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Evaluation of the Corrosion Behavior on Austenitic Stainless Steels in Artificial Oil Field Formation Water using Potentiodynamic and Potentiostatic Electrochemical Techniques

By Jorge Luiz Cardoso, Luís Flávio Gaspar Herculano, Pedro de Lima Neto & Marcelo José Gomes da Silva

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Abstract- Objective: The main objective of this research was to evaluate the corrosion resistance of some austenitic and super austenitic stainless steel when immersed in an aqueous solution of artificial oil field formation water saturated with CO₂ and also without CO₂. With these two simulated situations, the pH effect of the solution on the corrosion resistance of the alloys was studied.

Methods: Samples of austenitic and super austenitic stainless steels previously characterized by x-ray diffraction using synchrotron light were used in this research. Two electrochemical techniques, one potentiodynamic and the other potentiostatic were used to investigate the effect of the solution on the corrosion behavior of the samples.

Keywords: austenitic stainless steels, CO₂ corrosion resistance, aqueous solution, pitting corrosion, potential step, passive layer.

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Evaluation of the Corrosion Behavior on Austenitic Stainless Steels in Artificial Oil Field Formation Water using Potentiodynamic and Potentiostatic Electrochemical Techniques

Jorge Luiz Cardoso ^α, Luís Flávio Gaspar Herculano ^σ, Pedro de Lima Neto ^ρ & Marcelo José Gomes da Silva ^ω

Abstract- Objective: The main objective of this research was to evaluate the corrosion resistance of some austenitic and super austenitic stainless steel when immersed in an aqueous solution of artificial oil field formation water saturated with CO₂ and also without CO₂. With these two simulated situations, the pH effect of the solution on the corrosion resistance of the alloys was studied.

Methods: Samples of austenitic and super austenitic stainless steels previously characterized by x-ray diffraction using synchrotron light were used in this research. Two electrochemical techniques, one potentiodynamic and the other potentiostatic were used to investigate the effect of the solution on the corrosion behavior of the samples. The linear polarization test was used to evaluate the CO2 corrosion resistance of the alloys in artificial oil field formation water. The potentiostatic technique (potential step) was used to assess the influence of the solution without CO₂ on the corrosion resistance of the alloys, thus, varying the pH of the electrolyte. Scanning Electron Microscopy (SEM) was used to observe the type of corrosion on the surface of the samples.

Results: The results indicated that the type of corrosion found on the surface of the alloys was pitting corrosion. The pH effect of the solution (artificial oil field formation water) influenced the pits' shape. The conventional austenitic steels showed to have low corrosion resistance in chloridecontaining environment. The super austenitic stainless steels presented a high corrosion resistance in the solution with and without CO2. No pits or micro pits were observed on their surfaces by SEM.

Conclusion: From the results obtained, it was evident that the conventional austenitic stainless steels are not a good choice in severe environments like those found in the pre-salt region. The super austenitic stainless steels showed to be a good option in CO2-containing environments, mainly in aqueous solution with a high content of chloride.

Keywords: austenitic stainless steels, CO₂ corrosion resistance, aqueous solution, pitting corrosion, potential step, passive layer.

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I. Introduction

he discoveries made in the pre-salt region (a geological formation of continental shelves) in Brazil are among the world's most important in the past decade. In this region, there is a considerable amount of good quality oil and this reality puts Brazil in a strategic position for the global demand for energy [1]. The discovery of this region brings several technological challenges for the oil and gas exploration. The corrosion process in this region occurs under specific conditions. Some of them are high temperatures between 80°C and 150°C, the presence of gases such as carbon dioxide (CO₂) and hydrogen sulfide (H₂S), oil formation water, high pressure, leaving the operating environment very hostile[2]. The main characteristic of the pre-salt region is the high content of sodium chloride (NaCl) found there. This NaCl, CO2 and H2S dissolved in the oil field formation water can accelerate the corrosion of metallic materials used for the oil exploration in the pre-salt region. Another concern for this operation is the environmental impact that can occur if these materials fail. Cheaper materials such as carbon steels are a good choice but there is a problem related to them: The difficulty in adding corrosion inhibitors for carbon steel pipes in offshore oil extraction at great depths. This has led to the increased use of corrosion resistant alloys[3]. Of all types of corrosion, localized corrosion, especially pitting corrosion, is the most common in marine waters and difficult to control. Currently, the oil and gas industry is concerned about the environmental impact caused by oil leaks in the marine ecosystem. This type of accident can be prevented using materials more resistant to the environmental conditions found in the pre-salt region. There are two types of technological challenges for the exploration of oil and gas contained in the pre-salt region: the other challenge consists of drilling the well as far as the reservoir, crossing water layers, sediment, and salt. Each layer with a different behavior at temperatures ranges from 50°C to 150°C under high pressures and corrosive gases, all these conditions acting together. The way back to the surface must also be considered. All the oil and natural gas extracted from the well will be transported through the pipelines, and the material from which the pipes are made must resist all adverse conditions to avoid oil leaks. The second challenge is horizontal and consists of transporting the oil and gas from the production area to the coast, localized about 300 km away from the well location [1]. In summary, it is a set of problems that begins with the well's depth, passing by the coating when drilling into soft sediments through the salt layer to reach a very high temperature and pressure environment saturated with corrosive gases already mentioned[4]. Corrosion resistant-alloys such as super austenitic stainless steels are a great choice when considering the severe conditions of presalt. Due to their high chromium, nickel, and molybdenum content, it is expected that this kind of material presents more corrosion resistance in the presalt conditions than the conventional stainless steels. Some authors have already studied the corrosion resistance of austenitic stainless steel and other

materials regarding the effect of CO₂[1,5-8]. For this paper, the effect of the oil field formation water with and without CO2 was studied, taking into account two austenitic and two super austenitic stainless steels for later comparison. Two electrochemical techniques, one potentiodynamic and the other potentiostat were used to evaluate the corrosion resistance for these materials in artificial oil formation water.

a) Materials

For this research, the materials used were the AL-6XN PLUS™ super austenitic stainless steel, the 904L super austenitic stainless steel, and the 300 series austenitic stainless steels AISI 316L and 317L. The chemical composition of the materials studied presented in Table 1 were measured in an Optical Emission Spectrometer (PDA-7000 SHIMADZU). The Pitting Resistance Equivalent Number (PRE_N) was calculated using equation 1.

$$PREN = %Cr + 3.3 Mo + 30%N$$
 (Eq.1)

Table 1: Chemical composition (wt%) of the studied alloys and the respective Pitting Resistance Equivalent Number (PRE_N)

Alloys	С	N	Mn	Si	Cr	Ni	Мо	PRE _N
316L	0.030	0.05	1.65	0.41	17.2	10.7	2.2	26
317L	0.024	0.06	1.49	0.40	17.8	12.3	3.5	31
904L	0.027	0.10	0.74	0.66	19.5	24.3	4.5	37
AL-6XN PLUS™	0.021	0.24	0.35	0.32	21.8	25.8	7.6	54

b) Characterization of the Samples

The samples in the as-received condition were characterized using x-ray diffraction (XRD) by Synchrotron Light (energy 12 keV) to detect the phases. ICDD database (International Centre for Diffraction Data) was used to identify the peaks of the phases. A Gleeble was used to fix the samples. The measurements were carried out at the Brazilian Synchrotron Light Laboratory in the city of Campinas-SP in Brazil. For this characterization, the shape and dimensions of the samples are shown in Figure 1.

c) Electrochemical Tests used

To evaluate the corrosion behavior of the materials, two electrochemical techniques were used: a potentiodynamic technique (linear polarization test) and a potentiostatic technique (potential steptest), one complementing the other. Firstly, the linear polarization technique was used to evaluate the effect of CO2 on the corrosion behavior of the samples. The dimensions of the samples were 5.0 mm x 5.0 mm x 3.5 mm with an average exposure area of 39 mm². The samples were mounted in cold resin and ground using SiC paper up to 600 mesh, washed in distilled water, and then blowdried. An adapted cell was used with two gas inlets, one for CO₂ and one for N₂. The cell also contained an input

for a pH reader, in addition to the classic inputs for the three main electrodes (reference, working, and counter electrodes) in addition to a gas outlet (see Figure 2). The electrodes used were the samples (working electrode), as counter electrode a platinum electrode (93 mm²), and the reference electrode used was the silver chloride silver (Ag/AgCl/Cl sat) saturated with KCl. The electrolyte used (artificial oil field formation water) was named by Petrobras of TQ 3219 which composition is shown in Table 2.

Table 2: Chemical composition of the artificial oil field formation water for 1 L of distilled water

Reagents	CaSO ₄	MgCl ₂	NaHCO ₃	NaCl
C (g/L)	0.516	4.566	0.425	29

First, the solution was deaerated with N₂ gas to simulate the pre-salt environment (absence of free O₂) that could interfere with the results. The N2 gas was bubbled into the solution until a pH of 8.2 \pm 0.1. After this procedure, the solution was bubbled with CO2 until saturation (pH 5.1 \pm 0.1). In this procedure, the electrolyte became acidic. CO2 gas in contact with an aqueous solution (oil field formation water) forms acids that react with the metallic elements of the alloy [9]. A potentiostat (AUTOLAB PGSTAT302N) connected to a microcomputer was used for both techniques. The software NOVA 1.9 was used to obtain data from the linear potential curves. Before the measurements, the samples were immersed for 30 min in the solution to determine the open circuit potential (OCP). The sweep of the polarization curves was -0.5 V to 1.2 V from the OCP with a sweep rate of 1 mV/s. After linear polarization tests, the samples were washed with water and sprayed with alcohol to clean the surface. Scanning Electron Microscopy (SEM) micrographs on the surfaces of the samples were obtained after corrosion tests for later comparison. The corrosion tests were reproduced in triplicate.

The potential step technique (potentiostatic technique) was also used to evaluate the corrosion behavior of the samples for the solution of artificial oil field formation water, this time with no CO₂ and no N₂. This test was intended to evaluate only the effect of the artificial oil field formation water on the surface of the samples. For this test, the samples were mounted in cold-curing epoxy resin, ground up to 600, rinsed with ethanol, and blow-dried before each measurement. The samples had the dimensions of 8.3 mm x 8.2 mm x 3.7 mm. To reduce crevice corrosion on the epoxy/steel, the specimens were coated with a lacquer leaving an exposed area of 1 cm². A three-electrode cell configuration was used. A saturated silver/silver chloride (Ag/AgCl) as reference electrode and a platinum electrode as a counter electrode were used. The electrolyte used was the same used in the linear polarization test (see Table 2). A potentiostat (AUTOLAB PGSTAT302N) connected to a microcomputer along with the software NOVA 1.9 was used. Before the measurements, the samples were immersed for 30 min in the solution to determine the open circuit potential (OCP), the same procedure used before. Subsequently, the potential was increased in steps of 50 mV every one hour until a breakthrough current density was attained. The pitting corrosion initiation potential was defined when the current density reached values above 0.1 mA/cm² [10]. After the tests, the samples were examined by SEM to confirm the presence of pits on their surfaces. The tests were carried out in triplicate at 25°C (room temperature).

II. Results and Discussion

a) Characterization of the Samples for the as-received Conditions

The X-ray diffractogram pattern for the 316L and AL-6XNPLUS™ steels can be seen in Figure 3. For both sheets of steels, the main phases detected were the matrix phase (austenite) and some ferrite peaks, indicating that both materials were not in the solution annealed condition. No other phases were detected for

the analyzed angle range 20 (25-79°). For this measurement, a synchrotron light radiation source ($\lambda =$ 0.10332 nm) was used. This measurement was not possible for the 317L and 904L steels due to a manufacturing problem of the samples.

b) pH Study of the Solution

Firstly, the solution pH used in the corrosion tests (artificial oil field formation water) was studied. The solution was deaerated by bubbling N₂ to simulate the absence of free oxygen from the pre-salt layer. Figure 4 shows the results for the pH study of the solution (called TQ3219 by Petrobras). The stabilization of pH indicates that the electrolyte is deaerated and subsequently saturated with CO₂. All the chemical reaction that happens when bubbling CO2 in the solution is described in our previous work [4].

c) CO₂ Corrosion Evaluation using a Potentiodynamic Technique

Before the linear polarization tests, the OCP of the samples was measured. The result is shown in Figure 05. The OCP of the super austenitic steels (AL-6XN PLUS™ and 904L) stabilize in 5 minutes. For the other austenitic steels (316L and 317L), the stabilization time is longer, eespecially for the 317L steel. After 30 minutes of immersion, all the OCP are stabilized. Figure 6 shows the linear polarization curves for the steels in the as-received condition. The linear polarization tests aim to verify the formation of passive film or not on the alloys surfaces[11]. For this test, all the samples were immersed in the solution used (artificial oil field formation water) saturated with CO2. The super austenitic stainless steels AL 6XN PLUS™ and 904L showed a good CO₂ corrosion resistance. After reaching the corrosion potential (around -0.5 V), a passive film is formed and broken at -0.34 V until they reach a passivation peak around -0.20 V. After this potential, there is the formation of another passive layer that remains until the potential of +0.89 V where there is a slight breakdown of this layer and another passivation. After reaching a potential of +1.02V (pitting potential), there is an increase in current density, the transmissive region, since the potential is too high (above +1.0 V). It is possible to observe that the electrochemical behavior for the super austenitic steels studied in this work is very similar. Their passive regions are quite stable. The increase of current density after +1,0 V can be associated with oxygen evolution, reported in the literature[12]. The 317L steel also showed a good CO₂ corrosion resistance. The formation of its passive layer is not so stable as the passive layers of the super austenitic steels; even so, the current density in the passive region remains low, in the order of 10⁻⁶ A/cm². Its pitting potential is around +0.61 V. The 316L steel did not present any passivation since the anodic current increased with time. This steel presented the highest anodic current rate (in the order of 10⁻⁵ A/cm²) if

compared with the other steels. Its corrosion potential is similar to the corrosion potential of 317L steel (+0.40 V). 316L steel presented the lowest pitting potential (+0.30 V), indicating that its CO₂ corrosion resistance is not very efficient. The reduction in anodic current density is associated with the passive film as a protective barrier against corrosion. The super austenitic steels AL-6XN PLUS™ and 904L showed a reduction in their anodic current, while the austenitic steels 316L and 317L showed an increase in anodic current with time. This result shows that the passive film of super austenitic steels is more stable. This effect can be attributed to the high levels of alloying elements such as Cr, Mo, and Ni. According to Sedriks, on a polarization curve, the greater the difference between the pitting potential and the corrosion potential ($\Delta E = E_{pit} - E_{corr}$), the more resistant to corrosion the material is [13]. Table 2 shows the corrosion potential values, pitting potential, and the difference between them for the studied steels. The ΔE interval is higher for the super austenitic steels, which confirms their high performance about CO₂ corrosion. The 316L steel had the lowest value for ΔE , indicating that it is not a suitable material for applications that require good CO2 corrosion resistance. More detailed work on CO₂ corrosion using austenitic stainless steels by the authors of this research can be found in [4].

Table 2: Potentials in V (Ag/AgCl) taken from the linear polarization curves for the studied steels

Alloy	E(corr)	E(pit)	ΔΕ
316L	-0.41	0.30	0.71
317L	-0.41	0.61	1.02
904L	-0.49	1.02	1.51
AL-6XN PLUSTM	-0.53	0.99	1.52

After the linear polarization tests, SEM of the surfaces of the steels was carried out. The only material that presented pits on its surface was the 316L steel, as shown in Figure 7. Several factors may have influenced this form of corrosion for the 316L steel. Among them, one can mention: inefficiency of the passive film, pH of the solution, chloride content in the solution, effect of CO₂. The action of the chloride ion in an acid medium caused by the reaction of CO2 gas in an aqueous medium can accelerate the localized corrosion process.

The Corrosion Resistance of the Steels in Artificial Oil Field Formation Water by Potential Step Technique

The samples in the as-received condition were submitted to another electrochemical technique called potential step. This time, no CO₂ or N₂ was used in the solution (artificial oil field formation water). The investigation using this technique is in agreement with the linear polarization experiments where the 904L and AL-6XN PLUS™ austenitic stainless steels had excellent pitting corrosion resistance when compared with the

other austenitic steels (316L and 317L). Figure 8 shows the results of potential step for the 316L, 317L, 904L, and AL-6XN PLUS™ alloys, respectively. The graphs are of type double Y-axis, where the potential (V vs. Ag/AgCl, sat KCI) and the current density (mA/cm²) are plotted on the Y-axis, and the time (s) is plotted on the X-axis. Every potential step was maintained for one hour. If nothing happened on the passive film, then a new step was reached by an increment of +50 mV. The pitting potential (E_n) of each alloy was achieved when the current density reached values above 0.1 mA/cm², as shown on the graphs. So there was an abrupt increase in the current density indicating the breakdown of the passive film. The time to achieve the pitting potential depends on the film resistance of each alloy. The more resistant the passive film, the more time is needed to reach the pitting potential. The pitting potential for the 316L steel presented the lowest value (+0.52 V), while the pitting potential for the 904L and AL-6XN PLUS™ steels presented the highest value (+1.06 V and +1.09 V, respectively). The pitting potential for the 317L steel showed an intermediate value (+0.81 V). Table 3 shows the pitting potential and the time to achieve it for each alloy. It was necessary more than one day for the sample of the AL-6XN PLUS™ steel to reach its pitting potential. This result shows how resistant this material is to the conditions used. On the other hand, the 316L steel presented the lowest time to reach its pitting potential. Even without the presence of CO₂, this steel showed susceptibility to pitting corrosion in chloridecontaining environments. The 317L steel showed to be more resistant than the 316L steel in chloride-containing environments but less resistant than the other two super austenitic steels. If compared with table 2, it can be seen that the pH of the solution shifted the pitting potential of the steels. In the presence of CO₂, the solution is more aggressive, decreasing the pitting potential of the steels.

Table 3: Measured pitting potential of the studied alloys using the Potential step technique

Potential step				
Alloy	E(pit) (V Ag/AgCl)	time (h)		
316L	+0.52	13.5		
317L	+0.81	16.2		
904L	+1.06	23.1		
AL-6XN PLUS™	+1.09	26.2		

The 316L and 317L steels suffered pitting corrosion. For the 316L steel (Figure 9a), the pits possess a circular shape with a center hole. The pit propagates from the center to the edge and tries to grow with time. This effect is attributed to the chloride in the solution. The chloride ion (Cl⁻) is very small and can penetrate easily in sites of the 316L surface where the film is broken. The pits on the 316L steel grow but only in the center, as shown in Figure 9a. With the absence of CO2 in the solution, the environment is not so aggressive to permit the pits' growth. The 317L steel also suffered pitting corrosion, but its pits are so small compared with the ones of the 316L steel. The pits initiated, but they did not grow with time, as shown in Figure 9b. These pits are non-uniform. This result indicated that the 317L steel in some chloride-containing environments is also resistant, being also a good choice in some applications where the 316L cannot be used, for example, in the oil and gas industry in chloridecontaining environments. The super austenitic stainless steels (904L and AL-6XN PLUS™) presented pits much smaller than the ones found on the surface of conventional austenitic steels, as seen in Figure 9 (c-d). They are micro-pits, and after initiating, they passivate again before starting to grow. The effect of CO2 on the morphology of the pits for the 316L steel, the most affected steel in the experiments, is shown in Figure 10. In Figure 10a, one can see the pits for the potentiodynamic test using CO₂ in the solution. In Figure 10b, it can be seen a single pit formed for the potentiostatic test with no CO2 in the solution. For the potentiostatic test (potential step), the pit did not grow as expected, leaving a hole in the center. All the micrographs of the alloys taken after the corrosion tests are in accordance by the graphs shown before. This experimental procedure has previously been used to qualify Ni-based alloys and hyper duplex stainless steel for raw seawater injection [14] and also used to study a 13% Cr supermartensitic stainless steel related to localized corrosion [15]. These results combined with the linear polarization tests in CO2-saturated aqueous solution, show that these materials (the super austenitic stainless steels) are an excellent option for chloridecontaining environments with and without CO2 once they are cheaper than the Ni-based alloys. In some cases, the conventional 317L steel can also be a good option than the conventional 316L steel.

III. Conclusions

It can be concluded that the oil field formation water plays an important role as an aggressive substance in the pre-salt region. In chloride-containing environments, the 316L steel is not so resistant, and it is not recommended for the content of NaCl in the pre-salt region. The type of corrosion found was identified as pitting corrosion. For the 316L steel, pits were formed for both techniques used, but the pitting corrosion was more aggressive for the potentiodynamic technique due to CO₂ in the solution and the absence of free oxygen. The 317L steel presented good pitting corrosion resistance when compared to the 316L steel. The two super austenitic stainless steels studied in this research (904L and AL-6XNPLUS™) presented good pitting corrosion resistance. Both can be the solution for applications in chloride-containing environments as those found in the pre-salt region.

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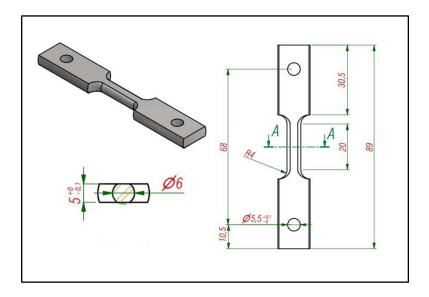


Figure 1: Shape and dimensions (mm) of the samples for the XRD measurements by synchrotron light

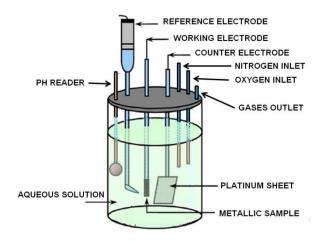


Figure 2: Cell for the CO₂ corrosion test showing all the electrodes used

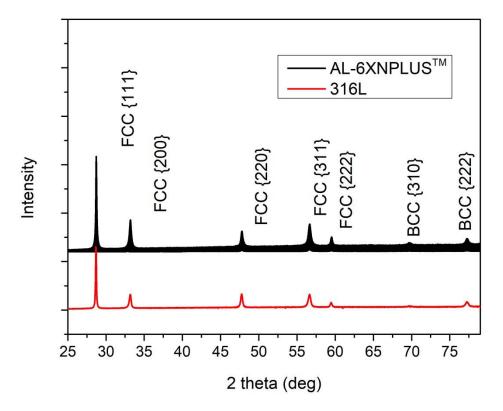


Figure 3: XRD pattern for the 316L and AL-6XNPLUS™ steels in the as-received condition (synchrotron light radiation source, $\lambda = 0.10332$ nm)

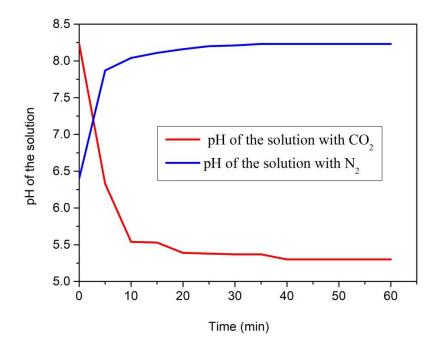


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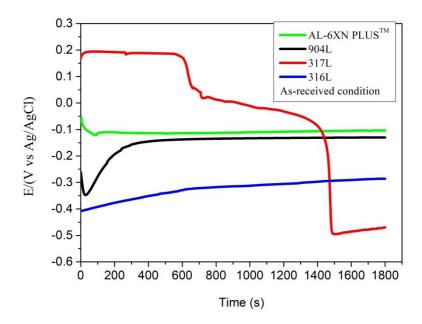


Figure 5: Open circuit potentials for the studied steels

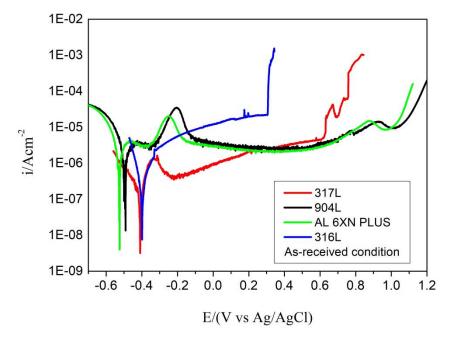


Figure 6: Linear polarization curves for the steels in the as-received condition

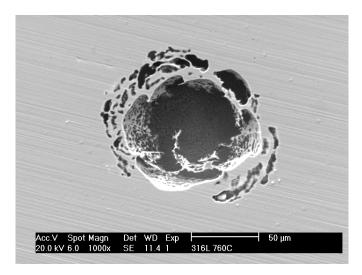


Figure 7: Pit on the surface of the 316L steel after linear polarization tests

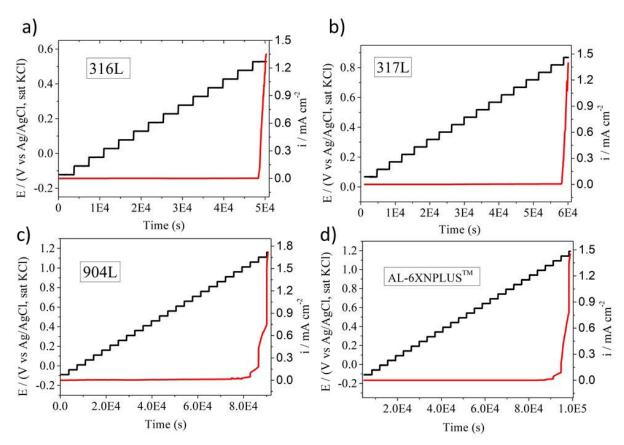


Figure 8: Plots with the potential steps, current density and time for the studied alloys in artificial oil field formation water

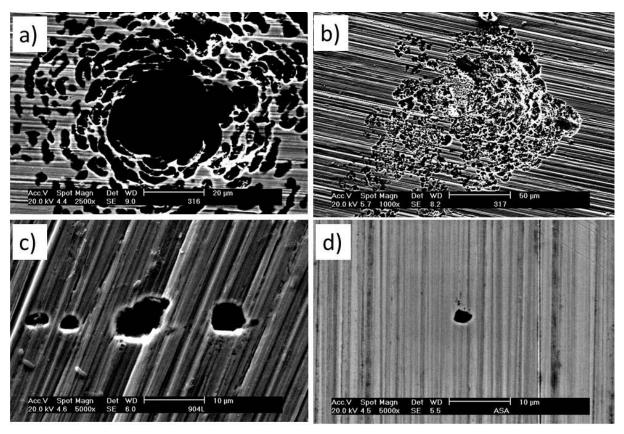


Figure 9: SEM image showing the pits formation on the surfaces of the studied alloys, a) 316L, b) 317L, c) 904L and d) AL-6XNPLUS™



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I. Introduction

"he removal of carbon dioxide (CO2) is significant for oil and gas industry due to its harmful acidic effects on oil and gas pipelines with no added energy value to natural gas [1]. Because of the increasing indications of CO2 implication in global warming [2], capturing CO₂ from its emitting sources is becoming a vital topic. Adsorption is offering an effective alternative for CO2 capturing comparing to other capture technologies [3]. There are many types of gas adsorbents; conventional, like, activated carbons, silica gel, ion-exchange resins, zeolites, and mesoporous silicates, activated alumina, metal oxides, and new like, carbon fibers and metal-organic frameworks. [4]. Adsorbent most important feature is adsorbing capacity [5], besides, good adsorbent should be selective and chemically and mechanically durable [6]. AC is cost-effective and adaptable microporous adsorbent [7] and is considered a superb adsorbent due to its high specific surface area, appropriate pore size distribution, diversity of surface chemistry [8]. It's mostly micropore structure were used extensively in liquids and gases systems. The micropores and mesopores of the AC particles were utilized to accommodate the impregnating molecules, which can be attached chemically (grafting) or physically (impregnation) to the AC particles [9]. Impregnation of AC particles with chemicals improves their natural adsorption capability to adsorb gases Alkanolamines, such as, monoethanolamine (MEA), diethanolamine (DEA), and methyldiethanolamine (MDEA) are very important absorbents for acidic gases in the field of natural gas sweetening and for mitigation the adversity of these gases on environment [11] and they are extensively used in CO₂ absorption from different gas sources [12]. MEA, which is a primary amine, has been used intensively to capture CO2 from gas streams and from many various sources due to its fast reaction kinetics with CO2, low coast and thermal stability, as it is more favorable than other alkanolamines [13] [14]. Because of the effectiveness of liquid amine absorption process researchers were encouraged to utilize amines in their solid state for CO₂ capture [15]. Adsorption kinetics is essential tool used to evaluate the performance of an adsorbent and to understand the mechanism of adsorption [16] and many researches had included kinetics of batch CO2 adsorption on different adsorbents in their works [17]. They found that the restriction step is the intraparticle diffusion (pore diffusion). On contrary to the findings of this paper where the restrictive step to CO₂ adsorption was the film diffusion. In this research, dynamic adsorption experiments were conducted to investigate the adsorption kinetics of MEA-impregnated AC particles packed in adsorption column to adsorb CO2 from gas

II. MATERIALS AND METHODOLOGY

a) Materials

Certified analytical reagent monoethanolamine (MEA), C₂H₇NO, molecular weight 61.

- Commercial palm shell AC was purchased from Bravo Green SDN BHD (Sarawak, Malaysia).
- 3. Gases
- Mixture of 15% CO₂ with 85% N₂. a.
- Pure N₂.
- b) Methodology
 - i. AC Particles Characterization

Granulated palm shell AC particles were physically activated by steam. The mostly micropore particles have total Bet surface area of 838 cm²/g, while the micropore surface area of that total area is 675 cm²/g and micropore volume is 0.32 cm³/g.

ii. AC Beds Perpetration

A household coffee grinder crushed the AC particles. 710 and 500 µm sieves were employed to characterize the AC particles to the required particle size of 500 μ m (particles passing 710 and stopping on 500 μ m sieve).

iii. Impregnation of AC Samples

Impregnation was carried out by placing 5 g of granular AC in a beaker, 2 g of MEA added to the beaker with 10 g of deionized water as an environmentally friendly medium and to facilitate the impregnation process. The beaker contents were stirred at 500 rpm for 1 hour at room temperature. The final slurry then dried completely in Heraeus Instrument Vacuthermo oven at 70°C under 0.1 bar vacuum pressure (absolute) for 6 hours. Samples of AC particles prepared for CO₂ adsorption separation experiments are, non-impregnated AC particles and MEAimpregnated AC particles.

iv. Working Breakthrough Time

Working breakthrough time was utilized as a method to evaluate the performance of AC beds. Breakthrough time can be defined as the time spanning from the beginning of the adsorption experiment to the point when CO₂ molecules start to break through out of the adsorption column, which was monitored by Guardian Plus CO₂ monitor. Data Acquisition Logger was connected to the CO₂ monitor to measure the breakthrough time in minutes.

Experimental setup is presented in another work [18].

v. Amine-CO2 Reactions

Amines remove CO₂ in a two-step process:

- The gas absorbs by the liquid forming a weak acid.
- The weak acid reacts with amines as a weak base [19].

The suggested [20] reaction path of primary and secondary unhindered amines with CO2 is known as the carbamate formation reaction proceeds through the formation of zwitterion, which was recognized as the reaction mechanism [21].

The first step of the reaction is the formation of amine-CO₂ zwitterion as shown in Equation 1a:

$$CO_2 + R_1R_2NH \leftrightarrow R_1R_2N^+HCOO^-$$
 (Zwitterion) (1a)

The second step is the deprotonation of the zwitterion. For liquid amine reaction, the water would act as a base acquiring the proton released by the zwitterions. In the case of solid amine reaction, another amine molecule would acquire the released proton as the maximum theoretical amount of CO2 reacting with amine would be 0.5 mol CO2/1 mol N2 as shown in equation 1. In this step, the zwitterion would be stabilized by producing carbamate as in equation 1b.

$$R_1R_2N^+HCOO^- + R_1R_2NH \leftrightarrow R_1R_2NCOO^-$$
 (Carbamate) $+ R_1R_2NH_2^+$ (1b)

The overall reaction is as in equation 1:

$$CO_2 + 2R_1R_2NH \leftrightarrow R_1R_2NH_2^+ + R_1R_2NCOO^-$$
 (1)

vi. Rate and Mechanism of Adsorption

To investigate the rate of adsorption two equations were explored namely, pseudo first order (SFO) and pseudo second order (PSO) equations. The mechanism of adsorption and the adsorption controlling step was determined by Weber-Morris intraparticle diffusion model.

III. Results and Discussions

a) Impacts of MEA Surface-Modification on AC Particles MEA molecules occupied the pores of the mostly micropore AC particles and blocked them. reducing significantly the micropore surface area from 675 to 36m²/g (96%) and micropore volume from 0.32 to 0.02cm³/g (94%). MEA-blocked AC particles adsorb selectively more CO₂ comparing to non-impregnated AC

particles by 172%, as the adsorption capacity increased from 49 to 18 mg/g, respectively.

b) Adsorption Kinetics

i. Adsorption Rate

Pseudo first and second order models were investigated to find out which model is predicting the adsorption rate appropriately.

a. Pseudo First Order Model (SFO)

Lagergren [22] published his SFO model to describe homogenous adsorption on solid phase as in equation 2. The equation depends on the adsorption capacity of an adsorption bed rather than concentration of adsorbate as in the case of first order model equation and the adsorption rate is related to the availability of adsorption sites [23]. It had been reported that SFO model can be applied adequately for the adsorption kinetics of CO2 on AC [24].

$$\frac{dq_t}{dt} = k_1(q_e - q_t) \tag{2}$$

The linear form of equation 1 is as in equation 3:

$$ln(q_e - q_t) = ln q_e - \frac{k_1}{2.303} t$$
 (3)

Where,

- qe: Adsorption capacity at equilibrium, mg/g.
- q.: Adsorption capacity at any time t, mg/g.
- k₁: Pseudo-first order rate constant, 1/min.
- t: Time, min.

Figure 1 is a plot of ln (q_e-q_t) against t for the whole adsorption experiment showing that the straight line fitting the experimental results has good value of R² equal to 0.9967, which is suggesting that the SFO kinetic model is applicable for this research. The slope of the straight line from equation 3 is $(\frac{k_1}{2.303})$, where the value of the SFO rate (k_1) was found to be 0.00552721/min.

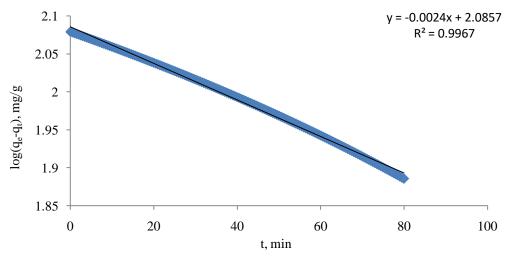


Figure 1: Plot of In (q_e-q_t) against time

b. Pseudo Second Order Model (PSO)

PSO model is usually applied for chemisorption kinetics sorption of liquid solutions [25], the model is in equation 4 and its linear form is as in equation 5:

$$\frac{dq_t}{dt} = k (q_e - q_t)^2 \tag{4}$$

$$\frac{t}{q} = \frac{1}{k^2 q_e^2} + \frac{1}{q_e} t \tag{5}$$

The plot of t/q against t for PSO model as in equation 5, didn't yield straight line for the whole experimental data or even for any of its portions on contrary to the straight line of plot In (q_e-q_t) against t for PFO model, which covers the whole experimental data and suggesting that the adsorption rate here is following PFO model which would be applied to calculate adsorption rate constant (k₁).

ii. Verification the Rate-Determining Step of the MEA-Impregnated AC Adsorption Bed

Equation 6 is the intraparticle diffusion equation [26],

$$q_t = k_p t^{\frac{1}{2}} + c \tag{6}$$

Where:

qt: Amount of adsorbate absorbed at any time, mg g-1. k_p : Intraparticle diffusion rate constant, mg g⁻¹ min^{-1/2}. t: Time, min.

c: Intercept, mg g-1

The multilinearity displayed in Figure 2, the plot of the amount of CO2 adsorbed (qt) against the square root of time (t1/2) is suggesting that more than one step is taking place. The straight line fitting the curve is not passing through the origin, indicating that the intraparticle diffusion is not the adsorption rate restrictive step [27]. The curve is divided into three zones where the slope of the linear part indicating the rate of adsorption and the rate controlling step is represented by the linear section with lowest slope value [28]. The first zone is the initial zone where the external diffusion of CO₂ molecules through the bulk gas phase is taking place and the slope which is representing the adsorption rate is low. The second zone is the film diffusion where the mass transfer of CO2 molecules is continuing through the CO2 film surrounding the AC particles. The slope of the straight line of the second zone is higher than that of the initial zone but lower than that of the third zone due to the resistance exerted by CO2 gas film, which is indicating that this step combining with the initial zone step are slow and the overall adsorption rate is controlled by mass transfer and film resistances respectively. In the third zone, where the amount of CO2 molecules adsorbed (q1)

versus t1/2 is displaying a straight line with high slope value indicating that CO2 molecules intraparticle diffusion step is fast, where CO₂ molecules adsorption is enhanced by the fast CO₂-MEA reaction. The intercept (c) is an indicator of the thickness of the boundary layer surrounding the MEA-impregnated AC particles. Higher values of intercept suggest that the boundary layer is building up as the value of the c in the initial zone is less than that of zone 1, which is in turn less than that of zone 2 deducing that diffusion through the gas film may be considered as the controlling step [29]. CO₂ adsorption in zone 2 is approaching its final stage and the active sites on MEA-impregnated AC particles are not able to adsorb more CO₂ molecules.

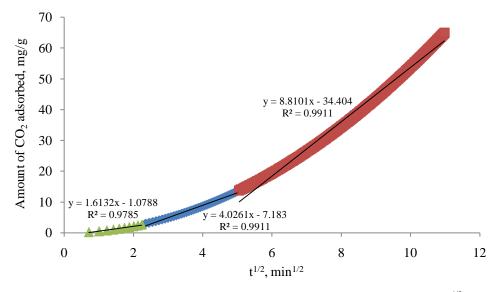


Figure 2: CO₂ Amount adsorbed, mg/g against square root of time, min^{1/2}

iii. Gas Film Diffusion Model

The transportation of CO₂ molecules from the gas stream bulk to the surface of the AC particles is playing a major role as the analysis of the intraparticle model showed that the mass transfer of CO2 molecules through the gas film is the limiting step of CO₂ adsorption. To further inspect that gas film is the limiting step in CO2 molecules adsorption, gas film diffusion model was applied [30], [31] and [32]:

$$\frac{q_t}{q_e} = 1 - e^{k_{fd}t} \tag{7}$$

(7)

The linearized form of equation 7 is as in equation 8:

$$ln(1 - F) = -k_{fd}t$$
(8)

Where,

F: Fractional adsorption equilibrium (F = q_t/q_e). k_{fd}: Film diffusion coefficient, min⁻¹.

A plot as in Figure 3 of $-\ln (1 - F)$ vs t with intercept equal to zero and R² equal to 0.99 is suggesting that adsorption kinetics is controlled by diffusion through the CO₂ gas film surrounding the AC particles.

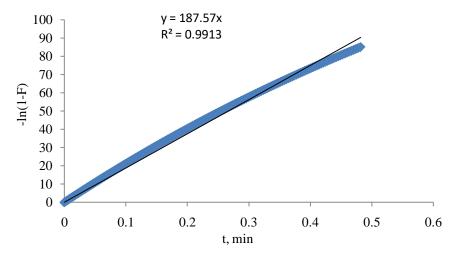


Figure 3: Plot of -In (F-1) against time

iv. Avrami (JMAK) Model

Johnson-Mehl-Avrami-Kolmogorov (JMKA) model, which is called Avrami model too, is expressed inequation 9, [33] and [34]. Avrami equation describes the growth of crystallites with respect to time. In this work Avrami equation is describing the increasing numbers of CO₂ molecules by adsorption inside the AC pores.

$$\alpha = 1 - \exp\left(-k_{Av}(t)^n\right) \tag{9}$$

Where, α is adsorption fraction at time t, k_{Av} is the Avrami kinetic constant, and n is a constant which represents the mechanism of particles adsorption (growth).

The linearized form is as in equation 10:

$$\ln(-\ln(1-\alpha)) = nlnk_{Av} + nlnt \tag{10}$$

Plotting In $(-\ln(1-\alpha))$ against In t as in Figure 4 producing straight line (R²=0.9991) with intercept equal to nlnk, and slope equal to n. If Avrami constant n equal to 1. Furthermore the value of Avrami exponent n, which is $1 \le n \le 2$ suggesting one dimensional growth of crystallites and that the growth is homogenous [35], which is agreeing with exponent n in micropore filling method of Dubinin-Astakhov (D-A), equation 11 and its linearized form equation 13. D-A equation is applicable for homogeneous carbonaceous adsorbents with micropore structures [36]. It was found in other study [37] that the value of D-A exponent n for MEAimpregnated beds is showing less heterogeneity and more homogeneity with their exponent n value equal to 2, where the value of exponent n in AC is 3 - 1.5. Moving from 3 to 1.5 the microporous system would be getting more heterogeneous [38] and [39].

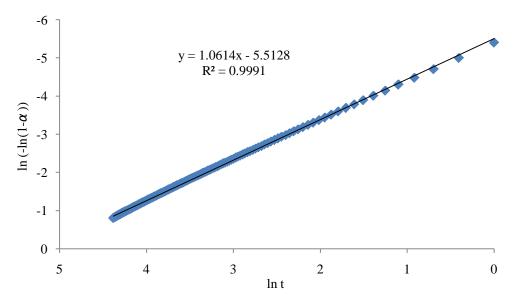


Figure 4: Plot of In (-In $(1-\alpha)$) against In (t)

c) Mass Balance Mathematical Modeling

Adsorption of CO₂ molecules from feed gas stream containing 15% CO₂ and 85% N₂ was performed in fixed bed packed column of non-impregnated and MEA-impregnated AC beds. Breakthrough time was employed as real time tool to evaluate the efficiency of the adsorption beds. CO₂ monitor was used to display the concentration (%) of the gas stream exiting the adsorption column. Graphs of CO2 molecules concentration leaving the adsorption column plotted against time were obtained from the data acquisition logger connected to the outlet of the adsorption column.

i. Mathematical Modeling of MEA-Impregnated 500 μm Adsorption Bed

To formulate a general mathematical model corresponding to the mainly micropore adsorption mechanism and to cover the two stages mentioned earlier, the following assumptions were made:

- The system operates under isothermal, isobaric and diabatic conditions.
- The porosity of the adsorption bed was uniform and constant.
- 3. The equilibrium of adsorption is a nonlinear isotherm.
- 4. The velocity distribution is constant across the column diameter.
- The volumetric flow rate is constant along the column.

Summarizes of the experimental parameters simulation boundary conditions mathematical model validation are in Table 1:

Table 1: Experimental data and simulation boundary conditions

Operating conditions			
Pressure	1 atm		
Temperature	25°C		
Inlet concentration	6.05118E10 ⁻⁶ mol/ml		
Inlet volumetric flow rate	10 ml/min		
Adsorption column			
Material	Glass		
Inside diameter	1 cm		
Bed height	9 cm		
Bed weight	5 g		
Bed Volume	7.23 cm ³		
Adsorbent properties			
Bed type	Non-impregnated AC	MEA-impregnated AC	
Particles size	500 μm	500 μ m	
Micropore surface area	675 m ² /g	65 m²/g	
Micropore particle porosity	0.0956 cm ³ /g	0.020 cm ³ /g	
Porosity	0.684	0.620	
Bulk density	1.6387 cm ³ /g	1.6228 cm ³ /g	
Bed Volume	7.2285 cm ³	6.2857 cm ³	
Pseudo 1st order reaction constant (k)	-	0.004836 1/min	

ii. Mathematical Model of MEA-Impregnated AC Bed

The mathematical model was based on the CO₂ molecules breaking through the adsorption bed.

The adsorption of CO₂ molecules was declining and more CO₂ molecules were exiting the bed.

The general equation of mass balance with first order chemical reaction for CO₂ in the feed gas:

Accumulation = Input - Output + Generation

As the mass balance would be conducted on CO₂ molecules exiting the adsorption bed, the mass balance equation would be:

Output=Input-Accumulation +Generation

$$v\frac{dc_o}{dt} = qc_i - qc_{acc} + vk_1c \tag{14}$$

Where:

K₁: Pseudo first order reaction constant, 1/min.

C_i: Concentration of CO₂ entering the AC bed, mol/ml.

C_o: Concentration of CO₂ exiting the AC bed, mol/ml.

C_{acc}: Concentration of CO₂accumulated in the AC bed, mol/ml.

Equation 14 is an ordinary first order linear differential equation and the final solution would be as in Equation 15.

$$C = C_i + n e^{(-(q/v - k_1)t)}$$
 (15)

Initial boundary condition:

At
$$t = 0$$
, $C = 0$

 $n = -C_i$

Then equation 15 would be:

$$C = C_{-}i - C_{-}i \ e^{(-(q/v - k_{-}1)t)}$$
 (16)

Rearranging equation 16:

$$C = C_i \left(\frac{q/v}{(q/v) - k_1} \right) \left(1 - e^{-((q/v) - k_1)t} \right)$$
 (17)

The simulated results were validated by using the experimental results of the MEA-impregnated activated carbon bed. The simulated results were compared with the experimental data. The simulated data demonstrated a reasonable agreement with the experimental data, as the root mean square error (RMSE) calculated was 6.75915E-06. The simulated and experimental data of MEA-impregnated AC beds were plotted in Figure 5.

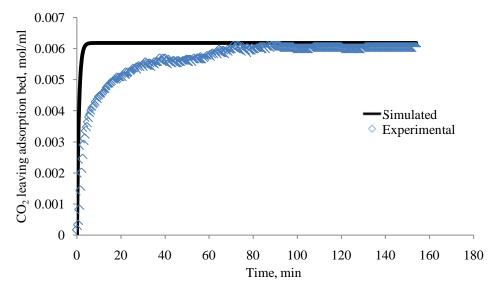


Figure 5: Comparison of CO₂ experimental and simulated breakthrough curves for MEA-impregnated AC bed (Sampled at column outlet)

IV. Conclusions

MEA-impregnated AC particles were used to adsorb CO2 from gas mixture. Results are showing that AC particles impregnated with MEA adsorb CO₂ molecules in a pseudo first order reaction manner and that the controlling step in this reaction is the mass transfer of CO₂ molecules from through the CO₂ gas film and not the intraparticle diffusion of CO2 molecules inside the pores of MEA-impregnated AC particles. Due to the homogeneity of the MEA-impregnated activated carbon particles the adsorption of CO2 molecules follows the Avrami model of homogenous crystallites growth. The mass balance mathematical model showed that the experimental and simulated breakthrough curves have good agreement, as the root mean square error (RMSE) was 5.7678E-09 and 3.88532E-09 for nonimpregnated and MEA-impregnated beds respectively, which also proved that the adsorption mechanism of both beds is the same.

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Moisture-dependent Physical Properties and Hydration Kinetics of Peanut Kernel

By Shubhra Shekhar, Manoj Singh & Kamlesh Prasad

Abstract- The physical properties of agricultural objects affected by moisture are essential for effective postharvest unit operations. Raw peanut in India is used in a wide variety of forms, and the process involved often soaking in water before being used as an ingredient in the preparation of different delicacies. Soaking and grinding in preparation of seasonings are commonly used to garnish the most traditional fermented foods such as *idly, dosa, vada,* and *uttapam* with several other breakfast items in the Indian subcontinent. The effect of moisture content (6.57 to 35.07%) on physical properties and the temperature (5 to 35°C) dependent soaking behavior of peanut kernel of GG-20 genotype were assessed. The increase in moisture content of peanuts has affected the dimensional characteristics linearly, whereas most of the gravimetric and frictional properties followed a nonlinear trend. The feasibility of different models describing the hydration behavior was assessed for the peanut kernel. The adequacy of fitted models was determined using the coefficient of determination (R²), chi-square (χ^2), and root mean square error (RMSE). The values of these parameters as higher R² (\geq 0.96) and lower χ^2 (\leq 0.005) and RMSE (\leq 0.020) reflect the applicability of models in describing the soaking behavior of the peanut kernel.

Keywords: peanut, physical properties, soaking, diffusion, models, hydration.

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Moisture-dependent Physical Properties and Hydration Kinetics of Peanut Kernel

Shubhra Shekhar a, Manoj Singh a & Kamlesh Prasad b

Abstract- The physical properties of agricultural objects affected by moisture are essential for effective postharvest unit operations. Raw peanut in India is used in a wide variety of forms, and the process involved often soaking in water before being used as an ingredient in the preparation of different delicacies. Soaking and grinding in preparation of seasonings are commonly used to garnish the most traditional fermented foods such as idly, dosa, vada, and uttapam with several other breakfast items in the Indian subcontinent. The effect of moisture content (6.57 to 35.07%) on physical properties and the temperature (5 to 35°C) dependent soaking behavior of peanut kernel of GG-20 genotype were assessed. The increase in moisture content of peanuts has affected the dimensional characteristics linearly, whereas most of the gravimetric and frictional properties followed a nonlinear trend. The feasibility of different models describing the hydration behavior was assessed for the peanut kernel. The adequacy of fitted models was determined using the coefficient of determination (R²), chi-square (χ^2), and root mean square error (RMSE). The values of these parameters as higher R² (≥0.96) and lower χ^2 (≤ 0.005) and RMSE (≤ 0.020) reflect the applicability of models in describing the soaking behavior of the peanut kernel. The rate of moisture uptake at different temperatures during hydration depicts the process as diffusion-controlled in the primary phase, with a higher absorption rate followed by a slower absorption rate during the secondary phase of hydration. Effective diffusivity in the endothermic process of moisture absorption varied from 2.905×10^{-10} to 10.754×10^{-10} (m²/sec.) over the studied temperature range with the activation energy of 32.175 KJ/mol. peanut, physical properties, Keywords: soaking. diffusion, models, hydration.

I. Introduction

eanut (Arachis hypogaea) is the 3rd most crucial oilseed crop after soybean and cotton. Being a legume crop, it is rich in protein. This tropical cash crop is often referred to as "The king of oilseeds," groundnut, earth nut, wonder nut, or poor men's cashew nut. India is the pioneer producer of peanuts with a production of 6.48 MMT and contributed more than 18% of world production for 2020 (FAOSTAT 2022)[1]. The chief peanut-producing states in India are Gujarat, Rajasthan, Andhra Pradesh, Tamil Nadu, and Madhya

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Pradesh. These five states account for around 90% of the total area under peanut cultivation, mainly as the Kharif season crop (June - September). As a leguminous crop, it is grown in crop rotation mainly to maintain soil health and reduce soil erosion.

Eighty percent of the total peanut produced in India undergoes processing for oil extraction through either mechanical or solvent extraction in a batch or continuous process. The high temperature in most efficient mechanical extractors damages the edible quality of obtained defatted materials and is unsuitable for human consumption (BADWAIK, PRASAD, DEKA 2012)[2]. Residual solvent associated with solventextracted defatted peanut meal creates problems in its utilization for various value-added products (BADWAIK, PRASAD, SETH 2014)[3], therefore affecting the loss of valuable resources.

Peanut may be considered a functional food, as it contains numerous functional and health-promoting including arginine, mono, polyunsaturated fatty acids, dietary fiber, folate, niacin, vitamin E, and most of the vital minerals (GOPALAN, RAMA SASTRI, BALASUBRAMANIAN 1971)^[4] beneficial for human health. The presence of bioactive phenolic compounds provides this valuable biomaterial with a rich source antioxidants (FRANCISCO, RESURRECCION 2008)^[5]. Raw peanut in India is used in a wide variety of forms. The process involved often soaking in water before being used as an ingredient in the preparation of different delicacies. Soaking and grinding in preparation of seasonings are commonly used to garnish the most traditional fermented foods such as idly, dosa, vada, and uttapam with several other breakfast items in the Indian subcontinent (ACHAYA $1984)^{[6]}$.

The physical properties of peanut kernels, like those of other seeds, become helpful in designing equipment, especially for handling, processing, and storing. The moisture content of grain affects the efficiency of cleaning, grading, and separation processes (YALÇIN, ÖZARSLAN, AKBAŞ 2007)^[7]. The author has made investigations the determination of the physical properties of various leguminous splits, such as chickpeas, lentils, black gram, and green gram SHARMA, PRASAD, PRASAD (BHATIA. PRASAD, VAIRAGAR, BERA 2010)[9] KAUR, SHEKHAR. KUMAR, PRASAD 2021)^{[10;} KAUR, PRASAD 2022)^{[11;} KAUR, PRASAD 2022)[12; KAUR, PRASAD 2021)[13].

Limited studies on water absorption kinetics for peanuts were carried out. The present study aims to investigate moisture-dependent physical properties temperature-dependent water absorption kinetics to assess the adequacy of mathematical models in describing the process of water absorption kinetics.

II. Materials and Methods

Sample Preparation

The dried whole peanut pods of genotype GG-20 were procured from the Central Institute of Postharvest Engineering and Technology (CIPHET), Punjab Agricultural University Campus (PAU), Ludhiana (Punjab). The whole peanut pods were cleaned and dehulled. The kernels were manually sorted to separate damaged and shrunk kernels. The sorted sound kernels (Fig. 1) were stored in air-tight glass containers and under refrigerated conditions. The samples were taken out as per the experimental requirements. The initial moisture contents of the kernels were determined using the hot air oven method (GUPTA, DAS 2000)[14]. The predetermined weight of moisture was impregnated to obtain the four levels of moisture content for the peanut kernels as $5.57\pm0.56\%$, $15.09\pm0.65\%$, $24.98\pm0.51\%$, and 35.07±0.61% (wet basis), conditioned and stored at 5±1°C. The samples for the study were taken out and kept in the ambient environmental condition in sealed pouches to equilibrate quickly and without any change of moisture content.

b) Determination of Physical Properties

The geometrical shape consisting of a cylinder and two hemispheres at the ends has been found to be quantitative appropriateness for peanuts (AKCALI, INCE, GUZEL 2006)^[15]. The physical dimensions were determined randomly measured for three major perpendicular dimensions, length (L), width (W), and thickness (T), of 100 seeds of each variety using a digital vernier caliper (Mitutoyo Corporation, Japan) having the precision of 0.01mm. The geometric mean dimension (D_a) of peanut kernels was found using the relationship as given (MOHSENIN 2020)^[16]:

$$D_a = \sqrt[3]{LWT} \tag{1}$$

The criteria used to describe the shape of the seed are sphericity. Thus, the sphericity (ϕ) was accordingly computed (MOHSENIN 2020)[16] as:

$$\Phi = \left[\frac{D_g}{L}\right] 100 \tag{2}$$

The surface area (S_a) was calculated (Eqn. 3) considering the geometrical properties of the kernel as:

$$S_a = \pi \times L \times T \tag{3}$$

Electronic balance (Ishida Co. Ltd., Japan) was used to measure the weight of the sample to an accuracy of 0.001 g. The true density of a peanut kernel is defined as the ratio of the mass of the seed to the solid volume occupied (DESHPANDE, BAL, OJHA 1993)^[17]. The liquid displacement technique determined the seed volume and its true density. The immersion time was maintained below 10 sec, which was considered too small to absorb water. The amount of displaced water was recorded from the graduated scale of the measuring cylinder (AMIN, HOSSAIN, ROY 2004)^[18]. The porosity (ε) of bulk seed was computed from the values of true density (ρ_t) and bulk density (ρ_h) using the relationship (Eqn. 4) given (MOHSENIN 2020)[16]:

$$\varepsilon = \left[1 - \left(\frac{\rho_b}{\rho_t}\right)\right] 100\tag{4}$$

To determine the angle of repose (φ), a cylinder of 50 mm diameter was used. The height and diameter of the formed heap of peanut kernels were measured to determine the angle of repose (φ) using the relationship:

$$\varphi = \arctan \frac{(2H)}{D} \tag{5}$$

Where H is the height of the heap (mm), and D is the diameter of the heap (mm) at its base.

The static coefficient of friction (µ) was determined for three structural surfaces, namely galvanized steel sheets, glass, and plywood. A plastic cylinder of 50 mm diameter and 60 mm height was placed on an adjustable tilting flat plate faced with the test surface and filled with a sample of about 100 g. The cylinder was raised slightly to ensure complete contact with the peanut kernel and the experimenting surface and to avoid any error being induced by the test cylinder. The setup was then inclined gradually until the cylinder started sliding down. The angle of tilt was noted from a graduated scale (DUTTA, NEMA, BHARDWAJ 1988)^{[19;} SHEPHERD, BHARDWAJ 1986)^[20].

$$\tan \alpha = \mu \tag{6}$$

All the experiments were replicated at least ten times, and average values were reported.

Water Absorption during Soaking

The hydration behavior of peanut kernel was determined by soaking a 50g sample in cylindrical glass containers containing 250 ml of distilled water (1:5 w/v) (ABD EL-HADY, HABIBA 2003)[21]. Soaking water temperatures were 5, 15, 25, and 35°C. Before each experiment, the sample, containers, and distilled water were kept at the desired temperature for a few hours. Hydration behavior was precisely observed for up to 24 hours using an electronically controlled water bath to an accuracy of ±0.2°C (RESIO, AGUERRE, SUAREZ 2005)^[22]. The moisture content of the sample during hydration was determined based on the sample's weight increase. Soaked kernels were immediately blotted with the muslin cloth to remove any chance of the presence of surface water before taking the reading (VERMA, PRASAD 1999)^[23].

d) Modeling of Water Absorption of Peanut Kernels

The kinetics of hydration of peanut kernels was assessed using selected models presented in Table 1. Analysis of absorption behavior through selected models, the time-dependent data of moisture content, and moisture ratio (MR) of peanut kernels is essential. The moisture ratio was calculated as follows:

$$MR = \frac{M_t - M_e}{M_0 - M_e} \tag{7}$$

These parameters can be calculated as follows:

Where M_o, M_e and M_t are the initial equilibrium, and moisture at any time t, respectively. The moisture ratio data were then fitted to the different models (exponential model and Weibull model). The parameters in each model were estimated by using the nonlinear regression analysis. Adequacy of the fitted model was assessed in terms of coefficient of multiple determination (R²), Chi-square (χ^2), and root mean square error (RMSE) to ascertain the quality fit with a condition of higher R² value and lower χ^2 and RMSE values (KASHANINEJAD, MAGHSOUDLOU, RAFIEE, KHOMEIRI 2007)^[24].

$$R^{2} = \frac{\left[\sum_{i=1}^{N} (MR_{exp.i}MR_{pre.i}) - \left(\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N} MR_{exp.i})(\sum_{i=1}^{N} MR_{pre.i})}{N}\right)\right]^{2}}{\left[\left(\sum_{i=1}^{N} MR_{exp.i}^{2} - \frac{(\sum_{i=1}^{N} MR_{exp.i})^{2}}{N}\right)\left((\sum_{i=1}^{N} MR_{pre.i}^{2}) - \frac{(\sum_{i=1}^{N} MR_{pre.i})^{2}}{N}\right)\right]}$$
(8)

$$\chi^{2} = \frac{1}{N-n} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (MR_{exp,i} - MR_{pre,i})^{2}$$
 (9)

$$RMSE = \sqrt{\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (MR_{pre,i} - MR_{exp,i})^2}$$
 (10)

where $\mbox{MR}_{\mbox{\tiny exp,i}}$ is the $\mbox{i}^{\mbox{\tiny th}}$ experimentally observed moisture ratio, MR_{pre.i} the ith predicted moisture ratio, N is the number of observations, and n is the number of constants in the model (YALÇıN, ÖZARSLAN, AKBAŞ 2007)^{[7;} TOĞRUL, PEHLIVAN 2003)^[25].

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

a) Physical Properties

An increase in moisture content from 5 to 35% has shown a linear change in length (L), width (W), thickness (T), and geometric mean diameter (GMD) of peanut kernels (Fig. 2) from 14.52 to 16.37 mm, 8.40 to 9.61 mm, 7.41 to 8.79 mm, and 9.67 to 11.14 mm, respectively (Table 2). A linear dimensional increase in peanut kernels with an increase in moisture content was mainly due to the absorption of moisture that resulted in the swelling of peanut cells and thus affected kernel's dimensional properties. The linear increase in width and thickness has also been reported for popcorn kernel 2006)[26] (KARABABA and pistachio (KASHANINEJAD, MORTAZAVI, SAFEKORDI, TABIL 2006)^[27]. A minor initial decrease in the sphericity (ϕ) of peanut kernel with further increase as the increase in moisture content is evident (Fig 2). The initial decrease in sphericity may be attributed to the initial higher rate of lateral expansion in comparison to the change in the width and thickness. However, at later stages of moisture gain, the rate of expansion in width and thickness increased more and caused to increase in sphericity. The high sphericity value suggests that the kernel tends towards a spherical shape (OMOBUWAJO. SANNI, OLAJIDE 2000)^[28], being cylindrical. The surface area (S_a) of peanut kernels increased linearly from 3.38 to 4.52 cm² with increased moisture content. It was of overall 33.73% increase (Fig. 2). A surface area is a relevant tool in determining the shape of the kernel and indicating the material behavior on oscillating surfaces during processing (ALONGE, ADIGUN 1999)^[29].

The unit mass (UM) of peanut kernel was found to be increased from 0.462 to 0.724 gm with an increase in moisture content (Table 2). Differential sphericity, surface area, and unit mass of materials serve in designing aerodynamic cleaning systems. Bulk density (ρ_R) decreased from 560 to 496 kg/m³ with an increase in moisture (Fig. 3). This decrease in the bulk density on change of moisture content is probably due to higher volume expansion in kernel in comparison to weight change on change in moisture content (Fig. 3). A decrease in bulk density was found for chickpea seeds from 800 to 741.4 kg/m³ with an increase in moisture content from 4.9 to 14.1% (AMIN, HOSSAIN, ROY 2004)^[18]. A similar relation between moisture content and bulk density was reported for (DESHPANDE, BAL, OJHA 1993)[17], sunflower seed (GUPTA, DAS 1997)[30], and popcorn kernel (KARABABA 2006)^[26]. Porosity increased linearly from 39.58 to 46.77% with an increase in moisture content, and similar trends were reported for gram (DUTTA, NEMA, BHARDWAJ 1988)[31], sunflower kernel (GUPTA, DAS 1997)[30], green gram (NIMKAR, CHATTOPADHYAY 2001)[32], chickpea seed (KONAK, CARMAN, AYDIN 2002)^[33], and popcorn kernel(KARABABA 2006)^[26].

The angle of repose and coefficient of friction as frictional properties are essential in designing equipment for solid flow and storage structures. The coefficient of friction between the seed and wall is an essential

parameter in predicting seed pressure on walls (GUMBE, MAINA 1990)[34]. The angle of repose of peanut kernels increased from 39.01 to 50.48° with an increase in moisture content in the range of 5 to 35% (Table 2). The static coefficient of friction at various moisture levels reflects the increase in moisture content for all the analyzed surfaces (Fig. 4). This is due to the increased adhesion properties between the seed and the material surfaces at higher moisture levels.

b) Soaking Kinetics

The behavior of moisture uptake during timedependent soaking by peanut kernel at temperatures 5, 15, 25, and 35°C is shown in Fig. 5. An early rapid hydration rate in the primary phase with a slower hydration rate in the second phase was observed (Fig. 5). The time needed for the transition of phase was found by applying the creep deformation properties in the water absorption process, observed to be temperature-dependent, and were 2.80, 2.56, 1.89, and 1.24 hrs at 5, 15, 25, and 35°C, respectively. The diffusion process governs the rapid initial water uptake in the primary phase was probably due to the filling of capillaries on the surface of the seed coats. A decrease in water absorption rate further in the relaxation phase may be attributed to the reason that water filling decreased the driving force. At any time, the moisture content of the kernels increased with temperature, indicating that the amount of water absorbed during hydration was a function of both soaking time and temperature (Fig. 5). Similar results were found in the case of rice (KASHANINEJAD, MAGHSOUDLOU, RAFIEE, KHOMEIRI 2007)^[24]. The water gain increases with the temperature increase of soaking water (Fig. 5). This increase is due to changes in diffusion resistance. Higher temperatures are known to expand and soften the material, which has affected the intactness and lowered the diffusion resistance to water transfer. Due to this, water gain cannot follow the pace of increased temperature. Temperature-induced softening has been reported for soybean (SINGH, KULSHRESTHA 1987)[35], chickpea(SAYAR, TURHAN, GUNASEKARAN 2001)[36], and kidney bean (ABU-GHANNAM, MCKENNA 1997)[37].

c) Fitting of the Model Equation

i. Empirical Models

Table 3 presents the fitted Peleg, Exponential, and Weibull models as nonlinear regression models to describe the water absorption characteristic of peanut kernels at hydration temperatures of 5 to 35°C. All selected models accurately described peanut kernel's water absorption at the hydration temperatures from 5 to 35°C. The selected models gave accurate predictions and satisfactorily described soaking characteristics as R² values were equal to or higher than 96.36%, RMSE values were lower than 0.005 with χ^2 valued lower than 0.005 (Table 3).

Appraisal of the Peleg rate constant (K₁) reflects a linear decrease in its value from 0.065 to 0.017 hr/%mc (db) with the increasing temperature from 5 to 35°C (Table 3). The term "inverse of K₁" is called the initial rate of absorption; thus, at a given temperature, as K₁ decreases, the amount of water absorbed becomes greater (PRASAD, VAIRAGAR, BERA 2010)[9]. This resulted in a lower K₁ at 35°C compared to a lower temperatures depicting a higher initial water absorption rate for peanut kernel. Further, the water absorption process proceeded at a slower pace and ceased attaining the equilibrium water content. The Peleg capacity constant, K2 as the absorption ability of foods showed a marginal increase with temperature (Table 3), reflecting the property of peanut kernel towards water absorption capacity.

The probabilistic Weibull model describes a system's behavior with some degree of variability (CUNHA, OLIVEIRA, OLIVEIRA 1998)[38]. Weibull shape parameter (α) is a behavior index that depends on the process mechanism, and the higher its value, the slower the process in the initial phase of absorption (CUNHA. OLIVEIRA, OLIVEIRA 1998)[38; MACHADO, OLIVEIRA, GEKAS, SINGH 1998)[39]. Thus, the inverse of the Weibull shape parameter was thus considered an indicator of the initial rate of the hydration process. An increase in the temperature of soaking thus reduced the value of α from 5.609 to 1.546, further justifying the obtained temperature-dependent soaking behavior for peanut kernel (Table 3).

Weibull scale parameter (B) represents the time needed to accomplish approximately 63% of total absorbed water (CUNNINGHAM, MCMINN, MAGEE, RICHARDSON 2007)[40]. Table 3 shows the effect of temperature change on relative rates of moisture diffusion and thus affecting the overall absorption process. This implies that with an increase in temperature from 5 to 35°C, the absorption rate in the primary phase of soaking was accelerated significantly (Fig. 5).

Fitting the exponential model to the experimental data at four different temperatures for the hydration process (Fig. 6) depicts an increasing trend of hydration rate constant (K) with the soaking temperature (Table 3). The high observed value of the coefficient of determination (R²) confirmed the applicability in the prediction of the soaking process of the peanut kernel.

A large amount of absorbed water is present in the first phase of the process and further reaches equilibrium in the relaxation phase of soaking. However, at lower temperatures, the absorbed water in the primary soaking phase is less, and the absorption continues in the second phase. The values for the parameters K_1 , K_2 ; K, and $\alpha \& \beta$ in Peleg, Exponential, and Weibull models, respectively, supported the findings.

ii. Diffusivity Model and Activation Energy

To predict moisture diffusivity during the soaking of peanut kernels, the second Fick's law solution for diffusion out of an infinite cylinder being length of more than twice the width was used. For this purpose, the assumptions considered were (i) the effective diffusion coefficient is independent of moisture concentration, (ii) the volume of the kernel does not change during water absorption, and (iii) the surface of the kernel reaches the equilibrium moisture content instantaneously upon immersion in absorption media. The general series solution of Fick's second law in the infinite cylinder is given below (CRANK 1975)^[41]:

$$MR = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{4}{\beta_n^2} exp \left[-\frac{\beta_n^2}{R^2} \times D_e t \right]$$
 (11)

D_e is the effective diffusivity (m²/sec.) and R is the characteristics radius of the cylinder. Egn calculated the effective diffusion coefficient. (11) using slopes derived from the linear regression of In (MR) against time data. The effective diffusion coefficient during the soaking of peanut kernels varied from 2.9053×10-10 to 10.753×10-10 (m²/sec.) over the temperature range studied 5-35°C (Table 4).

A similar result was also obtained with other agricultural seeds. The effectiveness of diffusivity during soaking of rice varied from 5.58×10^{-11} to 3.57×10^{-11} (m²/sec.) in the temperature range from 25 to 70°C (KASHANINEJAD, MAGHSOUDLOU, KHOMEIRI 2007)^[24], in case of soybean, varied from 1.08×10 -10 to 2.00×10 -10 m²/sec. in the temperature range from 40 to 60° C (HSU 1983)^[42], and 1.632×10^{-9} to 3.237× 10⁻⁹ (m²/sec.) in case of splits chickpea at the hydration temperature range of 40 to 60°C (PRASAD, VAIRAGAR, BERA 2010)[9].

The effect of temperature on effective diffusivity is generally described using the Arrhenius- type relationship to obtain a better agreement of the predicted curve with experimental data:

$$D_{\rm e} = D_0 \, \exp(-\frac{E_a}{RT_c}) \tag{12}$$

D₀ is a diffusivity-constant equivalent to the diffusivity at infinitely high temperatures, Ea is the activation energy (K J/mol), R is the universal gas constant (8.314 J/mol. K), and Ta is the absolute temperature. The logarithm of D_e as a function of the reciprocal of absolute temperature (Ta) is plotted in Fig.7. The results show a linear relationship between (log D_e) and (1/T_a) or an Arrhenius-type relationship (Egn. 12). The diffusivity constant (D₀) and activation energy (E_a) calculated from the linear regression is 8.010 (m²/sec.) and 32.175 (KJ/mol), respectively. This value is comparable to those reported in the literature for water absorption in some legumes. This activation energy is in reasonable agreement with the data presented by several author's for other grains. Activation energy (Ea) value of 30.0 KJ/mol in the case of whole rice grains (BELLO, TOLABA, SUAREZ 2004)^[43] and 22.49 to 22.70 KJ/mol in the case of hydration of chickpea splits of different shapes (PRASAD, VAIRAGAR, BERA 2010)[9].

IV. Conclusions

The hydration kinetics of peanut kernel (GG-20) in plain water at different temperatures was examined. The soaking process exhibited an initial faster rate of water absorption followed by a slower pace during the secondary absorption phase. The transition from primary absorption phases occurred approximately between 1.23 to 2.80 hrs, depending on the soak water temperature, which may be used as the deciding time for soaking of peanut. The moisture absorption was an endothermic process with heat absorption of 32.175 KJ/mol.

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Fig. 1: Charged coupled device snapshot showing shelled peanut kernels of GG-20 variety

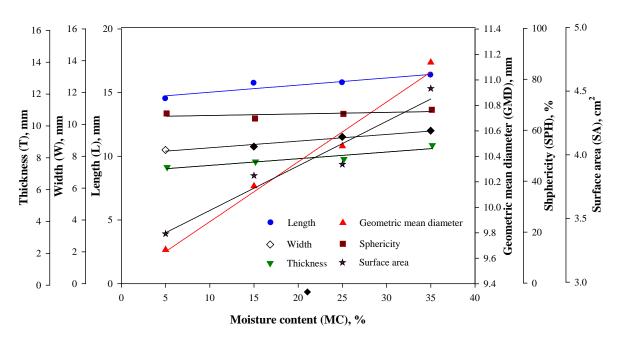


Fig. 2: Moisture dependent dimensional characteristics of peanut kernels

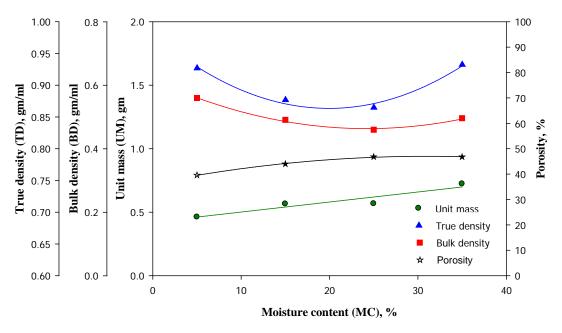


Fig. 3: Moisture dependent gravimetric characteristics of peanut kernels

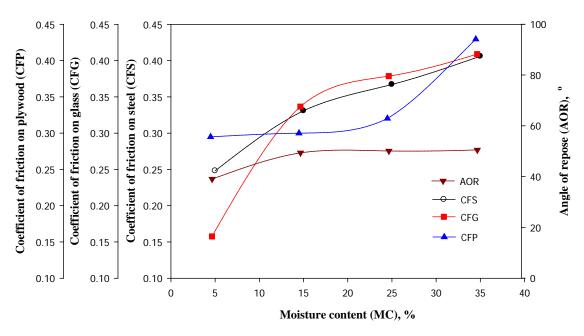


Fig. 4: Moisture dependent frictional characteristics of peanut kernels

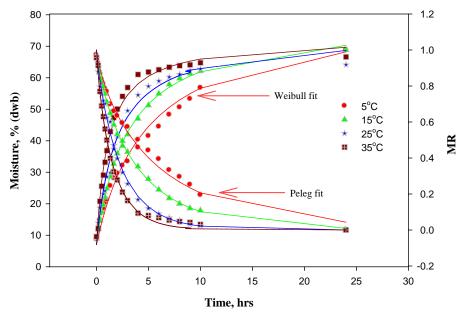


Fig. 5: Temperature dependent hydration characteristics of peanut kernel (Peleg and Weibull fit)

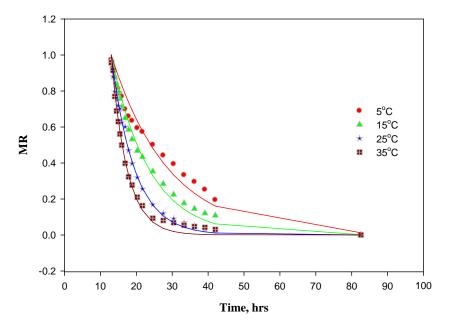


Fig. 6: Temperature dependent hydration characteristics of peanut kernel (Exponential fit)

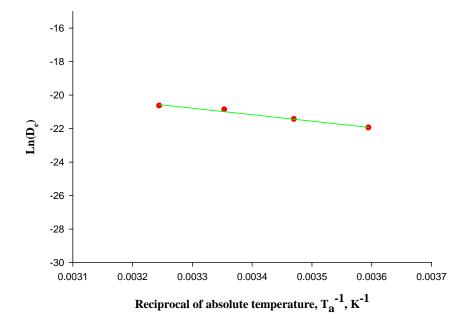


Fig. 7: Arrhenius plot of effective diffusivity of peanut kernels

Table 1: Models used for describing the peanut kernel hydration data

Model Name	Equation
Peleg	$M = M_0 + \frac{t}{(K_1 + K_2 t)}$
Exponential	MR = exp(-kt)
Weibull	$MR = Exp\left(-\left(\frac{t}{\infty}\right)^{\beta}\right)$

Table 2: Moisture dependent physical properties of peanut kernel (GG-20)

Parameters	Moisture Levels of shelled peanut (%, wwb)						
Farameters	6.57±0.44%	15.74±0.01%	25.21±0.03%	35.07of ±0.09%			
Length, mm	14.52±1.48	15.74±1.41	15.78±1.52	16.37±1.20			
Width, mm	8.40 ± 0.72	8.61 ± 0.44	9.22 ± 0.49	9.61 ± 0.47			
Thickness, mm	7.41 ± 0.43	7.76 ± 0.58	7.92 ± 0.65	8.79 ± 0.70			
GMD, mm	9.67 ± 0.66	10.17±0.56	10.48 ± 0.54	11.14 ± 0.50			
Sphericity, %	66.60 ± 4.20	64.61 ± 3.66	66.44 ± 4.97	68.03 ± 4.56			
Surface Area, cm ²	3.38 ± 0.45	3.84 ± 0.50	3.93 ± 0.47	4.52±0.43			
Unit Mass, gm	0.462±0.161	0.565 ± 0.127	0.567 ± 0.139	0.724±0.143			
Bulk Density, kg/m³	560.0±10	491.0±7.0	460.0±12.0	496.0±17.0			
True Density, gm/ml	0.927 ± 0.010	0.877±0.016	0.865 ± 0.019	0.932 ± 0.026			
Porosity, %	39.58 ± 0.95	43.98±1.63	46.81 ± 1.09	46.77±0.97			
Angle of Repose, degree	39.01 ± 1.87	49.35±1.55	50.09±1.06	50.48±0.68			
CSF (Steel)	0.248 ± 0.004	0.331 ± 0.014	0.367 ± 0.008	0.406 ± 0.006			
CSF (Glass)	0.158 ± 0.007	0.337 ± 0.020	0.379 ± 0.010	0.409 ± 0.006			
CSF (Plywood)	0.295 ± 0.004	0.300 ± 0.008	0.320 ± 0.013	0.430 ± 0.028			

Table 3: Estimation of the parameters and goodness of fit for Peleg, Exponential and Weibull models

Tempera		P	eleg Mo	odel		E	xponen	tial Mo	del		We	eibull M	lodel	
ture (°C)	K ₁	K ₂	R²	χ²	RM SE	K	R²	χ²	RM SE	α	β	R²	χ²	RM SE
5	0.0	0.0	0.98	0.00	0.01	0.1	0.96	0.00	0.05	5.6	0.7	0.98	0.00	0.03
5	65	14	04	07	15	83	36	31	46	09	89	54	13	46
15	0.0	0.0	0.99	0.00	0.00	0.2	0.98	0.00	0.03	3.6	8.0	0.99	0.00	0.01
10	42	14	84	01	77	78	63	46	63	83	26	89	01	05
25	0.0	0.0	0.98	0.00	0.02	0.4	0.99	0.00	0.02	2.2	0.9	0.99	0.00	0.02
20	29	15	74	05	04	50	21	80	84	56	05	46	06	34
35	0.0	0.0	0.99	0.00	0.01	0.6	0.99	0.00	0.02	1.5	8.0	0.99	0.00	0.02
33	17	15	05	04	79	62	09	09	94	46	73	47	06	24

Table 4: Temperature dependent effective diffusion coefficient of peanut kernel

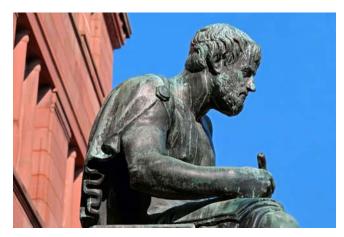
Temperature (°C)	Effective diffusivity (m²/sec)
5	2.905×10 ⁻¹⁰
15	4.833×10 ⁻¹⁰
25	8.581×10^{-10}
35	10.753×10 ⁻¹⁰

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Acknowledgments

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The following is the official style and template developed for publication of a research paper. Authors are not required to follow this style during the submission of the paper. It is just for reference purposes.



Manuscript Style Instruction (Optional)

- Microsoft Word Document Setting Instructions.
- Font type of all text should be Swis721 Lt BT.
- Page size: 8.27" x 11'", left margin: 0.65, right margin: 0.65, bottom margin: 0.75.
- Paper title should be in one column of font size 24.
- Author name in font size of 11 in one column.
- Abstract: font size 9 with the word "Abstract" in bold italics.
- Main text: font size 10 with two justified columns.
- Two columns with equal column width of 3.38 and spacing of 0.2.
- First character must be three lines drop-capped.
- The paragraph before spacing of 1 pt and after of 0 pt.
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The recommended size of an original research paper is under 15,000 words and review papers under 7,000 words. Research articles should be less than 10,000 words. Research papers are usually longer than review papers. Review papers are reports of significant research (typically less than 7,000 words, including tables, figures, and references)

A research paper must include:

- a) A title which should be relevant to the theme of the paper.
- b) A summary, known as an abstract (less than 150 words), containing the major results and conclusions.
- c) Up to 10 keywords that precisely identify the paper's subject, purpose, and focus.
- d) An introduction, giving fundamental background objectives.
- e) Resources and techniques with sufficient complete experimental details (wherever possible by reference) to permit repetition, sources of information must be given, and numerical methods must be specified by reference.
- Results which should be presented concisely by well-designed tables and figures.
- g) Suitable statistical data should also be given.
- h) All data must have been gathered with attention to numerical detail in the planning stage.

Design has been recognized to be essential to experiments for a considerable time, and the editor has decided that any paper that appears not to have adequate numerical treatments of the data will be returned unrefereed.

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- j) There should be brief acknowledgments.
- k) There ought to be references in the conventional format. Global Journals recommends APA format.

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Abstract

The abstract is the foundation of the research paper. It should be clear and concise and must contain the objective of the paper and inferences drawn. It is advised to not include big mathematical equations or complicated jargon.

Many researchers searching for information online will use search engines such as Google, Yahoo or others. By optimizing your paper for search engines, you will amplify the chance of someone finding it. In turn, this will make it more likely to be viewed and cited in further works. Global Journals has compiled these guidelines to facilitate you to maximize the webfriendliness of the most public part of your paper.

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One should start brainstorming lists of potential keywords before even beginning searching. Think about the most important concepts related to research work. Ask, "What words would a source have to include to be truly valuable in a research paper?" Then consider synonyms for the important words.

It may take the discovery of only one important paper to steer in the right keyword direction because, in most databases, the keywords under which a research paper is abstracted are listed with the paper.

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Numerical methods used should be transparent and, where appropriate, supported by references.

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Authors must list all the abbreviations used in the paper at the end of the paper or in a separate table before using them.

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Authors are advised to submit any mathematical equation using either MathJax, KaTeX, or LaTeX, or in a very high-quality image.

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Tables: Tables should be cautiously designed, uncrowned, and include only essential data. Each must have an Arabic number, e.g., Table 4, a self-explanatory caption, and be on a separate sheet. Authors must submit tables in an editable format and not as images. References to these tables (if any) must be mentioned accurately.



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Figures are supposed to be submitted as separate files. Always include a citation in the text for each figure using Arabic numbers, e.g., Fig. 4. Artwork must be submitted online in vector electronic form or by emailing it.

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Although low-quality images are sufficient for review purposes, print publication requires high-quality images to prevent the final product being blurred or fuzzy. Submit (possibly by e-mail) EPS (line art) or TIFF (halftone/ photographs) files only. MS PowerPoint and Word Graphics are unsuitable for printed pictures. Avoid using pixel-oriented software. Scans (TIFF only) should have a resolution of at least 350 dpi (halftone) or 700 to 1100 dpi (line drawings). Please give the data for figures in black and white or submit a Color Work Agreement form. EPS files must be saved with fonts embedded (and with a TIFF preview, if possible).

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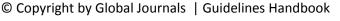
- 1. Choosing the topic: In most cases, the topic is selected by the interests of the author, but it can also be suggested by the guides. You can have several topics, and then judge which you are most comfortable with. This may be done by asking several questions of yourself, like "Will I be able to carry out a search in this area? Will I find all necessary resources to accomplish the search? Will I be able to find all information in this field area?" If the answer to this type of question is "yes," then you ought to choose that topic. In most cases, you may have to conduct surveys and visit several places. Also, you might have to do a lot of work to find all the rises and falls of the various data on that subject. Sometimes, detailed information plays a vital role, instead of short information. Evaluators are human: The first thing to remember is that evaluators are also human beings. They are not only meant for rejecting a paper. They are here to evaluate your paper. So present your best aspect.
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Verbs have to be in agreement with their subjects. In a research paper, do not start sentences with conjunctions or finish them with prepositions. When writing formally, it is advisable to never split an infinitive because someone will (wrongly) complain. Avoid clichés like a disease. Always shun irritating alliteration. Use language which is simple and straightforward. Put together a neat summary.

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- **16. Multitasking in research is not good:** Doing several things at the same time is a bad habit in the case of research activity. Research is an area where everything has a particular time slot. Divide your research work into parts, and do a particular part in a particular time slot.
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- **20.** Think technically: Always think technically. If anything happens, search for its reasons, benefits, and demerits. Think and then print: When you go to print your paper, check that tables are not split, headings are not detached from their descriptions, and page sequence is maintained.





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INFORMAL GUIDELINES OF RESEARCH PAPER WRITING

Key points to remember:

- Submit all work in its final form.
- Write your paper in the form which is presented in the guidelines using the template.
- Please note the criteria peer reviewers will use for grading the final paper.

Final points:

One purpose of organizing a research paper is to let people interpret your efforts selectively. The journal requires the following sections, submitted in the order listed, with each section starting on a new page:

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This will provide understanding of the data and projections as to the implications of the results. The use of good quality references throughout the paper will give the effort trustworthiness by representing an alertness to prior workings.

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General style:

Specific editorial column necessities for compliance of a manuscript will always take over from directions in these general guidelines.

To make a paper clear: Adhere to recommended page limits.

Mistakes to avoid:

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- Separating a table, chart, or figure—confine each to a single page.
- Submitting a manuscript with pages out of sequence.
- In every section of your document, use standard writing style, including articles ("a" and "the").
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- Align the primary line of each section.
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Choose a revealing title. It should be short and include the name(s) and address(es) of all authors. It should not have acronyms or abbreviations or exceed two printed lines.

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An abstract is a brief, distinct paragraph summary of finished work or work in development. In a minute or less, a reviewer can be taught the foundation behind the study, common approaches to the problem, relevant results, and significant conclusions or new questions.

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Reason for writing the article—theory, overall issue, purpose.

- Fundamental goal.
- To-the-point depiction of the research.
- Consequences, including definite statistics—if the consequences are quantitative in nature, account for this; results of any numerical analysis should be reported. Significant conclusions or questions that emerge from the research.

Approach:

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- o An outline of the job done is always written in past tense.
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- o Present a justification. State your particular theory(-ies) or aim(s), and describe the logic that led you to choose them.
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Use past tense except for when referring to recognized facts. After all, the manuscript will be submitted after the entire job is done. Sort out your thoughts; manufacture one key point for every section. If you make the four points listed above, you will need at least four paragraphs. Present surrounding information only when it is necessary to support a situation. The reviewer does not desire to read everything you know about a topic. Shape the theory specifically—do not take a broad view.

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Materials may be reported in part of a section or else they may be recognized along with your measures.

Methods:

- Report the method and not the particulars of each process that engaged the same methodology.
- Describe the method entirely.
- o To be succinct, present methods under headings dedicated to specific dealings or groups of measures.
- o Simplify—detail how procedures were completed, not how they were performed on a particular day.
- o If well-known procedures were used, account for the procedure by name, possibly with a reference, and that's all.

Approach:

It is embarrassing to use vigorous voice when documenting methods without using first person, which would focus the reviewer's interest on the researcher rather than the job. As a result, when writing up the methods, most authors use third person passive voice.

Use standard style in this and every other part of the paper—avoid familiar lists, and use full sentences.

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Results:

The principle of a results segment is to present and demonstrate your conclusion. Create this part as entirely objective details of the outcome, and save all understanding for the discussion.

The page length of this segment is set by the sum and types of data to be reported. Use statistics and tables, if suitable, to present consequences most efficiently.

You must clearly differentiate material which would usually be incorporated in a study editorial from any unprocessed data or additional appendix matter that would not be available. In fact, such matters should not be submitted at all except if requested by the instructor.



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Content:

- Sum up your conclusions in text and demonstrate them, if suitable, with figures and tables.
- o In the manuscript, explain each of your consequences, and point the reader to remarks that are most appropriate.
- o Present a background, such as by describing the question that was addressed by creation of an exacting study.
- Explain results of control experiments and give remarks that are not accessible in a prescribed figure or table, if appropriate.
- Examine your data, then prepare the analyzed (transformed) data in the form of a figure (graph), table, or manuscript.

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- o Do not discuss or infer your outcome, report surrounding information, or try to explain anything.
- Do not include raw data or intermediate calculations in a research manuscript.
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Approach:

As always, use past tense when you submit your results, and put the whole thing in a reasonable order.

Put figures and tables, appropriately numbered, in order at the end of the report.

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Figures and tables:

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Position your understanding of the outcome visibly to lead the reviewer through your conclusions, and then finish the paper with a summing up of the implications of the study. The purpose here is to offer an understanding of your results and support all of your conclusions, using facts from your research and generally accepted information, if suitable. The implication of results should be fully described.

Infer your data in the conversation in suitable depth. This means that when you clarify an observable fact, you must explain mechanisms that may account for the observation. If your results vary from your prospect, make clear why that may have happened. If your results agree, then explain the theory that the proof supported. It is never suitable to just state that the data approved the prospect, and let it drop at that. Make a decision as to whether each premise is supported or discarded or if you cannot make a conclusion with assurance. Do not just dismiss a study or part of a study as "uncertain."

Research papers are not acknowledged if the work is imperfect. Draw what conclusions you can based upon the results that you have, and take care of the study as a finished work.

- You may propose future guidelines, such as how an experiment might be personalized to accomplish a new idea.
- o Give details of all of your remarks as much as possible, focusing on mechanisms.
- Make a decision as to whether the tentative design sufficiently addressed the theory and whether or not it was correctly restricted. Try to present substitute explanations if they are sensible alternatives.
- One piece of research will not counter an overall question, so maintain the large picture in mind. Where do you go next? The best studies unlock new avenues of study. What questions remain?
- Recommendations for detailed papers will offer supplementary suggestions.



Approach:

When you refer to information, differentiate data generated by your own studies from other available information. Present work done by specific persons (including you) in past tense.

Describe generally acknowledged facts and main beliefs in present tense.

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References	Complete and correct format, well organized	Beside the point, Incomplete	Wrong format and structuring



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