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Polymer Membranes – Fractal Characteristics and Determination of Roughness Scaling Exponents

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Abstract

Surface roughness is a parameter widely reported when characterising membrane surfaces, due to its effect on membrane properties, such as fouling / biofouling and wetting. However, a surface does not have a single roughness value, rather the magnitude of measured roughness is dependent on the length scales of measurement. Here, we report findings from roughness measurements of several commercial filtration membrane surfaces using atomic force microscopy. All membranes showed self-affine behaviour at scan sizes below approximately 10 μm , where the magnitude of root mean squared roughness, R_q , was described by both the scan length and an exponential factor, H . Furthermore, we show that values of H can be obtained from power spectra of AFM images using a relatively simple approach. Using values of H and R_q obtained at a single scan size from image power spectra allowed us to estimate, within reasonable error, R_q values at other scan size, below a cross-over length. Above this crossover length roughness scaling was linear, rather than exponential for the membranes studied.

Keywords

Polymer membrane, roughness, atomic force microscopy, roughness scaling, surface characterization

Highlights

- Study of effect of measurement length on roughness values for membrane surfaces
- Polymer membranes behave as self-affine surfaces described by exponential factor
- Values of H calculated from power spectra of images at single scan sizes
- Estimation of roughness at various length scales using values from single scan sizes

1. Introduction

Polymer membranes are increasingly being used in water treatment applications [1], including production of potable water from saline sources [2, 3], treatment of domestic wastewater [4, 5], reuse and recycling of industrial wastewater [6-8] and treatment and reuse of produced water from oil extraction [9-11]. Whilst the membrane processes used in these applications have many advantages over other processes, fouling and biofouling of these membranes remains the major barrier to improved process and cost efficiency [12-14]. Fouling can take the form of inorganic scaling, particulate pore blocking, formation of cake layers on the membrane surface, and growth of bacterially derived biofilms. All of these forms of fouling serve to decrease membrane flux, leading to increased operating costs, due to higher trans-membrane pressure required to maintain the required flow rate, down-time and chemicals required for membrane cleaning and reduced membrane operating life.

~~Generally, membrane fouling can be classified as reversible or irreversible, depending on whether it is removable by simple process procedures, such as backwashing, or can only be removed by the use of chemical treatments, if at all, respectively. Alternatively, it can be considered as external (i.e. surface) or external depending on the locus of foulant material. Typically, external fouling is largely reversible. Finally, fouling can also be categorised depending on the nature of the fouling material – i.e. biofouling, organic, inorganic and colloidal fouling.~~ As roughness is a parameter describing surfaces, external fouling is of major relevance, and may be caused by any of the types of foulant material. During fouling it is possible, or even likely, that several types of fouling will occur simultaneously. Several mechanisms have been proposed for fouling growth and initiation, including adsorption of soluble compounds to the membrane surface, cake layer formation through the surface deposition of solids, and pore blocking. Biofouling involves a mixture of surface modification by dissolved substances and surface-surface interactions involving biological particles. Initial attachment of foulants and build-up of fouling layers on the membrane surface may be described by surface interactions between the foulants and surface molecules, usually described by Derjaguin-Landau-Verwey-Overbeek (DLVO) or related theories which incorporate acid-base, van der Waals and electrostatic double layer forces [15-17]; filtration based mechanisms, where permeate drag forces overcome diffusion-originating back

transport causing material to adhere to the surface / fouling layer [18-20]; and chemical potential mediated mechanisms in gel layers [21-23], where a Flory-Huggins mechanism [24] contributes to an increased specific resistance of the fouling layer. Membrane fouling has been extensively covered in the literature with a number of comprehensive reviews on the subject available [25-28].

The surface roughness of membranes, and indeed any other surface, plays a major role in modulating interactions between the surface and surrounding medium, and hence plays a major role in fouling and biofouling [29-37]. This is primarily due to roughness changing the surface area and texture available to be fouled [38], as well as affecting the water contact angle [39, 40], acid-base interactions [33] and also the surface zeta-potential [41]. The majority of studies on the effect of roughness on fouling have shown that a smoother surface tends to be less afflicted by fouling than a rougher surface due to the lower surface area available for foulant attachment. However, the relationship between roughness and fouling can be complex, and for fouling of surfaces by particulates the interplay between the size of surface peaks and troughs on the membrane and the size of particulates and their surface features can greatly affect the interaction area available [42-46]. For instance, Rabinovich et al [47] determined that even a small amount of surface roughness could decrease particle adhesion compared with a perfectly smooth surface. In addition, roughness measurement of membranes has been used to assess changes to membrane surfaces during surface modification [48-52] or fouling layer growth [53-55]. For this reason surface roughness is of great interest when characterizing membranes, particularly if those membranes are being developed to show resistance to surface fouling.

Surface roughness can be assessed by both physical and optical means. One popular technique for characterizing surfaces and quantifying their surface roughness is atomic force microscopy (AFM) [56-60]. This technique directly visualizes the surface at high resolution, building up a topographic map of the surface, where a number of parameters, including root mean square roughness, R_q and roughness average, R_a , can be directly measured from the height profile of the surface. For instance the R_q can be calculated from the following formula [56]:

$$R_q = \sqrt{\frac{1}{mn} \sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^n Z^2(x_i, x_j)} \quad (1)$$

where $Z_{i,j}$ is the height of an individual pixel and m and n are the number of pixels in the x and y directions. Essentially, the R_q represents the standard deviation in heights of the image pixels. However, one issue with the use of these and similar parameters is that they are not scale invariant, i.e. as the size of the scan is increased the size of the measurement increases [57-60]. Within the field of membrane development, measurements usually are made at a small number of scan sizes and the values reported. This makes it difficult to compare roughness characteristics measured by different groups and in different publications if the scan ranges at which the values obtained are not identical. This is not an AFM specific problem, but is a fundamental property of roughness itself, with scaling an issue for other methods of surface roughness determination [61-64]. Clearly, parameters such as R_q and R_a , which only contain information about surfaces obtained in the z -direction, when reported alone are insufficient to fully characterize membrane surface roughness or to allow comparison between reported measurements taken at different length scales. To overcome this issue additional parameters need to be reported in research publications to allow this scaling effect to be properly accounted for.

A number of commonly occurring surfaces have fractal characteristics, having a statistical self-similarity as the scale at which they are observed is altered [65, 66]. Such surfaces are described as being self-affine, and typically the scaling behaviour can be described by an exponential factor. Much of the study of such surfaces have been in the fields of crack propagation and growth of metal films, as well as some other materials. Recently it has been reported by both Zhang et al [67] and Feng et al [32] that polymer membrane surfaces with random roughness can be modelled using fractal functions. In addition, Wong et al [41] examined surface roughness of a wide variety of membranes and found that their behaviour could be described using fractal geometry, with linear growth of logarithmic plots of roughness versus scan size.

Determination of Roughness Exponent

It has long been noted that self-affine surfaces have roughness characteristics which scale according to a power law [68]. For a self-affine surface the relationship between R_q and the length scale of measurements follows the following relationship [69, 70]:

$$R_q = a.L_0^H \quad (2)$$

where H is the roughness exponent (often referred to as the Hurst exponent), L_0 is the measurement length and a is an arbitrary constant.

For AFM scans, when measurements have been made across a suitably large range of scan sizes then the roughness exponent can be extracted from the slope of a plot of the natural logs of R_q versus L_0 [70] :

$$H = \frac{d \log R_q}{d \log L_0} \quad (3)$$

Whilst this is easily achievable, to image several repeats at a large number of individual scan sizes can be particularly time consuming. This is likely to render derivation of the roughness exponent impractical when there are a large number of membrane samples to be examined and compared such as during membrane development.

H is closely connected to the fractal dimension, D_f [65, 71]:

$$H = D - D_f \quad (4)$$

where $n = 3$ for a surface (i.e. $2 < D_f < 3$) [63] and 2 for a time series etc., such as a PSD plot ($1 < D_f < 2$) [72]. From the power spectral density plot of an AFM image the following equation may be fitted to the linear part of the power curve, allowing the derivation of the fractal dimension of the surface [69]:

$$D_f = \frac{5}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \frac{d \log p(f)}{d \log f} \quad (5)$$

where $p(f)$ is the power spectrum of the surface profile and f the spatial frequency, or wavenumber. The roughness exponent can then be obtained from the fractal dimension using equation 4. According to Milman et al, significant errors may be present in the power spectrum due to statistical fluctuations, so analysis of the integrated power spectrum, $P(f)$ [69] can yield a value of the fractal dimension which may be less prone to noise induced error, where the integrated power spectrum is:

$$P(f) = \int_f^{\infty} p(f).df \quad (6)$$

By fitting the following relationship to the integrated power spectrum, for frequencies higher than the inverse correlation length, the fractal dimension can be obtained [69, 73, 74]:

$$D_f = 2 + \frac{1}{2} \frac{d \log P(f)}{d \log f} \quad (7)$$

Other methods exist which can determine the fractal dimension of a surface, and hence H , including cube or box-counting, the area-perimeter method and the divider method. However, Schmittbuhl et al compared a large number of different methods to determine H from simulated surfaces with known values of H , and found that calculation of H from power spectra are the most reliable, generating smaller calculation derived errors [75]. Previous researchers have used cube-counting methods to determine fractal dimension of surfaces [41, 76]. However, our previous experience using cube counting was not very satisfactory [57], with fractal dimensions showing unacceptable variation at different scan sizes.

In this work we report investigations into the surface roughness of several unmodified commercially available membranes to determine and compare the roughness exponent and R_q values obtained both from the natural log plot of R_q versus L_0 as well as from the power spectra of individual height images. **A-The** primary aim was to investigate whether values of H derived from the power spectrum of individual topographic scans taken at a single scan size would allow accurate prediction of R_q values at other scan sizes. H values were calculated using both non-integrated (equation 5) and integrated power spectra (equation 7). This was because little extra effort was needed in calculating both than either singly, and to provide a comparison of which method would allow a more reliable calculation of H .

2. Materials and Methods

All measurements were carried out using a Multimode AFM with Nanoscope IIIa controller (Bruker) using manufacturer supplied software. All measurements were made using tapping mode in air with RTESPA tapping mode probes (Bruker), with a nominal imaging tip radius of curvature of 8 nm, nominal resonant frequency 300 kHz and nominal spring constant of 40 N

m⁻¹. All probes were cleaned in a plasma asher system using laboratory air to remove organic contaminants prior to use (Femto Plasma System, Diener Electronics, Germany). All images were obtained as 1 Hz scan rates, except for 80 µm scans where the scan rate was adjusted to 0.5 Hz. Images were continuously monitored for quality, with feedback parameters and amplitude set-point adjusted to optimise surface tracking, whilst minimising noise. Tapping frequency was set at 5% below the resonant frequency of the cantilever, as determined during cantilever tuning. Images were carefully inspected for artefacts showing blunted or [otherwise](#) damaged tips, with tips immediately replaced if such artefacts occurred.

Accuracy of information obtained in the z-direction is crucial for roughness measurements [77]. To ensure accuracy of data obtained, the instrument z-movement was calibrated prior to experiments by scanning on a calibration standard (VGRP-15M, Bruker AXS) containing regular pits of known depth (180 nm). Instrument parameters were then adjusted so that measured parameters were identical to known values for the calibration grid. The same calibration grid was used to calibrate x, y distances and image x,y orthogonality. Fast fourier transforms (FFTs) of images were examined in instrument software. The radial symmetry of FFTs allows determination of the extent to which a surface is isotropic, as suggested by Jacobs et al [78].

Commercially available polymer membranes were used in this study. Three were nanofiltration membranes: Filmtech type NF270, NF90 (Dow Corning) and Spiritech TFC-SR3 (Koch); and one was a reverse osmosis membrane: Filmtech BW30 (Dow Corning). All four membranes were of a thin film composite structure with a polyamide active layer. Measurements were made on membranes as supplied by the manufacturer, with no surface preparation undertaken apart from immobilisation on a metal sample disk using double sided adhesive tape. Commercial membranes when received in their dry state typically contain substances intended to preserve their structure, which are washed out during filtration and subsequent drying will lead to pore collapse. As a ~~result~~[result](#), it was decided to take the membranes as supplied without prior flushing with water.

Measurements were carried out at 10 different locations on each membrane surface, selected arbitrarily. For measurements on each membrane area a 1 x 1 µm scan was carried out first and then the scan size was ramped up sequentially in the order 1, 2, 5, 10, 20, 40 and 80 µm. For each locus the full range of imaging sizes were obtained, beginning at the smallest scan

size (1 μm) and sequentially increasing until the maximum scan size (80 μm) had been recorded. This was to ensure that as much of the area scanned as possible was pristine, minimizing any potential effects of wear on the surface due to repeated scans. Captured data was processed using the Nanoscope Analysis 1.8 offline analysis software (Bruker). All images were corrected using a 2nd order flattening function to remove offset and sample tilt before any further analysis was carried out. Image power spectral density (PSD) was obtained using a 2D isotropic computation and the data was exported in text files for curve fitting in Excel.

Power spectra for each height image were obtained using the instrument software and computed as 2D isotropic spectra using instrument software. Linear fits to the power spectra of each individual image were made and equation 5 used to calculate the fractal dimension, D_f , from the slope, allowing the roughness exponent, H_a , to be obtained using equation 4. Integrated power spectra, $P(f)$, (equation 6) were also plotted and linear fits were made to obtain the slope. Fits were made to the portion of the data at frequencies higher than the inverse of the correlation length for each image, as determined by the instrument software. Equation 7 was then used to calculate values of D_f from the slope, which were then used to calculate roughness exponent values, H_b using equation 4.

From the values of H_a and H_b calculated from the power spectra at individual scan sizes it was possible to estimate R_q values for other scan sizes. This was done by estimating values of a from R_q , H and L_0 values for a discrete scan length and then using equation 2 to generate R_q values for other scan lengths. This was carried out using data obtained from scan sizes of 10 μm and below only.

3. Results and Discussion

3.1 AFM measurements of R_q

A representative set of AFM topographic images are shown in figures 1-4 for the NF270, BW30, NF90 and TFC membranes respectively. Each series of images shown were taken from the same scanning locus for each particular membrane sample. ~~The root mean squared surface roughness (R_q) was obtained from all images after images had first been processed to~~

~~remove sample surface offset and tilt. As can be seen, features of successively larger size are revealed with increasing scan size at small scan sizes images show nano-scale structure of the membranes, whilst at larger scan sizes membrane defects such as ridges and holes. Mean values of R_q plotted versus scan length are shown in figure 5 for each membrane. [57, 58][79, 80][36][36][36, 81][80][79] Literature values for these membranes show a broadly similar trend with NF90 and BW30 membranes being much rougher as scan sizes of 1 to 10 μm , and with the Koch TFC-SR3 membrane being by far the smoothest [36, 57, 58, 80-82]. Differences in the absolute values may be due to variations between batches and selection of membrane areas for imaging. In this study 10 replicates were made at each scan size for each membrane, so we are confident that the values we have obtained are reliable for our membrane samples.~~

For all membranes R_q values increase as scan size is increased, as would be expected. For all membranes the increase initially has a curved profile, which [appears to become linear](#) approximately from the 20 μm scan size and above. Whilst the smallest scan sizes show nodules constituting the upper layer nanostructure of the membrane, larger scan sizes demonstrate ~~meso-scale~~ defects in the membrane surface, likely resulting from artefacts of membrane production and damage, including ridges, grooves and pits. These features are likely to be the cause of the large variation in measurement values [at large scan sizes](#), as demonstrated by the larger standard deviation shown by the error bars in fig. 5. It is difficult to determine conclusively which of these features can be attributed to manufacturing defects and which had arisen subsequently through handling or contamination. Many of the defects are grooves or pits, so are not contamination. Whilst the grooves could have been caused by damage due to rolling of the membranes, it is worth noting that the BW30 samples were received as flat samples which had not been rolled, and also contained these features. Another type of feature seen are ridges on the membrane surface. The ridges visible in the example images for NF270 (figure 1) are apparent from the smallest to largest scan size. At larger scan sizes they take on the appearance of drying marks. As these ridges here seem to have the same size and shape as basic structural units of the rest of the membrane (visible at small scan sizes) and ~~that~~ we had not exposed these membranes to fluid, it is likely that these are a result of the manufacturing process. Other raised features, such as seen in Fig 4 e and f, are difficult to differentiate between surface contamination and membrane surface defects.

It is worth noting that such features were unavoidable at large scan sizes. During first approach the probe tip was positioned over a pristine area of the membrane surface, as seen through the instrument optical microscope. However, such features were so prevalent that they were for practical purposes unavoidable at large scan sizes. Such features were previously remarked on for NF270 and BW30 membranes in a study by Allen et al [36] of topographical heterogeneities. It was found that such features were disproportionately populated by bacterial cells during biofouling tests, and as such are likely to play an important role in biofilm growth.

Values of R_q obtained from the literature are shown in table 1 for comparison with the measurements made here. For membrane NF270 values are broadly similar to the ones ~~obtained here~~ [we report](#). At 1 μm scan sizes literature values range between about 2.5 to 4.9 [57, 58]; 3.4 to 8.6 at 2 μm [79, 80] and 23.7 at 10 μm [36]. The mean values obtained in this work fit within these ranges at the smaller scan sizes, but is below the value recorded by Allen et al [36]. For BW30, values have been recorded as 53.9 and 75.0 nm for 10 and 20 micron scans [36, 81], with values from this work of 80.5 and 88.0 respectively. For NF90 values have been recorded at 22.8 nm [80] and 76.8 nm [79], for 2 μm scan sizes, compared with 2 μm here. Interestingly, Carvalho reports roughness values for NF90 membrane at a range of scan lengths, with a similar R_q vs L_0 curve [82]. Finally, for the TFC-SR3 membrane, Gautam reported an R_q value of 8.0 at 20 μm , compared with 4.8 μm here. Literature values for these membranes show a broadly similar trend with NF90 and BW30 membranes being much rougher as scan sizes of 1 to 10 μm , and with the Koch TFC-SR3 membrane being by far the smoothest [36, 57, 58, 80, 81, 83]. Differences in the absolute values may be due to variations between batches and selection of membrane areas for imaging, as well as to how the membranes have been treated prior to imaging. For instance, if membranes are imaged subsequent to imaging in air, washing out of preservatives and then drying are likely to lead to a collapse of the membrane structure. In addition changes in adhesive or long-range interaction or other forces due to [the](#) presence or absence of membrane preservatives, may modify the tip-sample interaction forces, which can affect the image resolution of a soft sample [84].

Figure 6 shows the plot of the natural logarithms of R_q and L_0 for the same data. For the NF270 and TFC-SR3 membranes, As can be seen from comparing the two plots, R_q increases along with an increase of L_0 , with two different slopes depending upon the scan size for all membranes, which both show a clear increase in the slope gradient at scan sizes above a cross-over length. For the NF90 and BW30 membranes the change in slope was much less pronounced, with a decreased gradient seen at scan lengths above the cross-over. H values Gradients for the two slopes in each curve, along with the cross-over length were calculated using linear regression of the $\log_e R_q$ versus $\log_e L_0$ data. This information is summarised in table 21. Confidence intervals were calculated for each gradient, with an assumed confidence level of 98%. From table 2 it can be seen that there is no overlap between the upper and lower intervals for NF270 and TFC-SR3, suggesting that there is a significant change in gradient. For the NF90 and BW30 gradients however, the intervals have a significant overlap, meaning the existence of a crossover is not well supported. There appears to be no correlation between H and crossover length.

The change in slope is most marked for NF270 and TFC-SR3 membranes, which both show a clear increase in the slope gradient at scan sizes above a cross-over length. For the NF90 and BW30 membranes the change in slope was much less pronounced, with a decreased gradient seen at scan lengths above the cross-over. Indeed for these two membranes, particularly BW30, a single linear fit to the whole of the data would suffice almost as well as the individual fits to the upper and lower portions of the curve. This also makes determination of the crossover length much less certain for these two membranes, as it is less clear which points would be best fitted by the upper and lower fits. For these two membranes, if treated as having no clear crossover assuming a single gradient, then H values gradients are obtained of 0.29 and 0.38 for the BW30 and NF90 membranes respectively. It is worth noting that R_q values for the NF270 and TFC membranes are generally much lower than for the NF90 and BW30 membranes at all scan sizes, but particularly at low L_0 values.

Previously Wong et al [41] reported roughness values for a number of membranes across several orders of magnitude, but only saw a single scaling regime for each membrane. This difference could be material specific. The membranes investigated by Wong et al were all either poly ether sulfone (PES) or poly vinyl pyrrolidone (PVDF), whereas the membranes investigated here all have a polyamide active surface. Multi-scaling regimes have however

been observed ~~previously for other materials~~. For instance, Lapique et al [85] when ~~observing~~ studying roughness scaling of polymer fracture surfaces observed a single scaling regime with homopolymers, but saw a crossover to a second scaling regime at longer length scales when examining copolymers. Furthermore, the cross-over length corresponded to the average distance between polyethylene and polypropylene particles. This is similar to our observations, where a second scaling regime may be observed at scan sizes large enough to pick up ~~meso and micro-scale~~ relatively large defects.

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It has been reported previously that surfaces may typically show self-affine behaviour below a characteristic correlation length, but show non-self-affine behaviour due to saturation at sizes above this correlation length. For the self-affine part of the data, scaling is dominated by the roughness exponent, H , whilst at larger measurement sizes it increases by a constant factor based on the R_q [61]. ~~For our data (figure 5) it can be seen that for all membranes the shape of the R_q versus L_0 curve switches from a typical exponential shape below the 10 μm measurement to a linear relationship above this value. This approximates to the cross-over length values predicted from the log-log plots (figure 6) which are between 4.46 and 7.17 μm .~~ It is likely, at least in terms of the membranes examined here, that at smaller scan sizes the roughness is dominated by the nano-scale structures formed by the membrane material, but above this is dominated by the presence of macroscale structures, including large wavelength undulations and surface defects. ~~Interestingly, the two membranes which show the lowest~~

difference in H for the lower and upper sections are BW30 and NF90, which have a much more pronounced surface roughness at $L_0 = 1$ to $10\ \mu\text{m}$ than the other membranes. This increased roughness due to the nano-scale structures may mean that the macroscale structures observed with larger scan sizes contribute less to the measured R_q than for the smoother NF270 and TFC membranes. An alternative explanation may be that the scaling regime has transferred from a local to a global regime for the NF270 and TFC-SR3 membranes, as suggested previously by Mandelbrot [72].

3.2 Calculation of H from AFM Power Spectra

Representative linear fits to power spectra and integrated power spectra (from an image obtained from sample NF270) are shown in figures 7a and 7b respectively. As can be seen from figure 7b, the data is highly non-linear, with a linear slope, as needed for equation 7, merely giving the average slope for the portion of the curve above the inverse correlation length. In practise using values above this point only excluded the initial few points, making little difference to the curve fitting.

Power spectra for each height image were obtained using the instrument software and computed as 2D isotropic spectra using instrument software. Linear fits to the power spectra of each individual image were made and equation 5 used to calculate the fractal dimension, D_f , from the slope, allowing the roughness exponent, H_a , to be obtained using equation 4. A representative power spectrum (from sample NF270) with dotted line representing a linear fit is shown in figure 7a.

Integrated power spectra, $P(f)$, (equation 6) were also plotted and linear fits were made to obtain the slope. Equation 7 was then used to calculate values of D_f from the slope, which were then used to calculate roughness exponent values, H_b , using equation 4. A representative linear fit to a single integrated power spectrum is shown in figure 7b.

Mean D_f values calculated using both methods, along with standard deviation values, are tabulated in supplementary table S1. Values of D_f are within the range $1 < D_f < 2$ as would be expected from a 2D profile [86], with minimum and maximum values of 1.423 and 1.849 respectively. This compares with a value of 1.506 reported by Zhang et al for a PVDF surface

from 5 μm AFM scans using a Weierstrauss- Mandelbrot function [67]. In the case of the Zhang et al experiments, 5 discrete line profiles were taken from each image and power spectra derived from the line scans were used to calculate D_f . For the approach used here, the software progressively samples the surface of the 2D FFT image at a range of sampling frequencies [87], hence deriving the power spectra from the whole image rather than discrete user selected horizontal scans.

Mean values for H_a and H_b versus scan size are shown in figure 8. Values for both H_a and H_b are similar in magnitude to H derived from the natural log plots of the R_q versus L_0 , although variation does seem to be slightly less for H_a than for H_b . On average, values of H_b tend to be slightly higher than those for H_a , although the difference in most cases is not large.

It is of note that the values of H_a and H_b do not remain constant, particularly when comparing those values obtained at small scan sizes. This could be due to effects of sampling. At small scan sizes the sizes of image pixels are typically lower than the expected resolution of the instrument, which is essentially set by the interaction area between the probe tip and the sample (based on the radius of curvature of the probe and the sample R_q). Klapetek et al [88] demonstrated using a simulated surface that the finite dimensions of the AFM probe tip tend to misrepresent the precise fractal nature of the surface. Images here were obtained with a pixel resolution of 512 x 512, meaning that for a 1 μm scan an image pixel would be expected to be on the order of 2 nm across, compared with a probe nominal radius of curvature quoted by the manufacturer of approximately 8 nm. This means that adjacent pixels at small scan sizes will effectively contain the same information, leading to smaller effective sampling rates. In fact, it is possible to derive a reliability cut-off for AFM measurements, where frequencies above this number in the PSD give no meaningful information [78] – for small scan sizes this portion of the PSD is likely to be proportionately larger. This may mean that the H values obtained at the lowest scan sizes are necessarily less reliable.

In addition, changes in H as scan size increases are not identical for H_a and H_b . For instance, for BW30 and NF90, H_a values increase, up to 10 μm , then steadily decrease, whereas NF270 steadily decreases and the TFC-SR3 membrane stay broadly the same. This behaviour seems to be membrane specific. However, for H_b values there is no clear initial trend, but above 10 μm the values for all the seem to converge, to approximately similar values between 0.357 and 0.387 for the 80 μm scans, which is also reflected in much smaller standard deviations at

large scan sizes. This suggests a much higher reproducibility in H_b values seen at greater scan sizes, which does not occur for values derived from the non-integrated power spectra.

Zahn and Zösch ~~did find~~found that the measured fractal dimension decreased as scanning speed was increased, which would lead to an increase in H [89]. In our experiments the scan rate was kept constant from 1 to 40 μm , so this effect could account for some of the variation seen. However, Zahn and Zösch only examined effect of imaging speed at a single scan size and the change in H_a and H_b we observed was generally a monotonic increase, so it is not clear the effect of this change of scanning speed with scan length progression. However, to maintain the scan speed at a constant value whilst varying the scan rate and scan length over orders of magnitude would not have been practicable, as large scan sizes maintained at the same speed as for the 1 μm scans (e.g. 1 $\mu\text{m s}^{-1}$), would lead to prohibitively long acquisition times and images would be prone to distortions due to drifting. Conversely, applying fast scanning speeds to small scan sizes would have risked poor surface tracking. Maintaining scan rate, rather than scan speed allowed for better image optimisation.

~~In addition it has been~~was pointed out by Schmittbuhl et al that when determining H from power spectra at smaller sampling sizes errors tend to be greater [75]. This may explain the variation of H_a and H_b seen calculated from the lowest scan sizes.

~~It is also interesting to note that~~Although there is a marked change in roughness scaling, ~~above the cross-over length for the NF270 and TFC-SR3 membranes, noted from figures 5 and 6,~~ values of H derived from the power spectra remain broadly similar at values throughout the range of scan sizes examined, ~~both above and below the crossover length. This is especially apparent when comparing H_a and H_b values with the upper value of slope (Table 1) seen for the NF270 and TFC-SR3 membranes.~~ This again suggests that roughness increases above the cross-over length were due to the contribution of ~~meso-scale~~ defects, which may not show a fractal or self-affine character. As a result, values of H derived from AFM image power spectra may be largely probing the polymer membrane nanostructure, even at larger scan sizes.

3.3 Estimation of R_q for other scan sizes from H values calculated at single scan sizes

~~From the values of H_a and H_b calculated from the power spectra at individual scan sizes it was possible to estimate R_q values for other scan sizes. This was done by estimating values of a from R_q , H and L_c values for a discrete scan length and then using equation 2 to generate R_q values for other scan lengths. This was carried out using data obtained from scan sizes of 10 μm and below only. Calculated Values of R_q values calculated from H_a and H_b , alongside measured R_q , were compared with the values shown~~ are compared in figures 9. Due to the large discrepancy between the slopes for membranes NF270 and TFC-SR3 and H_a , H_b at larger scan sizes it was decided to restrict these calculations to the lower end of the scale information taken at scan lengths of $\leq 10 \mu\text{m}$.

For the majority of cases, at scan lengths of 10 μm and below the calculated R_q value fit well to experimentally derived R_q values. In general, closest matches between calculated and experimental values are found where the scan lengths are similar. For scan sizes of 20 μm and greater, calculated R_q match poorly to measured R_q values for all membranes, but was particularly marked for those with a greater difference in scaling between upper and lower scan sizes (NF270 and TFC-SR3). However, there is still a substantial deviation between measured R_q and calculated R_q for the NF90 and BW30 membranes above this range. ~~This suggests our interpretation that the scaling is different for these membranes at scan lengths above and below approx. 10 μm is correct.~~ One clear exception at lower scan sizes is for R_q values calculated for the TFC-SR3 membrane, where significant deviation is seen from experimental and calculated R_q values for 10 μm and above, as well as for R_q values calculated from the 10 μm scans at all other sizes. This is not surprising when consideration is given to figure 7d and the cross-over length of 6.29 μm for this particular membrane. Whilst BW30 had a smaller calculated cross-over length, it did not have a clear transition between small and large scans, unlike in the case of the Koch TFC membrane.

~~Whilst for the membranes examined here, the calculated R_q deviates at large scan sizes from measured R_q , it is uncertain whether this holds true for all membrane materials. Previous researchers examining other membrane materials found no cross-over for PVDF and PES membranes, suggesting that these materials have a single scaling regime [41].~~

Percentage error values were calculated to compare calculated R_q with [directly](#) measured R_q . These are ~~summarised in figure 10, with all values~~ tabulated in supplementary information tables S4 and S5. In all cases, calculated R_q values show unacceptably large error values at scan sizes of 20 μm and above.

With the exception for the case of values calculated from 10 μm data with TFC-SR3 membranes, error values calculated at scan sizes of 10 μm and less, error was much lower. Generally, error at <10 μm is lower for H_a values than for H_b , with all values showing less than 20% error, and most below 10%. In the case of values calculated for BW30 from 10 μm data error is slightly higher for H_a than for H_b . Conversely, for the NF90 membrane calculated R_q values for low scan sizes are unacceptably high (>20%). Generally, values of error are lowest when calculated for similar scan sizes, with error increasing with the greater discrepancy between the scan size used to generate the calculation and the scan size for which an R_q value was calculated. Overall, given the variable H_a and H_b values seen at lowest scan sizes, the poor reproducibility at large (>10 μm) scan sizes, that for values of 10 μm and less, data generated at 5 μm using the non-integrated power spectra (i.e. H_a) seems to be optimal, ~~from the data seen here~~. However, there is still greater error and more variation than is desirable, so future work must focus on finding the sources of error and reducing them accordingly.

As the ten repeats for each scan size taken here is more than is normally reported in the literature, some thought needs to be given to the effect of number of scans made on the results. Figure 10 shows H_a and H_b values obtained for each scan size for membrane NF270 as the number of measurements is increased. As can be seen for H_a (figure 10a), with the exception of the 80 μm data, relatively consistent values of are obtained after averaging over 5 scans. For the 80 μm scan, the values are constantly increasing with cumulative scan number, reaching a plateau after 8 scans. With H_b values (figure 10b), a much smaller spread is seen between the scan lengths than for H_a values. In addition, again with the exception of 80 μm scans, H values become reasonably stable after approximately 3 or more averaged scans.

In general, it would seem that values of H and R_q obtained from integrated power spectra are more reliable, due to superior consistency, and particularly for scan sizes of 5 and 10 μm . We would recommend caution in making these calculations at scan sizes much greater than 10 μm due to the presence of surface defects commonly seen on membranes when larger

scanning areas are examined, and not at scan sizes less than 5 μm due to variation in H obtained at these scan lengths. We would also recommend a minimum of average results from scans at 3 different loci if using integrated spectra and 5 if calculating H from non-integrated spectra.

4. Conclusions

An examination of the effect of scan size on measured surface roughness was carried out for several commercially available polymer membranes. It was found that in all cases below a characteristic length all membranes showed self-affine behaviour, where the root means squared roughness was proportional to the scan size raised to a roughness exponent, H . This behaviour has been previously reported for thin films and fracture surfaces, but has not been thoroughly explored for polymer membrane surfaces. However, above this crossover length, roughness increased linearly with scan size, possibly due to the non-self-affine contributions of ~~meso-scale and macroscopic~~larger scale membrane features, including defects, grooves etc.

Using theory describing the fractal geometry of surfaces, we extracted values of H from power spectra of individual AFM images. We have successfully demonstrated that this allows an estimation of the root mean squared roughness obtained at other scan sizes, within the self-affine regime. These values approximated reasonably well to experimentally observed values for those other scan sizes for scan ranges up to the cross-over length. Above this crossover length values of H obtained from power spectra were not able to accurately predict surface roughness.

In the literature describing the development and characterisation of membrane surfaces, AFM imaging on scales of 10 μm and below is often used to characterise surface morphology, particularly by describing various roughness parameters. Surface roughness is a primary factor in determining the likely fouling behaviour of a membrane, as well as being related to other important surface properties of membranes, such as their wetting behaviour. However, measured values depend greatly upon scan size, and in the absence of a standardised approach to membrane imaging, ~~c-~~Comparison of results between different reports where different scan sizes have been used makes comparison of surface roughness impossible. The

finding here that polymer membrane roughness scales by an exponential factor that can be easily obtained from the power spectra of AFM images provides a potential solution. Whilst H in itself does not describe the roughness of a surface in itself [90], combined with the R_q value and scan size, it allows a fair estimation of surface roughness at other length scales. As a result, we propose that reporting of H values alongside R_q and scan size in future works would be of great utility for future investigations of surface roughness, particularly for investigations of the effect of roughness on membrane fouling. From the results here, we would also recommend obtaining H from the integrated power spectra of AFM surface scans at scan lengths of 5 – 10 μm , providing membrane defects are not in the images, with data from a minimum of 3 independent scans.

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Figure Captions

Figure 1: Representative AFM height images of Dow NF270 nanofiltration membrane surface. All images taken from a single locus, with the scan length increased stepwise at values of A: 1 μm ; B: 2 μm ; C: 5 μm ; D: 10 μm ; E: 20 μm ; F: 40 μm ; G: 80 μm .

Figure 2: Representative AFM height images of Dow BW30 membrane surface. All images taken from a single locus, with the scan length increased stepwise at values of A: 1 μm ; B: 2 μm ; C: 5 μm ; D: 10 μm ; E: 20 μm ; F: 40 μm ; G: 80 μm .

Figure 3: Representative AFM height images of Dow NF90 membrane surface. All images taken from a single locus, with the scan length increased stepwise at values of A: 1 μm ; B: 2 μm ; C: 5 μm ; D: 10 μm ; E: 20 μm ; F: 40 μm ; G: 80 μm .

Figure 4: Representative AFM height images of Koch TFC-SR3 membrane surface. All images taken from a single locus, with the scan length increased stepwise at values of A: 1 μm ; B: 2 μm ; C: 5 μm ; D: 10 μm ; E: 20 μm ; F: 40 μm ; G: 80 μm .

Figure 5: Plot of mean RMS roughness, R_q , against the scan length for polymer membranes: A) Dow NF270; B) Dow BW30; C) Dow NF90; D) Koch TFC-SR3. Error bars represent standard deviation.

Figure 6 Plot of natural logs of R_q versus scan size for polymer membranes: A) Dow NF270; B) Dow BW30; C) Dow NF90; D) Koch TFC-SR3. Error bars represent standard deviation.

Figure 7: Example linear fits to the a) power spectra and b) integrated power spectra (eq. 6) of AFM images.

Figure 8: Comparison of roughness exponent calculated by each method for each membrane plotted versus scan size. Error bars show standard deviation. Dashed lines represent H values calculated from log-log plots.

Figure 9: Values of R_q for different scan sizes calculated using R_q values and H_a (left side figures) and H_b (right side figures) obtained at discrete scan sizes of 1 to 10 μm for membrane samples: a) NF270; b) BW30; c) NF90; d) TFC-SR3.

Figure 10: Values of a) H_a and b) H_b calculated for NF270 membrane versus the cumulative number of measurements for each scan size.

Figures

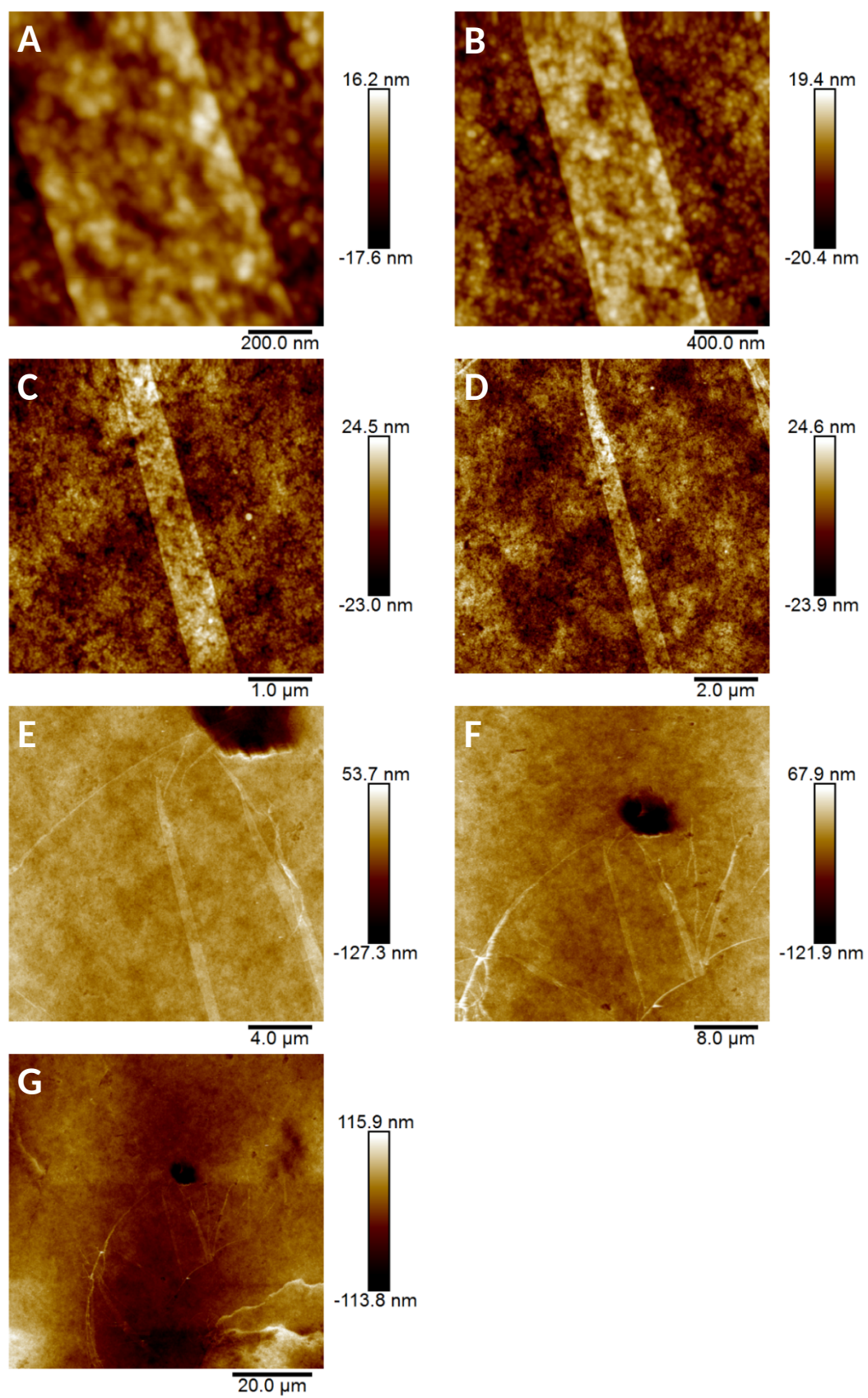


Figure 1

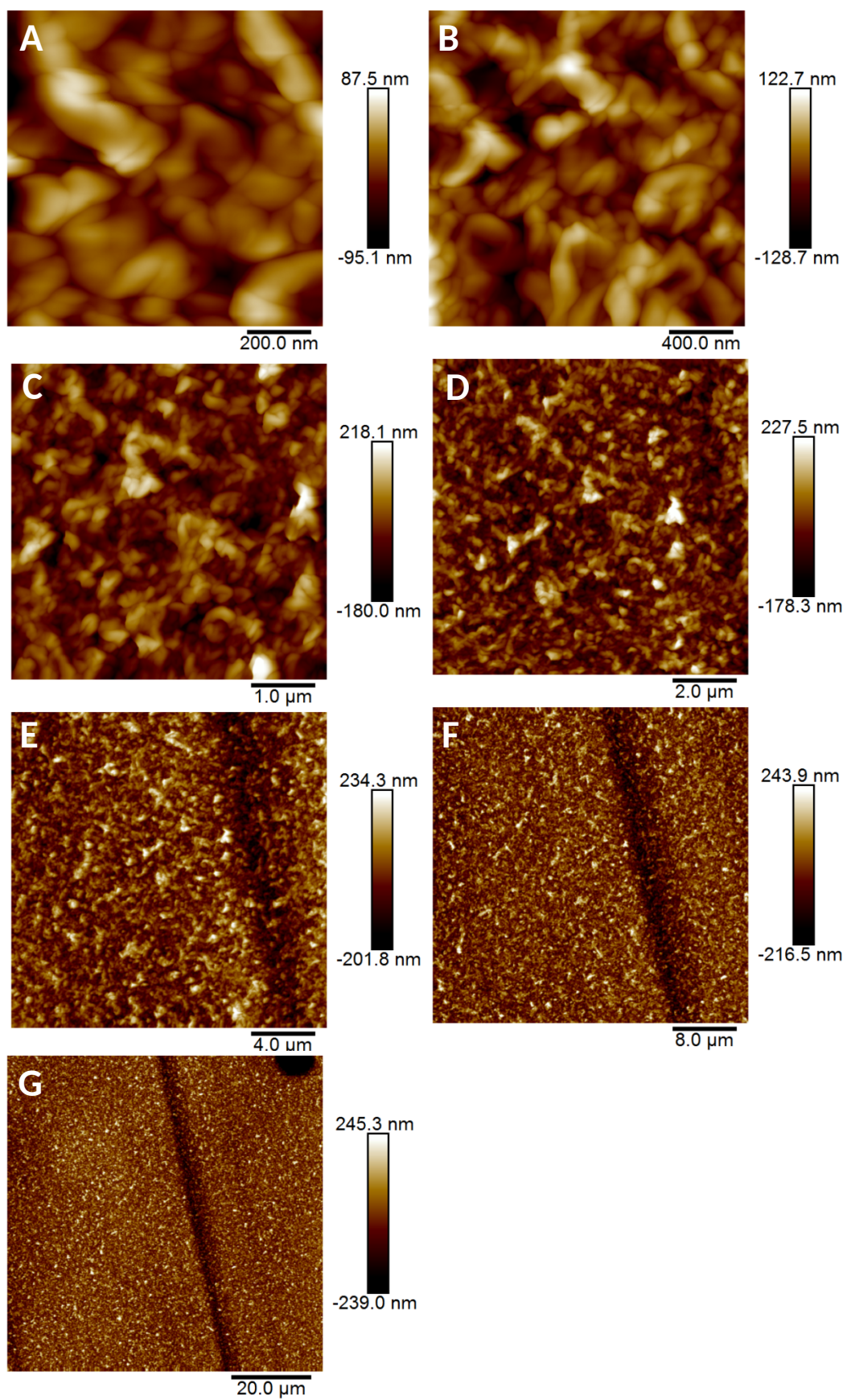


Figure 2

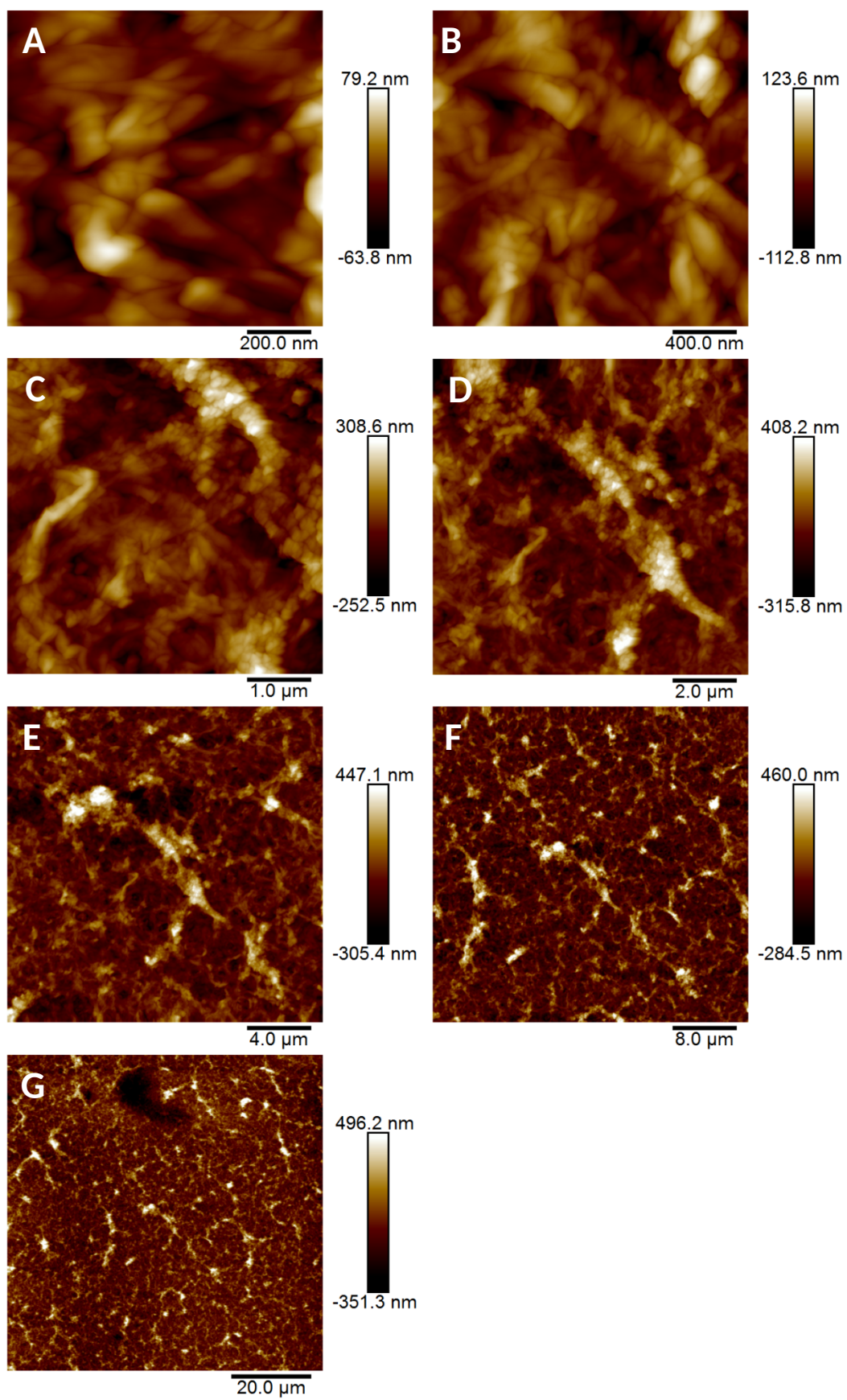


Figure 3

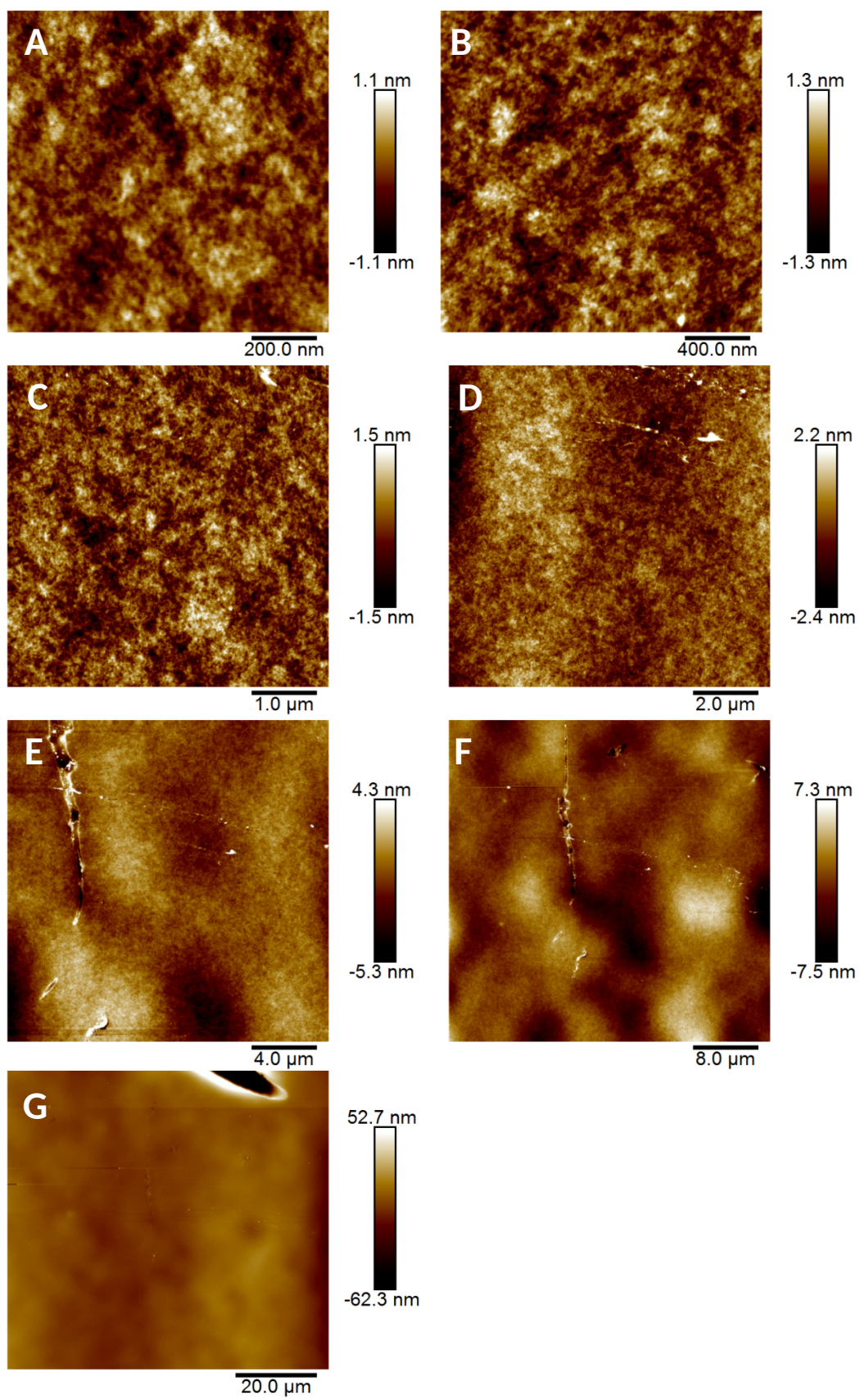


Figure 4

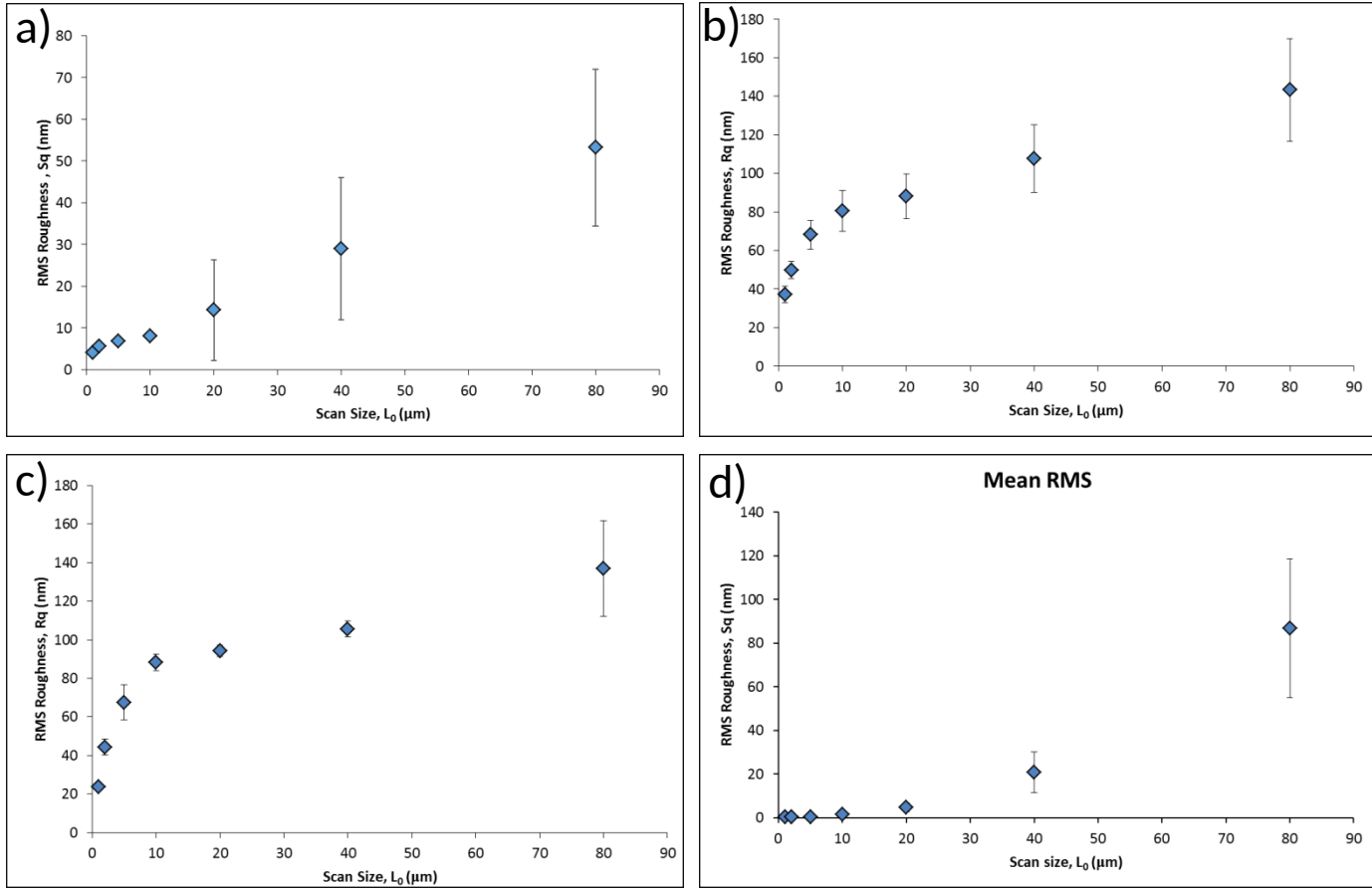


Figure 5

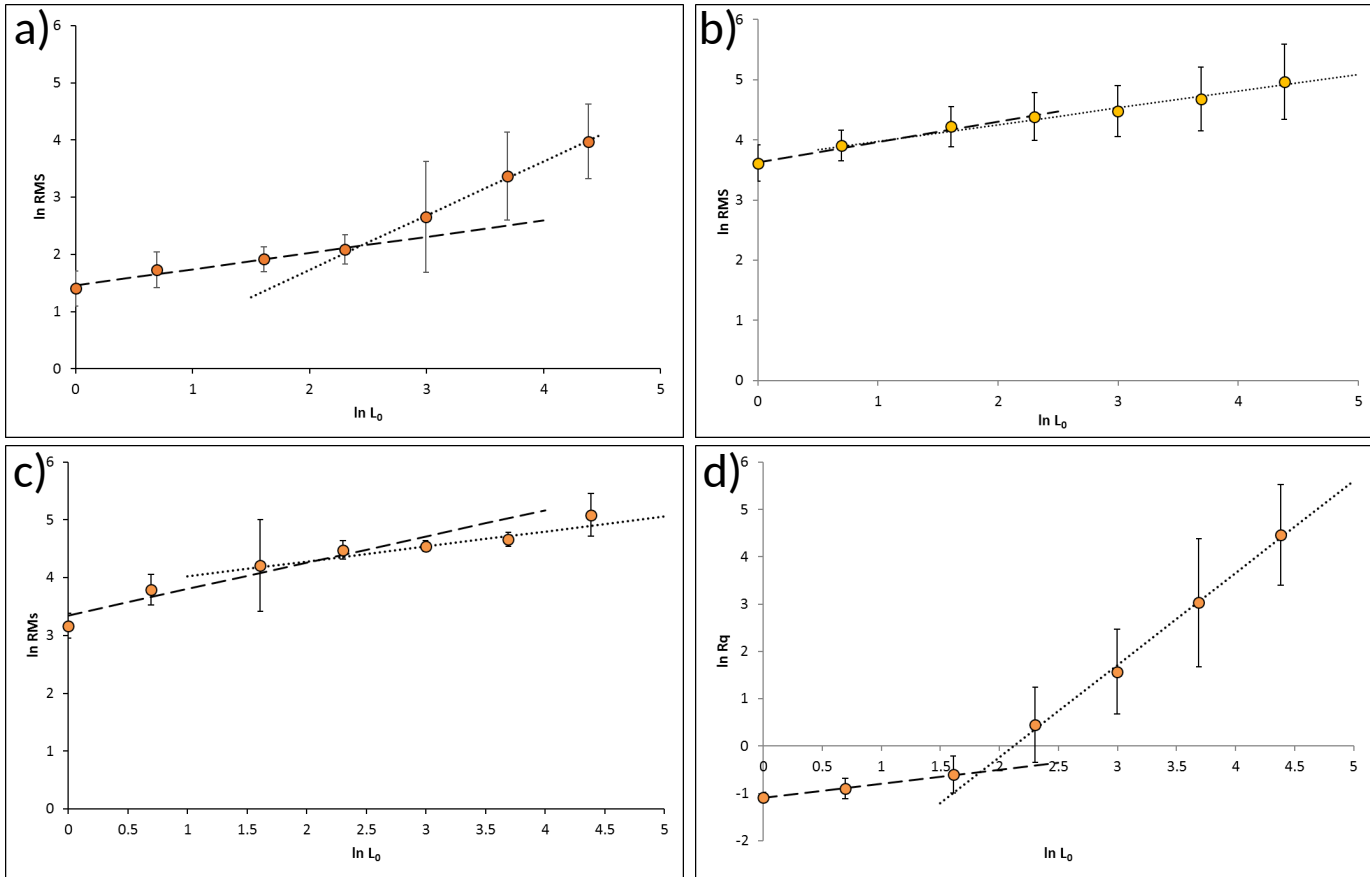


Figure 6

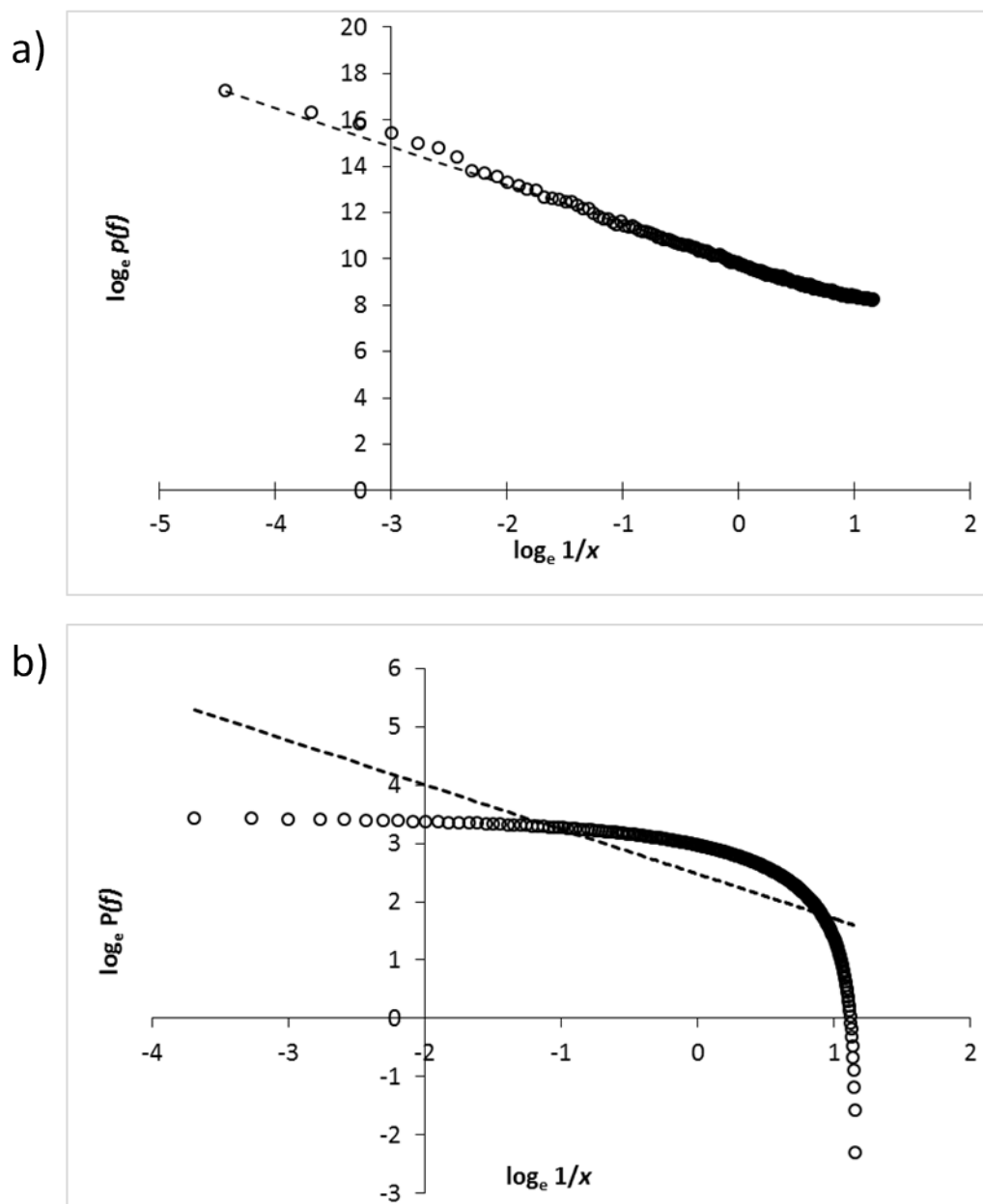


Figure 7

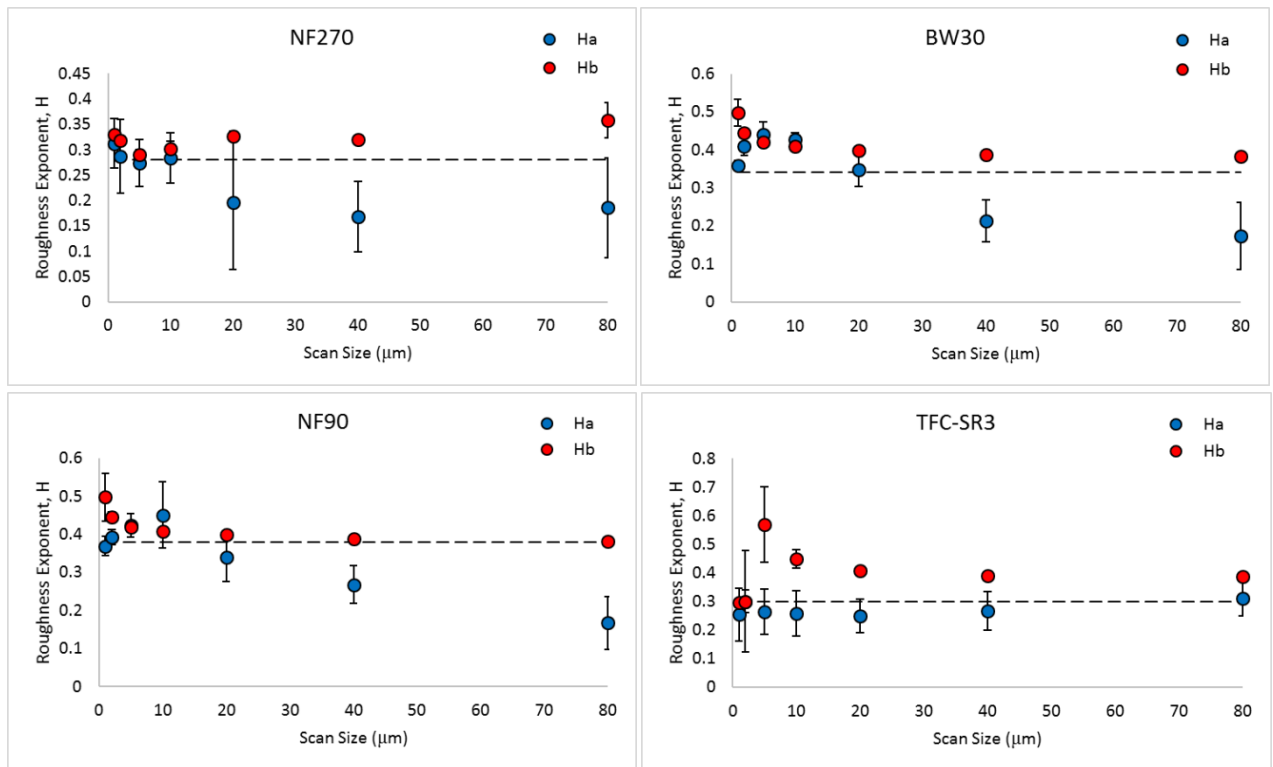


Figure 8

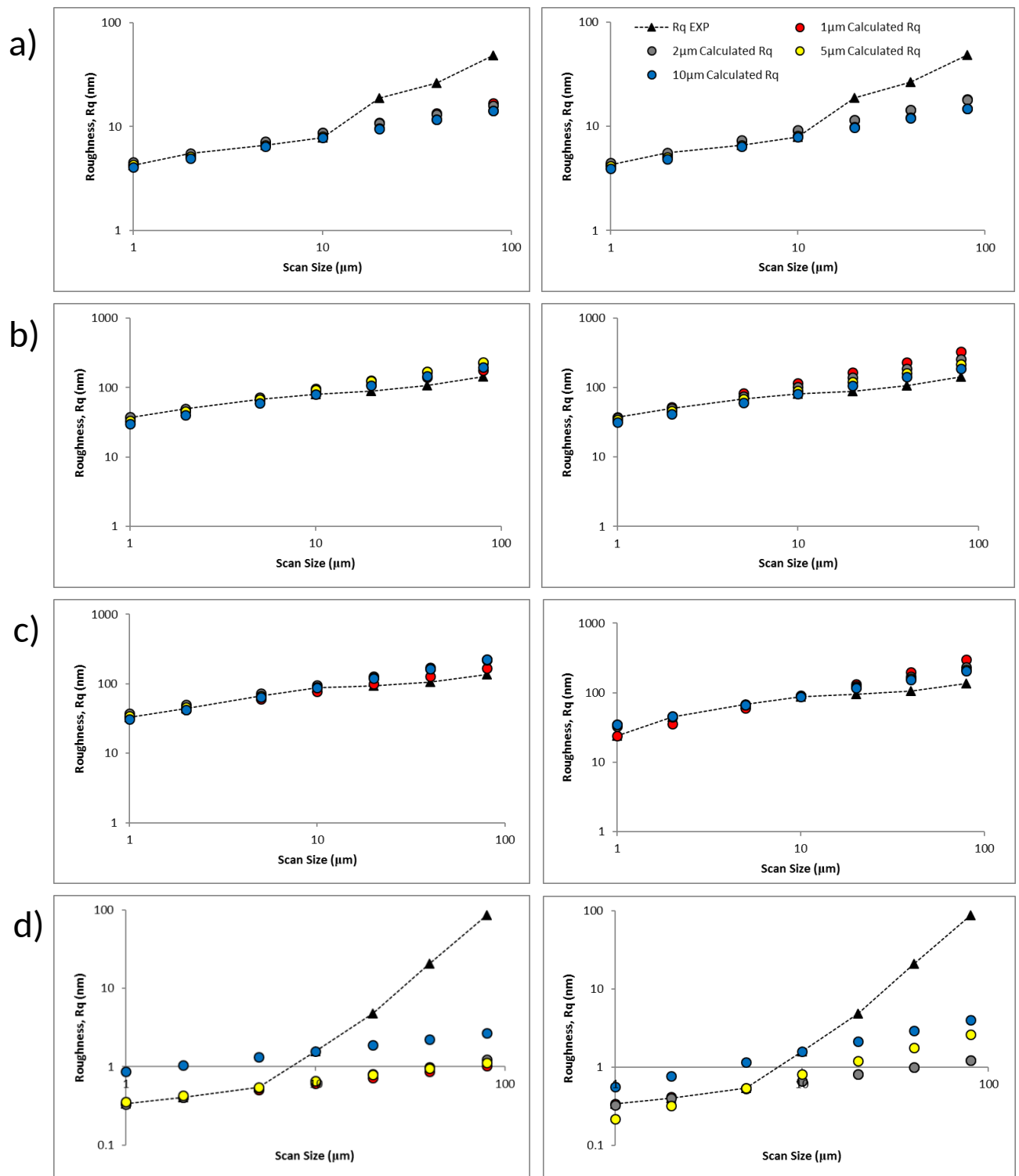


Figure 9

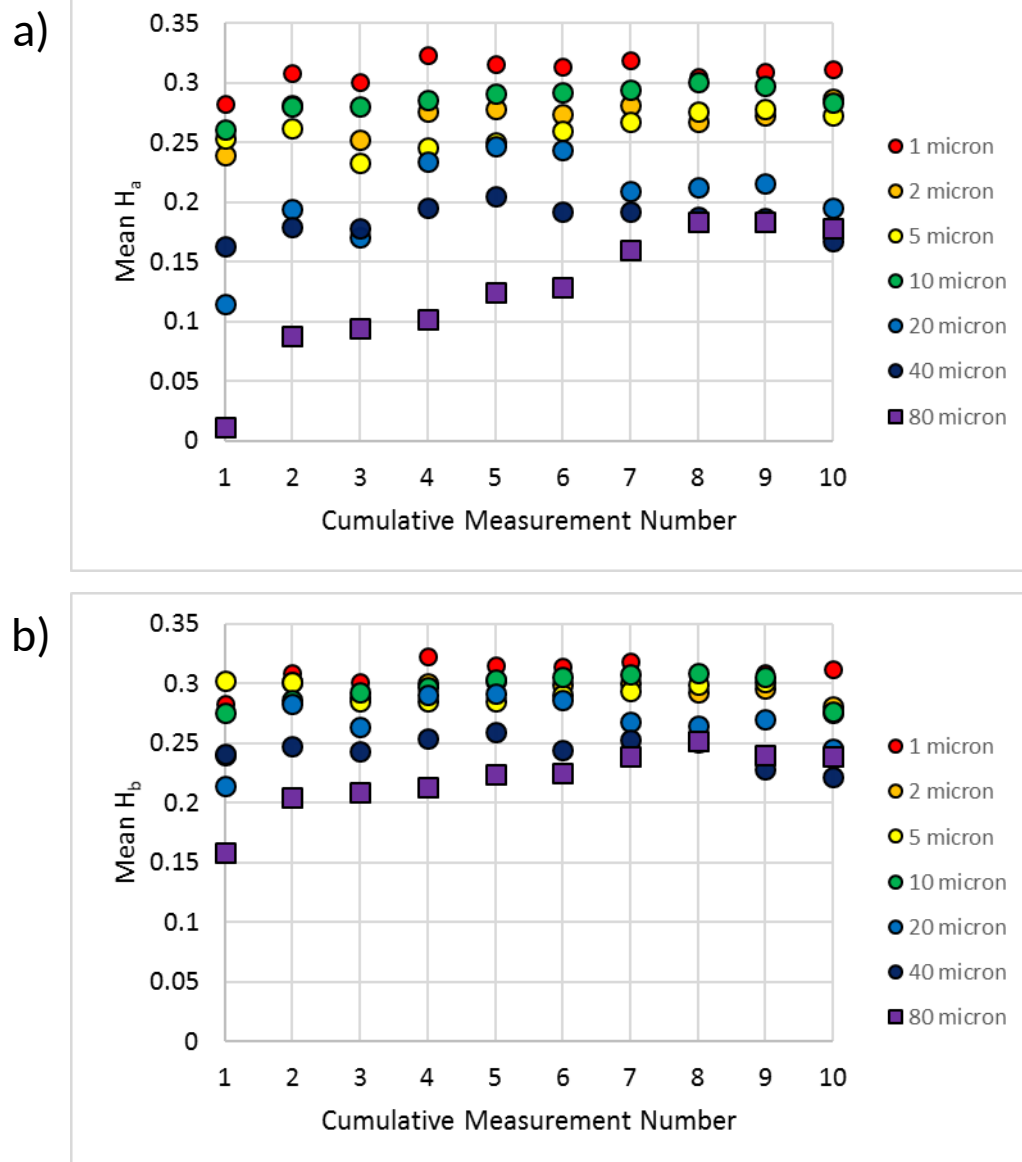


Figure 10

Table Captions

Table 1: Comparison of literature values for Rq with those from this work.

Table 2: Values of slope calculated using linear regression from log-log plots of Rq versus scan size for slopes in lower and upper bounds of the scan size range with calculated crossover length. Values in brackets are confidence interval calculated for 98% confidence level.

<u>Membrane</u>	<u>Rq (nm)</u>	<u>Scan Size (μm)</u>	<u>Value from this work (nm)</u>	<u>Ref.</u>
<u>NF270</u>	<u>3.0</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>4.8</u>	[57]
	<u>2.47-4.94</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>4.8</u>	[58]
	<u>3.36</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>6.25</u>	[80]
	<u>8.55</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>6.25</u>	[79]
	<u>23.67</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>8.46</u>	[36]
<u>BW30</u>	<u>53.9</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>80.5</u>	[36]
	<u>76.8</u>	<u>20</u>	<u>88.5</u>	[81]
<u>NF90</u>	<u>22.8</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>44.35</u>	[80]
	<u>76.8</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>44.35</u>	[79]
<u>TFC-SR3</u>	<u>8.0</u>	<u>20</u>	<u>4.82</u>	[81]

Table 1

	Lower	Upper	Crossover length (μm)
NF270	0.28 (± 0.18)	0.92 (± 0.12)	11.48
BW30	0.33 (± 0.12)	0.21 (± 0.20)	3.34
NF90	0.56 (± 0.35)	0.28 (± 0.39)	8.25
TFC-SR3	0.30 (± 0.30)	1.95 (± 0.30)	6.29

Table 2

Supplementary Table Captions

Table S1: Fractal dimension values calculated from equation 5 (D_{Ha}) and equation 7 (D_{Hb}). Corresponding standard deviation values are shown in brackets.

Table S2: Tabulated values (H_a , a , scan size, R_q) used to recalculate R_q values at 1,2,5,10 μm from power spectra derived H_a .

Table S3: Tabulated values (H_b , a , scan size, R_q) used to recalculate R_q values at 1, 2, 5, 10 μm from integrated power spectra derived H_b .

Table S4: Absolute percentage errors for calculated R_q values calculated from H_a values obtained from image power spectra versus experimentally derived values; relative standard error of AFM R_q measurements and cumulative errors combining the two.

Table S5: Absolute percentage errors for calculated R_q values calculated from H_b values obtained from image power spectra versus experimentally derived values; relative standard error of AFM R_q measurements and cumulative errors combining the two.

Table S1:

	Scan Size (μm)	Mean D_{Ha} (s.d.)	Mean D_{Hb} (s.d.)
Dow NF270	1	1.688 (0.049)	1.669 (0.002)
	2	1.713 (0.073)	1.683 (0.008)
	5	1.727 (0.0467)	1.709 (0.009)
	10	1.717 (0.050)	1.698 (0.015)
	20	1.804 (0.132)	1.673 (0.010)
	40	1.833 (0.070)	1.780 (0.007)
	80	1.814 (0.099)	1.643 (0.035)
Dow BW30	1	1.641 (0.013)	1.503 (0.035)
	2	1.590 (0.024)	1.554 (0.007)
	5	1.558 (0.033)	1.583 (0.010)
	10	1.572 (0.017)	1.591 (0.006)
	20	1.652 (0.045)	1.601 (0.007)
	40	1.786 (0.054)	1.612 (0.003)
	80	1.826 (0.088)	1.618 (0.001)
Dow NF90	1	1.632 (0.025)	1.423 (0.063)
	2	1.608 (0.021)	1.552 (0.012)
	5	1.577 (0.031)	1.584 (0.007)
	10	1.550 (0.087)	1.575 (0.004)
	20	1.661 (0.064)	1.606 (0.005)
	40	1.733 (0.050)	1.612 (0.004)
	80	1.833 (0.070)	1.621 (0.004)
Koch TFC	1	1.763 (0.092)	1.706 (0.009)
	2	1.646 (0.177)	1.706 (0.009)
	5	1.736 (0.079)	1.432 (0.133)
	10	1.743 (0.079)	1.551 (0.032)
	20	1.752 (0.059)	1.593 (0.008)
	40	1.734 (0.069)	1.610 (0.007)
	80	1.689 (0.063)	1.614 (0.004)

Table S2:

Dow NF270									
L_0 (μm)	H_a	R_q (nm)	$\ln L_0$	$\ln R_q$	A	R_q (1 μm)	R_q (2 μm)	R_q (5 μm)	R_q (10 μm)
1	0.312	4.2737	0	1.45248	4.2737	4.2737	4.548806	4.283258	4.098592
2	0.287	5.55	0.693147	1.713798	4.548806	5.305489	5.55	5.175537	4.988578
5	0.273	6.6465	1.609438	1.89409	4.283258	7.061268	7.219411	6.6465	6.468338
10	0.2835	7.8729	2.302585	2.063426	4.098592	8.766052	8.808407	8.031085	7.8729
20	0.19562	18.7859	2.995732	2.933107	10.45501	10.88242	10.74714	9.704103	9.582454
40	0.167333	26.41378	3.688879	3.273886	14.24795	13.50973	13.11259	11.72564	11.66323
80	0.185778	48.25167	4.382027	3.87643	21.37768	16.77135	15.99868	14.1683	14.19583
Dow BW30									
L_0 (μm)	H_a	R_q (nm)	$\ln L_0$	$\ln R_q$	A	R_q (1 μm)	R_q (2 μm)	R_q (5 μm)	R_q (10 μm)
1	0.358553	37.1635	0	3.615327	37.1635	37.1635	37.50839	33.54747	30.08506
2	0.410088	49.8399	0.693147	3.908816	37.50839	47.64878	49.8399	45.5119	40.46409
5	0.44004	68.1137	1.609438	4.221178	33.54747	66.18116	72.57175	68.1137	59.87243
10	0.427595	80.5278	2.302585	4.388602	30.08506	84.85347	96.43093	92.4059	80.5278
20	0.347849	88.0819	2.995732	4.478267	31.06882	108.794	128.1342	125.3617	108.3091
40	0.213508	107.6206	3.688879	4.678612	48.96008	139.489	170.2605	170.071	145.6745
80	0.173978	143.1971	4.382027	4.964222	66.80953	178.8444	226.2365	230.7254	195.9307
Dow NF90									
L_0 (μm)	H_a	R_q (nm)	$\ln L_0$	$\ln R_q$	A	R_q (1 μm)	R_q (2 μm)	R_q (5 μm)	R_q (10 μm)
1	0.368494	33.11545	0	3.5	33.11545	33.11545	33.79288	34.17071	31.30036
2	0.392462	44.3576	0.693147	3.792284	33.79288	42.7522	44.3576	45.82682	42.75953
5	0.423432	67.5492	1.609438	4.212856	34.17071	59.92347	63.55422	67.5492	64.58514
10	0.450067	88.23	2.302585	4.479947	31.30036	77.36147	83.42327	90.59119	88.23
20	0.339202	94.2438	2.995732	4.545885	34.11466	99.874	109.504	121.4931	120.5313
40	0.267405	105.6294	3.688879	4.659937	39.39001	128.9378	143.7384	162.9361	164.6583
80	0.166781	137	4.382027	4.919981	65.96618	166.4592	188.6756	218.5159	224.9403
Koch TFC									
L_0 (μm)	H_a	R_q (nm)	$\ln L_0$	$\ln R_q$	A	R_q (1 μm)	R_q (2 μm)	R_q (5 μm)	R_q (10 μm)
1	0.253929	0.33775	0	-1.08545	0.33775	0.33775	0.329884	0.356729	0.871355
2	0.299877	0.4061	0.693147	-0.90116	0.329884	0.40275	0.4061	0.428263	1.041303
5	0.263669	0.5453	1.609438	-0.60642	0.356729	0.508258	0.534523	0.5453	1.317865
10	0.257058	1.5749	2.302585	0.454192	0.871355	0.606072	0.658018	0.654648	1.5749
20	0.248234	4.81671	2.995732	1.572091	2.289763	0.722711	0.810047	0.785923	1.882067
40	0.265932	20.7749	3.688879	3.033746	7.789327	0.861797	0.997199	0.943523	2.249144
80	0.310924	86.8751	4.382027	4.464471	22.24226	1.02765	1.227592	1.132725	2.687816

Table S3:

Dow NF270									
L_0 (μm)	H_a	R_q (nm)	$\ln L_0$	$\ln R_q$	A	R_q (1 μm)	R_q (2 μm)	R_q (5 μm)	R_q (10 μm)
1	0.3306	4.2737	0	1.45248	4.2737	4.2737	4.453649	4.162292	3.924052
2	0.3175	5.55	0.693147	1.713798	4.453649	5.374333	5.55	5.091808	4.839118
5	0.2908	6.6465	1.609438	1.89409	4.162292	7.275846	7.424017	6.6465	6.384153
10	0.3024	7.8729	2.302585	2.063426	3.924052	9.149641	9.251581	8.130786	7.8729
20	0.3271	18.7859	2.995732	2.933107	7.051233	11.506	11.52904	9.94654	9.708815
40	0.320333	26.41378	3.688879	3.273886	8.102841	14.46922	14.36713	12.16779	11.97285
80	0.357222	48.25167	4.382027	3.87643	10.08524	18.19557	17.90387	14.88508	14.76485
Dow BW30									
L_0 (μm)	H_a	R_q (nm)	$\ln L_0$	$\ln R_q$	A	R_q (1 μm)	R_q (2 μm)	R_q (5 μm)	R_q (10 μm)
1	0.497389	37.1635	0	3.615327	37.1635	37.1635	36.60188	34.67147	31.43244
2	0.445384	49.8399	0.693147	3.908816	36.60188	52.46211	49.8399	46.37388	41.7224
5	0.419563	68.1137	1.609438	4.221178	34.67147	82.75169	74.95715	68.1137	60.6673
10	0.408568	80.5278	2.302585	4.388602	31.43244	116.817	102.0674	91.10362	80.5278
20	0.398447	88.0819	2.995732	4.478267	26.69904	164.9055	138.9827	121.8532	106.89
40	0.387396	107.6206	3.688879	4.678612	25.77891	232.79	189.2494	162.9814	141.8823
80	0.382067	143.1971	4.382027	4.964222	26.84269	328.6195	257.6963	217.9913	188.3299
Dow NF90									
L_0 (μm)	H_a	R_q (nm)	$\ln L_0$	$\ln R_q$	A	R_q (1 μm)	R_q (2 μm)	R_q (5 μm)	R_q (10 μm)
1	0.576669	23.7535	0	3.16773	23.7535	23.7535	32.51888	34.60044	34.71369
2	0.447904	44.3576	0.693147	3.792284	32.51888	35.42602	44.3576	46.15405	45.96769
5	0.415667	67.5492	1.609438	4.212856	34.60044	60.08997	66.86622	67.5492	66.62916
10	0.405116	88.23	2.302585	4.479947	34.71369	89.6183	91.20932	90.10489	88.23
20	0.39406	94.2438	2.995732	4.545885	28.94466	133.6569	124.4147	120.1923	116.8337
40	0.388342	105.6294	3.688879	4.659937	25.21376	199.3362	169.7087	160.3263	154.7106
80	0.379096	137	4.382027	4.919981	26.01757	297.2903	231.4923	213.8616	204.867
Koch TFC									
L_0 (μm)	H_a	R_q (nm)	$\ln L_0$	$\ln R_q$	A	R_q (1 μm)	R_q (2 μm)	R_q (5 μm)	R_q (10 μm)
1	0.295921	0.33775	0	-1.08545	0.33775	0.33775	0.329884	0.218618	0.560526
2	0.299877	0.4061	0.693147	-0.90116	0.329884	0.414645	0.4061	0.324073	0.764989
5	0.567907	0.5453	1.609438	-0.60642	0.218618	0.543795	0.534523	0.5453	1.153968
10	0.448657	1.5749	2.302585	0.454192	0.560526	0.6676	0.658018	0.808337	1.5749
20	0.406939	4.81671	2.995732	1.572091	1.423345	0.819592	0.810047	1.198255	2.149375
40	0.390441	20.7749	3.688879	3.033746	4.920719	1.006187	0.997199	1.776259	2.933401
80	0.386119	86.8751	4.382027	4.464471	15.99837	1.235265	1.227592	2.633074	4.003415

Table S4:

		Percentage Error (%)				Relative SE Rq (%)	Cumulative Error (%)			
	L ₀ (μm)	1	2	5	10		1	2	5	10
NF270	1	0	6.4	0.2	4.1	13.9	13.9	15.3	13.9	14.5
	2	4.4	0	6.7	10.1	12.8	13.5	12.8	14.5	16.3
	5	6.2	8.6	0	2.7	8	10.2	11.8	8	8.4
	10	11.3	11.9	2	0	9.2	14.6	15	9.4	9.2
	20	42.1	42.8	48.3	49	64.2	76.8	77.2	80.4	80.8
	40	48.9	50.4	55.6	55.8	64.5	80.9	81.8	85.2	85.3
	80	65.2	66.8	70.6	70.6	38.9	76	77.3	80.7	80.6
BW30	1	0	0.9	9.7	19	11.2	11.2	11.2	14.8	22.1
	2	4.4	0	8.7	18.8	9.1	10.1	9.1	12.6	20.9
	5	2.8	6.5	0	12.1	10.7	11.1	12.6	10.7	16.2
	10	5.4	19.7	14.8	0	13.1	14.1	23.7	19.7	13.1
	20	23.5	45.5	42.3	23	13.1	26.9	47.3	44.3	26.4
	40	29.6	58.2	58	35.4	16.2	33.8	60.4	60.3	38.9
	80	24.9	58	61.1	36.8	18.6	31.1	60.9	63.9	41.3
NF90	1	0	2	3.2	5.5	5.5	5.5	5.9	6.4	7.8
	2	3.6	0	3.3	3.6	9.5	10.1	9.5	10	10.1
	5	11.3	5.9	0	4.4	13.7	17.7	14.9	13.7	14.3
	10	12.3	5.4	2.7	0	4.9	13.3	7.4	5.6	4.9
	20	6	16.2	28.9	27.9	3.1	6.7	16.5	29.1	28.1
	40	22.1	36.1	54.3	55.9	3.9	22.4	36.3	54.4	56
	80	21.5	37.7	59.5	64.2	18	28.1	41.8	62.2	66.7
TFC-SR3	1	0	2.3	5.6	158	3.1	3.1	3.9	6.4	158
	2	0.8	0	5.5	156.4	8.9	9	8.9	10.5	156.7
	5	6.8	2	0	141.7	18.8	20	18.9	18.8	142.9
	10	61.5	58.2	58.4	0	46.8	77.3	74.7	74.9	46.8
	20	85	83.2	83.7	60.9	42.8	95.1	93.5	94	74.4
	40	95.9	95.2	95.5	89.2	44.9	105.9	105.3	105.5	99.8
	80	98.8	98.6	98.7	96.9	36.7	105.4	105.2	105.3	103.6

Table S5:

		Percentage Error (%)				Relative SE Rq	Cumulative Error (%)			
	L ₀ (μm)	1	2	5	10		1	2	5	10
NF270	1	0	4.2	2.6	8.2	13.9	13.9	14.5	14.2	16.1
	2	3.2	0	8.3	12.8	12.8	13.2	12.8	15.2	18.1
	5	9.5	11.7	0	3.9	8	12.4	14.2	8	8.9
	10	16.2	17.5	3.3	0	9.2	18.6	19.8	9.8	9.2
	20	38.8	38.6	47.1	48.3	64.2	75	75	79.6	80.4
	40	45.2	45.6	53.9	54.7	64.5	78.8	79	84.1	84.6
	80	62.3	62.9	69.2	69.4	38.9	73.5	74	79.4	79.6
BW30	1	0	1.5	6.7	15.4	11.2	11.2	11.3	13	19
	2	5.3	0	7	16.3	9.1	10.5	9.1	11.4	18.7
	5	21.5	10	0	10.9	10.7	24	14.7	10.7	15.3
	10	45.1	26.7	13.1	0	13.1	46.9	29.8	18.5	13.1
	20	87.2	57.8	38.3	21.4	13.1	88.2	59.3	40.5	25.1
	40	116.3	75.8	51.4	31.8	16.2	117.4	77.6	53.9	35.7
	80	129.5	80	52.2	31.5	18.6	130.8	82.1	55.5	36.6
NF90	1	0	36.9	45.7	46.1	7.7	7.7	37.7	46.3	46.8
	2	20.1	0	4	3.6	9.5	22.3	9.5	10.3	10.1
	5	11	1	0	1.4	13.7	17.6	13.7	13.7	13.7
	10	1.6	3.4	2.1	0	4.9	5.2	6	5.4	4.9
	20	41.8	32	27.5	24	3.1	41.9	32.2	27.7	24.2
	40	88.7	60.7	51.8	46.5	3.9	88.8	60.8	51.9	46.6
	80	117	69	56.1	49.5	18	118.4	71.3	58.9	52.7
TFC-SR3	1	0	2.3	35.3	66	3.1	3.1	3.9	35.4	66
	2	2.1	0	20.2	88.4	8.9	9.2	8.9	22.1	88.8
	5	0.3	2	0	111.6	18.8	18.8	18.9	18.8	113.2
	10	57.6	58.2	48.7	0	46.8	74.2	74.7	67.5	46.8
	20	83	83.2	75.1	55.4	42.8	93.4	93.5	86.4	70
	40	95.2	95.2	91.4	85.9	44.9	105.2	105.3	101.9	96.9
	80	98.6	98.6	97	95.4	36.7	105.2	105.2	103.7	102.2