively. Furthermore, the coupling of water 353 temperature with shear stress demonstrated the higher shear stress promoted the convective heat 354 transfer at each temperature thus reducing the rate of fouling growth. It is suggested the higher 355 shear stress should be used in SIWDS during high temperature irrigation events. Our results also demonstrated that Fe³⁺ increased the fouling growth rate when compared with Mg²⁺. The coupling 356 of shear stress with ions indicated that, the higher shear stress reduced the boundary layer 357 358 thickness in each added ion, which resulted in decrease of the fouling growth rate. Therefore, we 359 suggest that, firstly, when using high saline irrigation water (which contains CO_3^{2-} , PO_4^{3-} , SO_4^{2-} , SiO₃²⁻, OH⁻, Fe³⁺, Fe²⁺, Mn²⁺, Ca²⁺, S²⁻, etc.) application in SIWDS integrated with fertigation, 360 361 particular attention should be paid to the concentration of foreign added ions through fertilizers. 362 Secondly, the results demonstrated the calcite fouling was easier formed at 0.40 Pa, indicating that 363 the shear stress should be maintained at 0.20 Pa or 0.60 Pa. However, due to the main function of 364 an emitter is energy dissipation, if the shear stresses were controlled at less than 0.2 Pa, the flow in emitter channel would be almost in low-speed regions. In emitters with good energy dissipation, 365

the lengths of emitter channels are mostly very long, the flow indexes are very high, hydraulic performance is comparatively reduced, and have higher manufacturing costs (Feng et al., 2018). Therefore, we recommend the higher flow velocity (shear stress ≥ 0.60 Pa) should be maintained in SIWDS synergistically improving the emitter hydraulic performance and alleviate the calcium carbonate precipitation.

In summary, the present experimental results pave the way for studies of various aspects of fouling, including, effect of near-wall shear stress, temperature gradients, and added ions on controlling of CaCO₃ fouling in SIWDS. The results suggested that higher shear stress could be effective in mitigating CaCO₃ fouling. Nonetheless the meaningful findings were acquired in this study to greater insight on near-wall shear stress in SIWDS, the issues of integrated application of saline irrigation and fertilizer in SIWDS, sufficient number of cations should be considered in future studies.

378 **5.** Conclusion

379 The main conclusions derived from the experiment carried out in the present study are:

Overall, the fouling growth rate under different near –wall shear stress shows significant
 (p < 0.05) differences under each operating condition of temperature and added ions. The highest
 fouling rate ranged between 0.30-1.83 mg/cm² and was observed at 0.40 Pa, which was
 59.3%-80.3%, 37.6%-56.3% and 21.4%-50.2% higher than 0.05, 0.20 and 0.60 Pa, respectively.

384 2. Temperature and added ions significantly (p < 0.01) affected CaCO₃ fouling rate under 385 each shear stress. The fouling growth fitting curves (k) slope difference between 0.40 and 0.05 Pa 386 linearly increased with increase of temperature 20-40 °C. Similarly, these slopes varied 387 significantly with addition of ions, where FC tend to increase, while MC decline the fouling **388** growth slope when compared with CC.

389 3. The XRD and SEM observation revealed that the CaCO₃ fouling in CC and FC were
390 predominantly caused by calcite minerals, while the content of aragonite became more stable in
391 MC. Crystal apparent morphologies in FC exhibited as dense-tight-thick layered structure, and
392 MC was observed with loosed and distorted structures.

393 Acknowledgements

- 394 The authors are grateful for financial support from the National Key Research Project
- 395 (2017YFD0201504), the National Natural Science Foundation of China (51790531, 51621061).
- 396 The authors also gratefully acknowledge the insightful comments and suggestions of all reviewers

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571	Captions for Tables in the Paper
572	Table 1; Effects of near-wall shear stress, temperature and ions on content of CaCO ₃ fouling dry
573	weight, calcite and aragonite.

Table 1. Effects of near-wall shear stress, temperature and ions on content of CaCO₃ fouling dry

575

Verschler	Fouling dry weight		Calcite		Aragonite	
variables	MS	F (p value)	MS	F (p value)	MS	F (p value)
S	2.75	835.6*	1.07	478.7*	0.34	259.2 ^{n.s.}
Т	1.64	409.8*	0.85	306.1*	0.56	601.2 ^{n.s.}
Ι	2.29	191.0*	0.54	250.3*	0.46	977.7*
$S \times T$	0.86	88.9*	0.48	44.5*	0.21	22.48*
S × I	0.58	38.0*	0.53	30.6*	0.36	98.7*
Τ×Ι	0.43	17.3*	0.47	15.5*	0.22	197.6*
$\mathbf{S}\times\mathbf{T}\times\mathbf{I}$	0.23	2.15 ^{n.s.}	0.14	2.19 ^{n.s.}	0.54	12.9 ^{n.s.}

weight, calcite and aragonite.

576 Note; S, shear stress; T, temperature; I, ions and MS, mean square error. (not significant, n.s, p > 0.05; *p < 0.05)

1	Captions for Figures in the Paper
2	Fig. 1 Schematic layout of annular reactor (AR) used for CaCO ₃ fouling.
3	Fig 2. Dynamic variation of CaCO ₃ fouling as function of operation time in different treatments.
4 5	Fig 3. XRD diffraction pattern, Rietveld refinement results and variation of total content of calcite and aragonite.
6	Fig 4. Variation of fouling crystals mean sizes among shear stress in each treatment.
7	Fig. 5 Variation in apparent morphologies of CaCO ₃ fouling in different treatments.
8	Fig 6. Variation of crystal unit cell-volume (Cv) and lattice parameters (a-axis, b-axis and c-axis) in
9	different treatments.
10	Fig. 7. Structural equation modelling analysis (SEMA), showing the pathway regularity of shear stress,
11	temperature and impurity ions on CaCO ₃ fouling.



Fig. 1 Schematic layout of annular reactor (AR) used for fouling; a, Temperature-controlled complete apparatus; b,
Single AR; and c, Actual condition of AR. 1, Power motor; 2, Flange joint plates; 3, Gasket seal; 4, Connecting bearing; 5,
Motor shaft; 6, Steel disc; 7, Exterior cylinder; 8, Interior cylinder; 9, Sample frame; 10, Water outlet; 11, Water inlet; 12,
Bolts; 13, Fixed bearing; 14, Potential transformer; 15, Servo motor; 16, Distribution box; 17, Heat emission hole; 18,
Electric wire; 19, Sample sink.



20 Fig 2. Dynamic variation of CaCO₃ fouling as function of operation time in different treatments; CC (a, b, c,







Fig 3. XRD diffraction pattern, Rietveld refinement results and variation of total content of calcite and
aragonite; Rietveld refinement results (a, b, c); the total quantity of calcite (d, e, f); and total quantity of aragonite (g, h, i);
in ions treatments CC; MC and FC. The X-ray diffraction and Rietveld refinement results presented here are taken as an
example obtained at shear stress of 0.40 Pa and 40 °C.



30 Fig 4. Variation of fouling crystals mean sizes among shear stress in each treatment; CC (a); MC (b), and FC

31 (c).

27



34 Fig. 5 Variation in apparent morphologies of CaCO₃ fouling in different treatments; CC; (a, b, c, d); MC (e, f, g,

- 35 h); FC (i, j, k, l), and shear stress 0.05, 0.20, 0.40, and 0.60 Pa. The orange and green circles indicate the presence of calcite
- 36 and aragonite.









Fig. 7. Structural equation modelling analysis (SEMA), showing the pathway regularity of shear stress, temperature and impurity ions on CaCO₃ fouling; Note; $\chi^2 = 16.972$ (p = 0.001), Degrees of freedom (df) = 3, Root mean square error of approximation (*RMSEA*) = 0.038, with probability of a close fit = 0.02. Blue and red arrows represent positive and negative relationship, Numbers on the arrows are standard path coefficients (β). Width of arrows indicate the strength of relationship. n.s p > 0.05; * p < 0.05.