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MnO₂ Nano Particles Modified a Double Layer Cathode Reactor for an Efficient Removal of DBT in Diesel

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Polytetrafluoroethylene; Cathodic Reduction;
Dibenzothiophene.

Highlights:

- MnO₂ synthesis using co-precipitating method.
- Electrochemical reactor modification using MnO₂-PTFT as a cathode.
- Electrochemical Diesel desulfurization.
- Study Desulfurization Reaction Kinetics.

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Abstract: Due to its many engineering applications, low manufacturing costs, and environmental friendliness, 3D printing is considered one of the most promising manufacturing technologies. The quality of printed parts will inevitably be affected by the controllable variables used in the 3D printing process. The present study aims to investigate how different printing process parameters affect the bending strength of PLA prints. The ASTM D790 standard was used to fabricate the samples in this work, while the Taguchi principle was used to design the experiments. The following values were chosen: shell width (0.8, 1.2, 1.6, and 2 mm), layer thickness (0.15, 0.2, 0.25, and 0.3 mm), and infill density (40%, 60%, 80%, and 100%). The results showed that fill density is the most effective variable for improving bending strength. Measurements of infill density (100%), layer thickness (0.15 mm), and shell width (2 mm) gave the best results, which were calculated to be 83.1479 MPa in bending test. The mathematical model in this study was developed using linear regression analysis, and the residuals confirmed that the model fit the data well, with a maximum error of 6.1%.

ثنائي اوكسيد المنغنيز ككاثود ثنائي الطبقة لمفاعل مطور لإزالة فعالة لدابينزو ثايوفين من وقود الديزل

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الخلاصة

بيروكسيد الهيدروجين هو عامل مؤكسد قوي لديه القدرة على أكسدة مركبات شوائب الثيوفين الموجودة في وقود الديزل. تركز هذه الدراسة على دراسة المفاعل الكهروكيميائي (TBER) لغرض إزالة الكبريت من الديزل. يتم تعزيز TBER من خلال استخدام محفز كهربائي عالي الكفاءة، وهو جسيمات نانوية MnO_2 منتجة خصيصًا، لتسهيل إنتاج بيروكسيد الهيدروجين في الموقع. تم تصنيع الجسيمات النانوية MnO_2 بطريقة الترسيب المشترك، ثم تم دمجها لاحقًا مع PTFE لإنشاء طبقة الكاثود. تم استخدام XRD و SEM و FTIR لفحص المحفز المنتج. يُظهر TBER أكسدة محسنة بشكل ملحوظ للثنائي بنزو ثيوفين (DBT) في الديزل الذي يمر عبر TBER باستخدام إلكتروليت قلوي. نجح المفاعل الكهروكيميائي المحسن تصميمه في تحقيق أكسدة كاملة في الموقع لـ 500 جزء في المليون من DBT خلال ساعتين، مما يدل على مستوى عالٍ من الكفاءة في إزالة الكبريت العميق من وقود الديزل.

الكلمات الدالة: إزالة كبريت عميقة، ثنائي اوكسيد المنغنيز النانوي، أوكسجين، بولي تترافلوروأثيلين، إختزال كاثودي، دابينزو ثايوفين.

1. INTRODUCTION

Crude oil contains several natural organic components, including organosulfur compounds. Petroleum products that have undergone refinement, such as gasoline, diesel, and aviation fuel, mostly consist of these molecules [1]. Sulfur dioxide (SO_2) and sulfate are byproducts of burning fuels that contribute significantly to air pollution and acid rain. Due to the significantly higher difficulty in improving heavy, sulfur-containing oil compared to light feeds, the oil price is inversely proportionate to its sulfur content. To regulate the amount of sulfur in fuels, some nations have passed legislation; for example, the United States has set a limit of 15 parts per million for diesel fuel [2,3]. Recently, MnO_2 nanoparticles have been employed in desulfurization. A study conducted by Sadeghi and Hosseini [4] focused on examining the efficacy of a nano MnO_2 /Zeolite AgY composite and MnO_2 nanoparticles in the adsorption and degradation of the 2-CEPS molecule. The synthesized composite of 15.8 wt% nano MnO_2 /AgY(2) exhibited adsorption and destruction efficiencies of around 66% and 84% for 2-CEP, respectively, for 10 hours. However, the concentrations of MnO_2 nanoparticles were comparatively lower. Then, Yu et al. [5] synthesized and investigated supported α - MnO_2 nanosheets. The supported catalyst exhibited a notable level of desulfurization efficiency when used to remove DBT from a model oil, which was achieved by utilizing 30 wt% H_2O_2 as the oxidant while maintaining mild conditions. The removal efficiency of DBT in model oil with a sulfur content of 500 ppm was 97.7% at a temperature of 50 °C. Alheety et al. [6] used manufactured MnO_2 nanoflowers to eliminate sulfur-containing compounds from simulated and actual diesel fuel samples. Additional enhancements to the ideal conditions for removing sulfur revealed that the diesel model obtained an oxidative

desulfurization (ODS) rate above 95% using 0.5 g, 35 minutes, 60–62 °C, (O/S) 4, and 900 rpm. A range of metal-containing ionic liquid complexes and metal oxide-based nanocatalysts, including MnO_2 , α - Fe_2O_3 , and Co_3O_4 , have been effectively synthesized and utilized in oxidative desulfurization (ODS) of dibenzothiophene (DBT) [7]. Finally, MnO_2 nanoparticles were cultivated on UiO-66 to produce a composite material known as MnO_2 /UiO-66 using the solvothermal process described by Subhan et al. [8] Compared to the original MOF, the MnO_2 /UiO-66 composite exhibited reduced particle size; increased surface area and pore volume; enhanced crystallinity, active Mn^{4+} , Mn^{3+} , and Zr^{4+} species; decreased binding energy for Zr, Mn, and O species; and heightened O–O interactions. These variables led to the rapid (3 min) and highly effective (100%) performance of DBT and pyridine in the ODS and ODN processes at 25 °C. This performance was achieved using an O/S and O/N ratio of 4 (each) and a catalyst dose of 0.06 g/15 mL (2000 ppm), with activation energy values of 6.2 kJ/mol and 6.8 kJ/mol, respectively. Recently, hydrodesulfurization (HDS) is the method of choice for desulfurization. However, this method can only reduce the sulfur concentration to a few hundred parts per million [9]. This technique necessitates intense working conditions, including high temperatures and pressures, drastically decreasing sulfur content. Benzothiophene (BT), dibenzothiophene (DBT), and its derivatives are extremely expensive and energy-intensive to remove, and these conditions are necessary to do so. This HDS method is believed to create ultra-low sulfur diesel under extremely harsh conditions [10,11]. A graphene catalyst based on cobalt and molybdenum oxides (CoMo/G) was investigated for heavy naphtha

hydrodesulfurization, and the results indicated a sulfur removal efficiency of 79% [12]. In addition, accumulating three promoter metals has the potential to enhance the traditional catalysts' performance, which would be a major step forward for HDS and ODS procedures [13-18]. Nonetheless, other alternatives to hydrodesulfurization were explored for OSC elimination, including oxidation [19], extraction [20], adsorption [21], and biodesulfurization [22]. Activated carbon and a Zr-based UiO-66 molecular organic framework for enhanced fuel treatment procedures, such as adsorptive and oxidative desulfurization and denitrogenation, were recently created using nanoparticles of zinc, manganese, and manganese dioxide [8, 23]. Numerous scholars have suggested electrochemical oxidative desulfurization as a novel class of desulfurization [24,25]. Reactive oxygen may be efficiently generated using electrochemical desulfurization [26]. This method exhibits little oxidant use and generates minimal wastewater, making it highly valuable for study in fuel technology [27]. Schucker and Baird [28,29] suggested an electrochemical oxidation technique for desulfurizing naphtha, whereby the resulting sulfones may be readily eliminated using polar solvents. Chen et al. [30] experimentally assessed the efficacy of an electrochemical method utilizing a NaCl electrolyte solution for removing sulfides in coal. Wang et al. [31,32] used a fluidized-bed electrochemical reactor with a catalytic anode made of (β -PbO₂/C or CeO₂/C) to purge gasoline of organic sulfur compounds. Liu et al. [33] examined an electrochemical oxidation procedure in a ternary solution comprising acetonitrile, alcohol, water, and acetic acid to eradicate DBT in a targeted oil sample. They found that the highest conversion percentage for DBT was 98.4%. González-Fuentes et al. [34] created a catalyst composed of three metals, i.e., IrO₂, SnO₂, and Sb₂O₃, to remove sulfur from DBT. Tang et al. [35] used a combination of electrochemical oxidation and solvent extraction to remove organic sulfide from condensate gasoline. A desulfurization efficiency of 99.62% was reached under ideal operating circumstances and with three extraction phases. Finally, Yaseen et al. [36] investigated the oxidative desulfurization of DBT in transportation fuels using NaClO utilizing a novel catalyst composed of Cu and Ni on activated carbon derived from banana peels. The newly developed catalyst-oxidant system was praised for its efficiency, low cost, and positive outcomes. Most of these procedures involve direct electrochemical oxidation desulfurization methods, which need organic electrolytes with large overpotentials. The trickle-bed electrochemical reactor (TBER) has been demonstrated as a viable

electrochemical method for the on-site oxidation of DBT [37]. This study explores the potential for enhancing the efficiency of the TBER in generating H₂O₂ and oxidizing DBT in situ. In addition, utilizing MnO₂ as a novel catalyst, in conjunction with polytetrafluoroethylene, was applied to augment the rate of H₂O₂ formation and facilitate the in situ oxidation of DBT in diesel fuel. Additionally, an examination was conducted on a change in the TBER design, whereby two rows of eight holes were employed rather than a single row to distribute the electrolyte throughout the unique MnO₂-ptfe cathode evenly. The improved TBER achieved total desulfurization efficiency by generating in situ oxidants, i.e., H₂O₂, and oxidizing DBT.

2. EXPERIMENTAL METHOD

2.1. Materials

The components purchased from Sigma-Aldrich include PTFE aqueous suspension (60 wt % dispersion in water), 85% KOH, KMnO₄, MnSO₄, dibenzothiophene DBT, and molybdic acid (NH₄)₆Mo₇O₂₄•4H₂O. The H₂SO₄ (98%) molecules were obtained from Alfa Aesar. The electrolyte solution for each experiment was prepared using deionized water of the utmost grade.

2.2. Trickle Bed Electrochemical Reactor (TBER)

All experiments were conducted using the TBER experimental design shown in Fig. 1. Meanwhile, Fig. 1 (a) shows that the modified cathode frame can find one gas inlet and two solution inlets on top of the cathode housing. The liquid was evenly distributed over both cathode beds by drilling two rows of eight holes. A specific intake allows oxygen to enter the system. This intake is installed in the gap between the two frame-side MnO₂-PTFE-SSM cathode beds. The uniform oxygen distribution was achieved using the MnO₂-PTFE pads, which were 1 cm thick [38]. There are two outlets for the passage of products and unreacted materials from the two sides of the reactor combined in one outlet to the solution tank at the base of the apparatus. On the other hand, Fig. 1 (b) shows all the layers of TBER, stainless steel anodes, and meshes SSM (layers 1 and 3) measuring 7 by 6 cm with a 1 mm mesh size, which were part of the revised design. Enclosing the reactor components with 12 cm broad, 11 cm high, and 2 cm thick plastic panels (layer 4), and finally (layer 2) a rubber piece to prevent a shortcut. To desulfurize DBT in diesel using a KOH electrolyte solution, the electrochemical reactor was designed with a continuous flow from the top downwards, utilizing a two-layer MnO₂-PTFE to composite cathode Fig. 2. A DC system (6), an oxygen cylinder (9), a three-necked flask (7), a pump (4), a water bath (8), and oxygen and liquid flow meters (2 and 3) were all part of the

experimental setup. A trickling bed electrochemical reactor (TBER) was also used (1). An electrical controller (5) was locally designed to regulate the pump's output because the liquid flow meter could not handle the pump's high pumping capability. Gas was pumped into the gas feeder chamber that separated the cathode beds to maximize oxygen

diffusion on both sides of the catalyst beds. The electrolytes were poured over the MnO_2 -PTFE beds from above the cathode frame. The voltages required to run the TBER reactor came from a direct current (DC) power source. The reactor's base emptied into the accumulation flask, where the unreacted materials were recirculated.

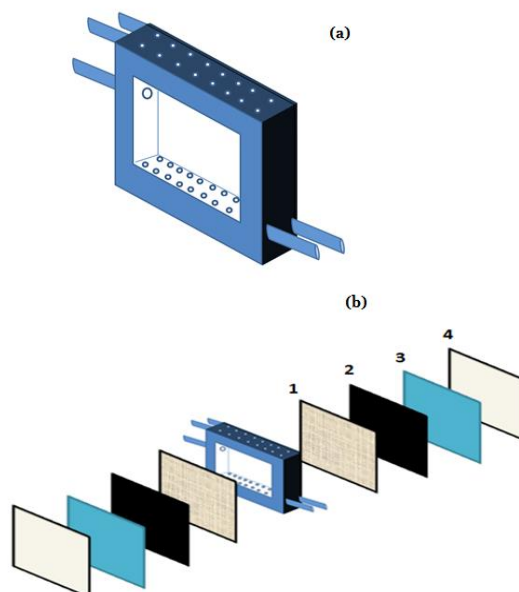


Fig. 1 (a) Schematic Diagram of Cathode Frame (b) Schematic Diagram of the Developed TBER Components.

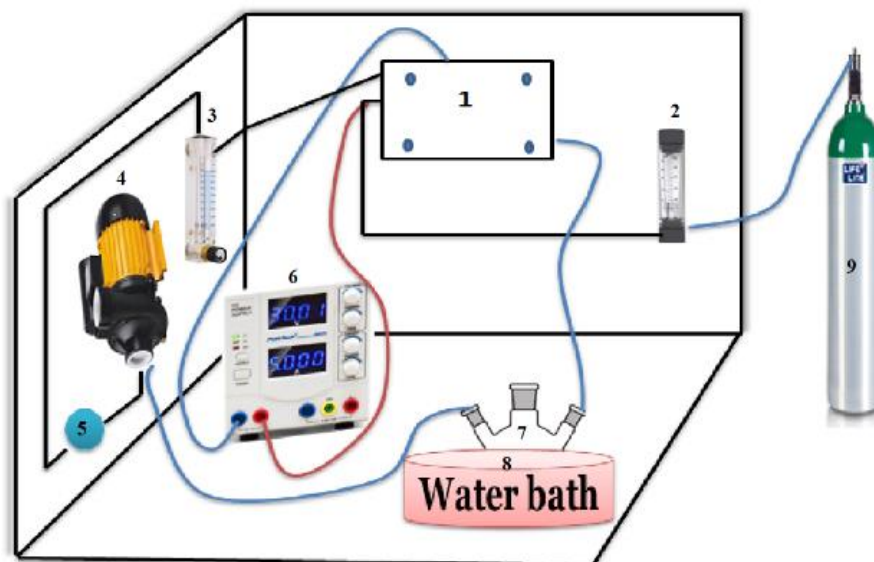


Fig. 2 Process Diagram for TBER, 1. TBER 2. O_2 Flow Meter 3. Liquid Flow Meter 4. Pump 5. Controller 6. Power Supply 7. Three Conical Flask 8. Water Bath 9. O_2 Cylinder.

2.3. Metal Oxide Nanoparticle Production (MnO_2)

The MnO_2 nanoparticles were prepared using the co-precipitation technique. The standard ingredients were 0.17 g of KMnO_4 , 0.25 g of MnSO_4 , and 10 mL of distilled water [39]. A homogenous solution was formed by mixing the ingredients under magnetic stirring for three

hours [40] at 60 °C [41]. Following filtration via micro filters and washing with distilled water, the precipitates were dried overnight at 100 °C. Lastly, they were calcined for two hours at 500 °C [42]. The produced catalysts' characteristics were examined using XRD, SEM, and FTIR.

2.4. Diesel Desulfurization

Combining diesel with or without organ sulfur components with an electrolyte solution of KOH made it possible to use a two-fluid phase flow to investigate in situ sulfur oxidation by H_2O_2 . Here, the porous cathode bed cells were used to mix and flow diesel fuel with and without DBT, as well as a 0.25 M KOH solution. Electrolyte bubbles supplied oxygen to the TBER Fig. 2. To enhance oxygen mass transfer and increase its concentration at the electrode-electrolyte interface, molecular oxygen is necessary. The original production of H_2O_2 was conducted without DBT to determine if it could be done using diesel.

2.4.1. H_2O_2 Concentration Measurement

A peroxymolybdate technique was used to test the concentrations of the H_2O_2 created [43]. Samples were prepared by mixing 0.5 mL of the solution with 5 mL of (2.4 mM) $(NH_4)_6Mo_7O_{24}$ in 0.5 M H_2SO_4 . To measure H_2O_2 concentrations, a Genesys 20 spectrophotometer that operates at 300 nm was used. The following equation, based on Beer's law, can be used to determine the H_2O_2 content in the sample:

$$C = \frac{K}{V_{\text{sample}}} A_{300} \quad (1)$$

C: The H_2O_2 concentration (g/L)

V_{sample} : The sample volume (5 ml)

K: constant factor equal to 0.474 mg

A_{300} : The absorbance at 300 nm

2.4.2. DBT Concentration Measurement

To investigate sulfur oxidation by on-site H_2O_2 produced in the TBER, diesel fuel containing DBT was utilized. X-ray Fluorescent Energy Dispersive Sulfur Analyzer ASE-2, ED-XRF, was used to determine the DBT quantity in the diesel; begin by appropriately preparing the sample and ensuring that it was free from impurities and devoid of moisture. The device should be calibrated using established sulfur

standards to produce precise readings. The analyzer was activated, and parameters were configured, such as excitation, and detector settings, according to the instructions provided by the manufacturer. Position the prepared sample into the analysis chamber and begin the analysis procedure with the software provided by the device. To ascertain the sulfur concentration, it is necessary to analyze the produced spectra, analyze the distinctive X-ray fluorescence emitted by sulfur atoms, and document and communicate the findings, including pertinent sample details and analytical parameters.

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

3.1. Characterization of MnO_2

Nanoparticles

3.1.2. X-ray Diffraction (XRD) Test

XRD analysis of manganese dioxide nanoparticles produced using the co-precipitation technique is presented in Fig. 3. High-resolution multipurpose Theta/Theta XRD devise / Kashan laboratories was used. The XRD pattern clearly demonstrated that the synthesized manganese oxide nanoparticles were completely crystalline. It was found that manganese oxide nanoparticles had an average particle size of between 38 and 55 nm. This range is close to what Kahattha and Santhaveesuk [44] found. They studied the influence of calcination temperature on MnO_2 characterizations and found that the average particle size was 38 nm. Scherrer's equation states that 42 nm is the optimal size for MnO_2 nanoparticles to achieve maximum intensity: Debye-Scherer equation

$$D = \frac{0.98\lambda}{\beta_{0.5} \cos(2\theta)} \quad (2)$$

where λ represents the wavelength of the radiation being utilized, and $\beta_{0.5}$ refers to the width of the peak with the highest intensity at half its height.

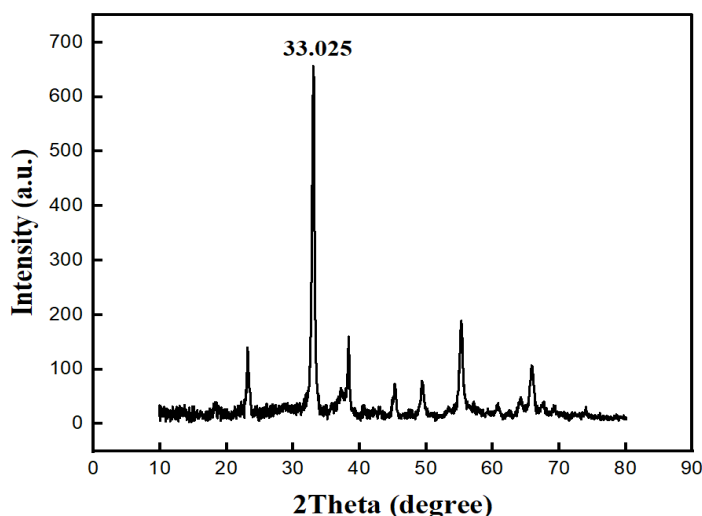


Fig. 3 X-ray Diffraction Pattern of Manganese Dioxide Metal Nanoparticles Synthesized by Co-Precipitation Method.

3.1.2. Fourier Transform Infrared (FT-IR) Test

Functional groups and other pollutants were identified using FT-IR spectroscopy. Hydrogen-bonded water molecules and hydroxyl groups on the surface of the sample were first thought to be responsible for the stretching vibrations seen in the wide band at 3344 cm^{-1} in Fig. 4. Additionally, the bands at 1631.83 cm^{-1} and 1105.24 cm^{-1} suggested the O-

H vibrating mode of residues adsorbed water, which correlates to the existence of a large number of leftover hydroxyl groups. The MnO vibrations of the MnO_2 nanopowder were responsible for the band at 532.37 cm^{-1} . The organic groups present in MnO_2 nanoparticles were invisible in the spectrum. This test is consistent with the findings of Ganeshan et al. [45].

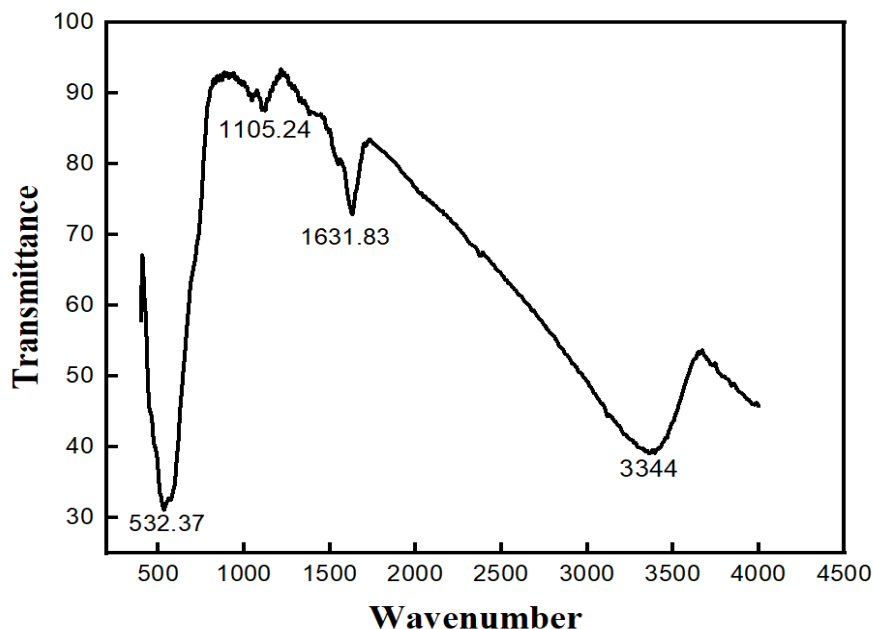


Fig. 4 FT-IR Spectra of Manganese Dioxide Metal Nanoparticles Synthesized by Co-Precipitation Method.

3.1.3. Scanning Electron Microscope (SEM) Test

Manganese dioxide (MnO_2) crystal structures exhibited a diverse range due to several corners and/or edges that share configurations among the building block units [46]. SEM photos at various magnifications are shown in Fig. 5. The observed powder exhibited two distinct shapes: small tubes, as depicted in Fig. 5 (a), and clusters, as illustrated in Figs. 5 (b) and (c). These shapes have a notable inclination towards agglomeration, primarily attributed to

their high surface energy, forming a substantial surface area. This irregular agglomerated form resembles the findings of Athar [47], who synthesized cubic MgO nanoparticles using a non-aqueous sol-gel. The larger particles can be attributed to the Ostwald ripening process, characterized by limited porosity and crystallinity. The particles had nearly a spherical shape and were uniform in size, with an average of around 39 nm, which is near what Ganeshan et al. [45] found.

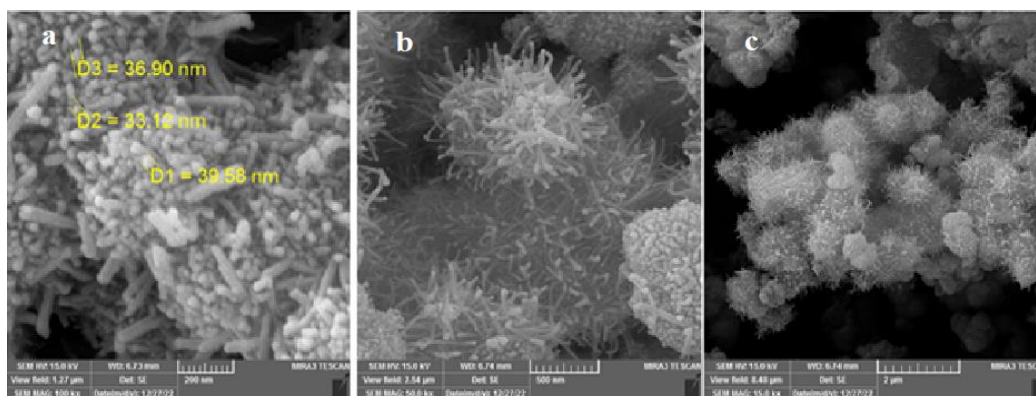
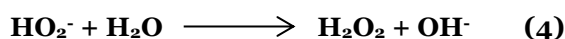
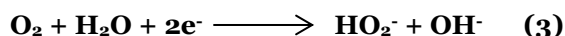


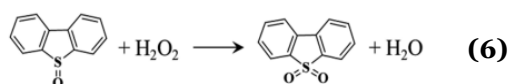
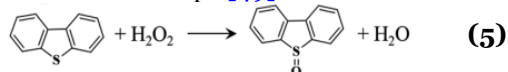
Fig. 5 SEM Micrographs of MnO_2 Nanoparticles.

3.2. Diesel with Dibenzothiophene in the Context of Hydrogen Peroxide Synthesis

Forming H_2O_2 in alkaline media occurs by an electrochemical process that proceeds via a two-electron route. In this process, oxygen (O_2) undergoes electrochemical reduction to generate peroxide ions (HO_2^-) as an intermediate. Subsequently, the peroxide ion accumulates in the solution and undergoes a chemical reaction to produce hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2), as seen in Eqs. (3) and (4) [48].



The produced hydrogen peroxide will oxidize sulfur atoms found in organic sulfur compounds. In steps 5 and 6, it was observed that the oxidation reaction produced sulfoxide of DBT ($\text{C}_{12}\text{H}_8\text{S}$) molecules in one step and sulfones in two steps [49].



The oxidized sulfur molecules possess a significant degree of polarization, enabling their separation from diesel fuel by solvent extraction methods. Fig. 6 displays the results of hydrogen peroxide formation when diesel and diesel with DBT were added. In less than one hour, a 36.65 mM H_2O_2 concentration was produced utilizing a diesel-free electrolyte. The concentration dropped to 18.32 mM at the same

time when 10% diesel by volume was used in the electrolyte. The non-conductive fuel in the electrolyte may mainly cause a reduction in H_2O_2 concentrations. Because diesel reduces the catalyst surface area that the aqueous phase occupies, it lowers H_2O_2 electro-generation. An increase in the time diesel is in contact with the catalyst surface due to its higher viscosity might reduce oxygen diffusion and charge transfer, resulting in poor H_2O_2 production. Gas phase oxygen flowed quickly, covering the catalyst MnO_2 , which may explain why the high viscosity insignificantly affected the liquid hold-up in the bed [50,51]. A known quantity of DBT dissolved in diesel showed a small linear drop in H_2O_2 concentration with time. In less than an hour, the concentration peaked at 6.62 mM. Two mechanisms, its utilization in the oxidation of DBT and electrogeneration of hydrogen peroxide, were responsible for this reduction in peroxide production. The excess hydrogen peroxide concentration in diesel with DBT indicated that the created hydrogen peroxide did not wholly react with DBT, as shown in Fig. 6, which compares the three curves depicting the process of H_2O_2 formation. At the outset, the dissolved DBT concentration was 500 ppm (500 mg/L). In theory, 1000 mg/L of H_2O_2 would be required for its oxidation, suggesting that a process governed by diffusion occurred at the interface between the water and oil phases. For the sulfur species to undergo oxidation by the generated H_2O_2 , they must spread to the contact. Complete oxidation of the organic Sulphur component necessitates circulating the diesel and the aqueous electrolyte.

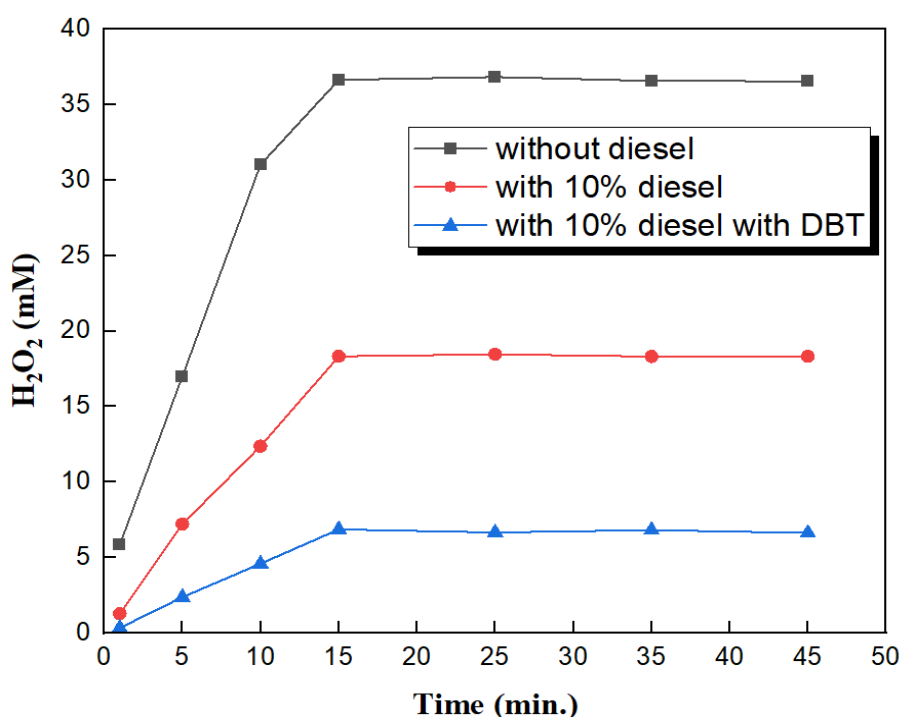


Fig. 6 (a) H_2O_2 Production as a Function of Diesel-Free Time Using 10% Diesel and 10% Diesel with DBT at Electrolyte and O_2 Flow Rates of 0.25 M KOH, 0.5 V, 15 ml/min, and 1.5 L/min at 20 °C.

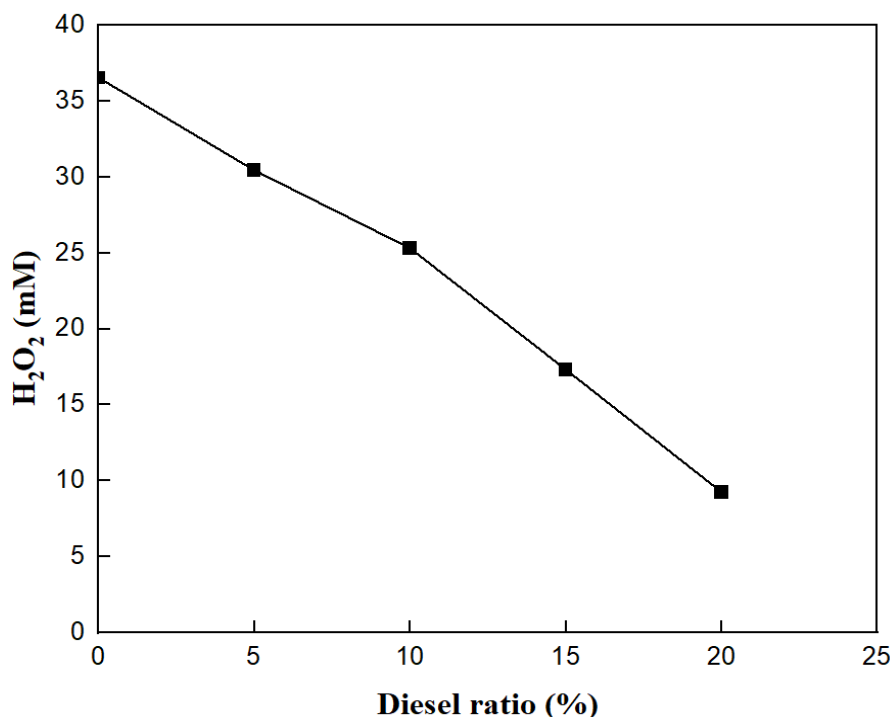


Fig. 7 The Relationship between Diesel Ratios and H₂O₂ Concentration.

3.3. Relationship Between Diesel Ratios and H₂O₂ Concentration

To conduct a more in-depth analysis of the impact of diesel, different diesel concentrations of 5, 10, 15, and 20% were utilized. The resulting concentrations of electro-generated H₂O₂ are displayed in Fig. 7. Producing H₂O₂ was reduced fairly linearly as the volume percentages of diesel grew. This outcome was anticipated as more diesel would effectively spread over the MnO₂ surface, reducing oxygen transportation to the reaction sites. MnO₂ has low hydrophilicity, resulting in the potential for its surfaces to be coated by the oil phase. Furthermore, the charge-transfer mechanism would experience a deceleration due to the non-conductive nature of the oil phase. The results of Fig. 7 align significantly with those found by Abdullah and Xing [52], with a reduction in stabilization time from 60 minutes to 15 minutes, which can be attributed to the effectiveness of the manufactured nanocatalyst MnO₂, compared to the carbon used in the study above.

3.4. DBT Oxidation Using in Situ-Generated Hydrogen Peroxide

Figure 8 displays the data that shows using H₂O₂ over time. It was observed that the H₂O₂ content did not change when diesel was utilized without DBT during the electrolysis process, suggesting that no consumption occurred. In contrast, the concentration of H₂O₂ decreased gradually throughout the first 50 minutes when diesel was mixed with extra DBT. The reaction between H₂O₂ and DBT in diesel is demonstrated by the concentration reduction, which goes from 18.32 to 6.62 mM. It was within 60 minutes that the maximum degree of oxidation was reached, as the curve started to approach equilibrium after 50 minutes. Using hydrogen peroxide in oxidizing DBT and breaking it down into hydroxyl radicals was thought to be responsible for the drop in H₂O₂ concentration [53]. Hydroxyl radicals, which accelerate the conversion of DBT to sulfones, are exceptionally potent oxidizing agents. The H₂O₂ reduction may occur due to a limited quantity of oxidizing chemicals and an extended reaction duration [54].

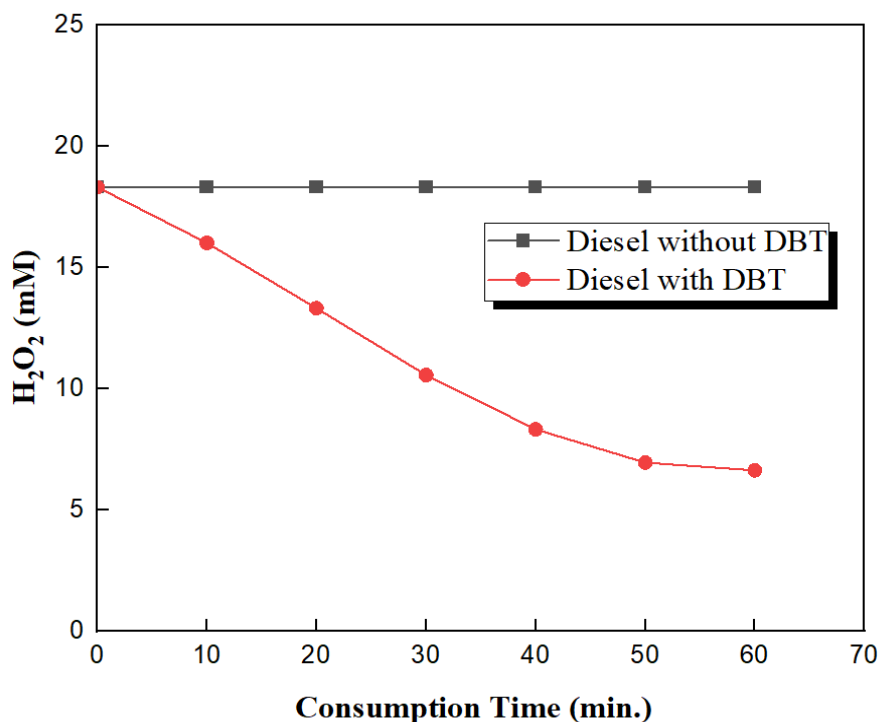


Fig. 8 H_2O_2 Consumption Against Time for 10% Real Diesel without DBT and 10% Real Diesel with DBT, with Electrolyte and Oxygen Flow Rates of 0.25 M KOH, 0.5 V, 15 mL/min, and 1.5 L/min, Respectively, at 20 °C.

3.5. Impact of Different Concentrations of DBT in Diesel Fuel

Figure 9 illustrates the impact of different concentrations of DBT in diesel fuel while maintaining a constant reaction period of one hour. The findings demonstrated a consistent decline in H_2O_2 levels as the concentration of DBT increased. The observed correlation can be ascribed to the oxidant-to-sulfur ($\text{H}_2\text{O}_2/\text{S}$) ratio. The H_2O_2 to DBT stoichiometric ratio for the oxidation process was two. Multiple factors need utilizing a greater amount of H_2O_2 , including challenges in mass transfer between the water and oil phases, H_2O_2 oxidation processes occurring simultaneously, and the thermal breakdown of H_2O_2 into oxygen and water [55]. Full sulfur oxidation cannot be achieved with the weakest quantity of hydrogen peroxide. DBT partially converts to sulfones because a limited supply of oxidants is available [54]. The electrolysis duration is a significant aspect that impacts the oxidative reactions and producing H_2O_2 in situ. It serves as a measure of the effectiveness of the oxidative reaction [56].

3.6. The Effect of Different Electrolyte Concentrations

The electro-production of H_2O_2 relies on the aqueous electrolyte, which helps with the ion transport. Electrochemical oxidation desulfurization does not work with water as a direct ingredient, even if hydroxyl radicals can be generated by oxidizing water at the anode [27]. Fig. 10 displays the influence of different electrolyte concentrations on the in situ production of H_2O_2 with diesel and dibenzothiophene (DBT). Producing H_2O_2 exhibited a linear increase as the electrolyte concentrations rose from 0.25 to 3.0 M. This phenomenon may be ascribed to augmenting the hydroxyl component, which enhances the electrolyte's conductivity and expands the electroactive region. Increased electrolyte concentrations can enhance current efficiency and safeguard the peroxide against future adverse reactions [57]. Elevating the levels of electrolytes might enhance the surface tension, thereby altering the overpotentials [58]. An increase in electrolyte concentration would result in an ionized layer thickness reduction [59]. The concentrations peaked at an electrolyte concentration of 3.0 M. As the concentration of per hydroxyl ions increased, their oxidation rate escalated, while the peroxide generation rate diminished [57].

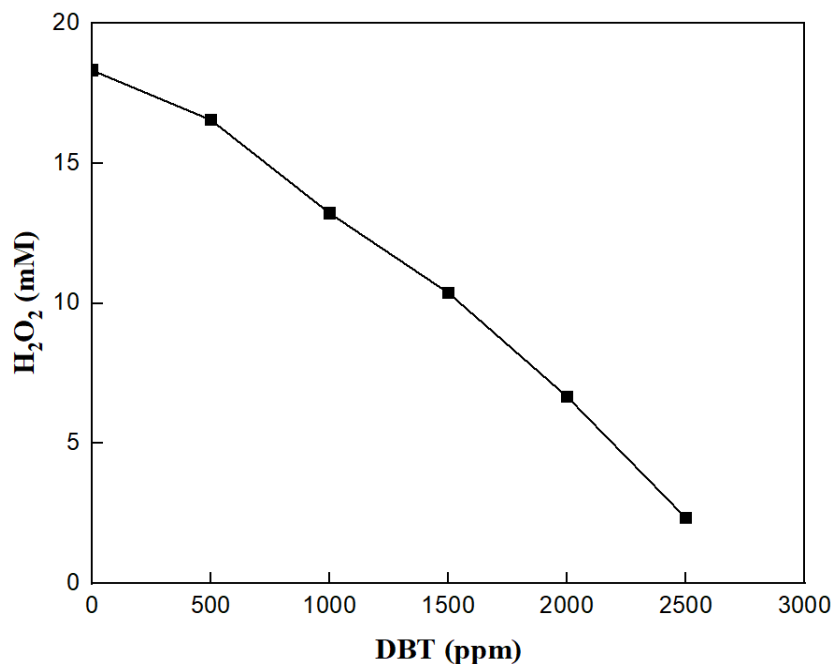


Fig. 9 The Concentration of DBT at a 90/10 Electrolyte to Diesel Ratio Affects the in Situ Formation of H₂O₂ in One Hour.

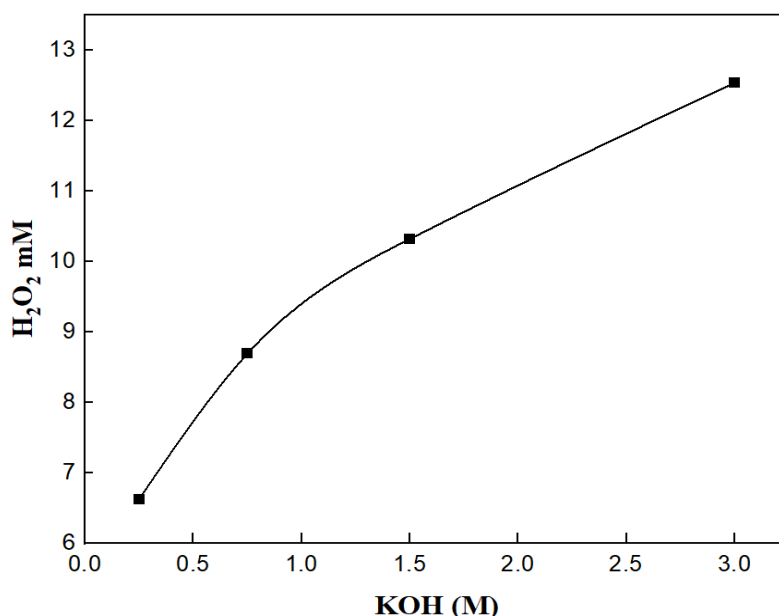
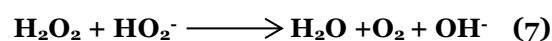


Fig.10 Effect of KOH Concentration on the in-situ Production of H₂O₂ in the Presence of Diesel and DBT After One Hour.

3.7. Effect of Temperature on Dibenzothiophene Rates of Conversions

Seven distinct temperatures were used to conduct the procedure, i.e., 5, 10, 20, 30, 40, 50, and 60 °C, to determine how reaction temperature impacts DBT in situ oxidation. The findings are shown in Fig. 11. In one hour, the DBT conversion rate increased from 20 to 50 °C, from 20.6 to 65.3%, and from 5 to 20 °C, it increased from 8.2 to 20.6%, as shown in Fig. 11. However, it fell below 50 °C. The DBT's oxidation rate increased with the reaction temperature [49]. On the other hand, the DBT conversion ratio dropped when the reaction

temperature increased over 50 °C. Reportedly, the following equation's reaction rate would increase at high temperatures, activating H₂O₂ self-decomposition [60].



Consequently, DBT in situ oxidation was hindered by H₂O₂ breakdown at high temperatures. According to studies, increasing the electrolyte solution temperature accelerates the oxygen evolution reaction and lowers H₂O₂ electrogeneration [26,61].

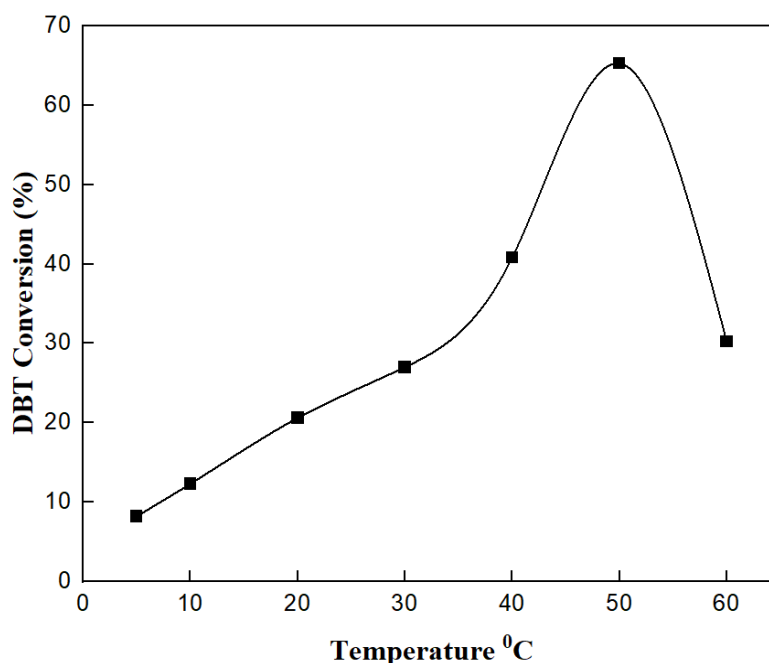


Fig. 11 The Conversion of DBT to a Different Temperature in One Hour.

3.8. Effect of Time on Dibenzothiophene Rates of Conversions

The results of an experiment on how response time affects the conversion rates of DBT dissolved in diesel are shown in Fig. 12, conducted throughout a time range of one to two hours. The steady increase in DBT conversion throughout the first 40 min reached around 20%. After 80 min., it obtained a conversion rate of around 65.0%; after 2 hours, it reached 100%. It was evident that the sulfur conversion rate increased significantly over the latter 40 minutes compared to the initial 40 minutes because of the DBT low concentration

and H_2O_2 high concentration. A sluggish oxidation rate of DBT was observed in the first 40 min due to H_2O_2 generation decrease and, consequently, a slow sulfur conversion rate. Sulfur removal effectiveness dropped with decreasing hydrogen peroxide concentration because the H_2O_2 to DBT ratio was lower than the stoichiometric ratio, around 2:1 for sulfur to H_2O_2 . Therefore, the oxidant was in little supply, which might cause DBT to undergo an incomplete conversion to sulfones. A deep sulfur conversion of 100% was accomplished in two hours after an increase in H_2O_2 generation and a high DBT oxidation rate after one hour.

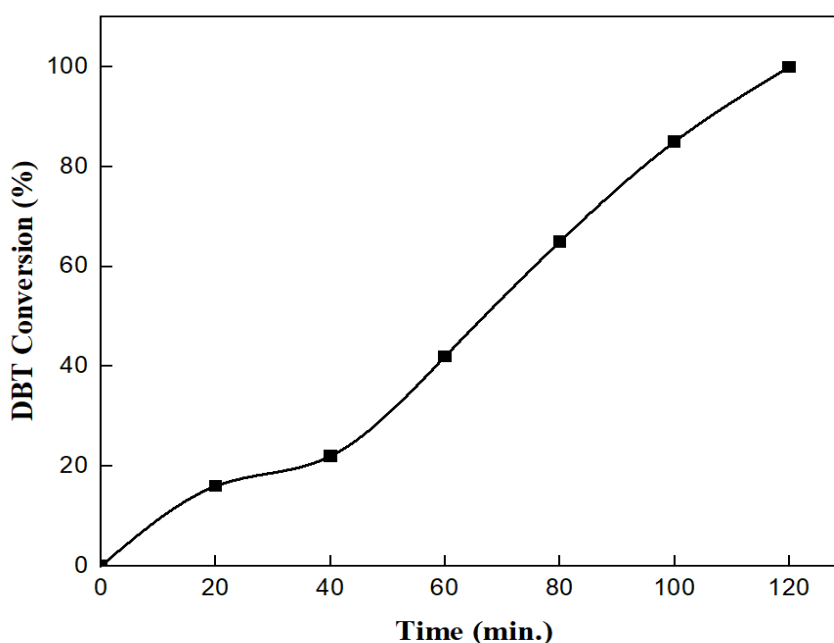
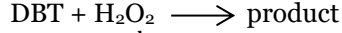


Fig. 12 The Change in DBT Over Time in TBER with the Following Parameters: Running at 20 °C, Electrolyte to Diesel Ratio of 90/10, 0.5 V, 1.5 L/min O_2 Flow Rate, and 15 mL/min Electrolyte Flow Rate.

3.9. Oxidation Desulfurization Reaction Kinetics

Investigation of reaction kinetics at various temperatures over time, with a KOH concentration of 0.25 M. The sulfur concentration was tested at various time intervals, i.e., 10, 20, 30, 40, and 50 minutes, and temperatures, i.e., 40, 50, and 60 °C. The response is expressed as follows:



$$-\frac{dc_D}{dt} = k [\text{H}_2\text{O}_2]^m [\text{c}_D]^n \quad (8)$$

Eq. (7) states that the reaction rate is ordered with respect to the DBT (n) and H_2O_2 (m) concentrations, where c_D is the concentration of DBT, k is the reaction rate constant, and t is the time. The H_2O_2 term dependent can be ignored because it is abundant [62]. Since the oxidation is often described as a pseudo-first-order reaction, Eq. (8) can be rewritten for $n = 1$ as follows:

$$-\frac{dc_D}{dt} = k [\text{c}_D] \quad (9)$$

with two limits:

$$t = 0 \rightarrow c_D = c_0 \text{ and } t = t \rightarrow c_D = c_f$$

$$\ln \left(\frac{c_0}{c_f} \right) = -kt \quad (10)$$

k represents the reaction rate constant, measured in min^{-1} , c_D represents the sulfur

concentration, c_f represents the final sulfur concentration, and c_0 represents the starting sulfur concentration measured in mol/L. Plotting the natural logarithm of the concentration ratio over initial concentration ($\ln(c_0/c_f)$) against time at various temperatures results in a linear equation with a high coefficient of determination (R_2), which confirms the assumption of kinetics. The reaction rate constant may be determined by calculating the straight lines' slopes, as shown in Fig. 13. The reaction constant and R_2 exhibited a positive correlation with the desulfurization temperature due to their considerable temperature dependence [63]. The reaction rate constants at different temperatures were determined using a power law model and were 0.018, 0.0192, and 0.0195 min^{-1} , respectively. The Arrhenius equation allows for estimating activation energies (AE) for a reaction, given by

$$k = k_0 \exp(-AE / RT) \quad (11)$$

The activation energy (AE) was 4.532 kJ/mol by plotting the natural logarithm of the rate constant ($\ln k$) versus the reciprocal of the temperature ($1/T$) using data from Fig. 13 and the power law.

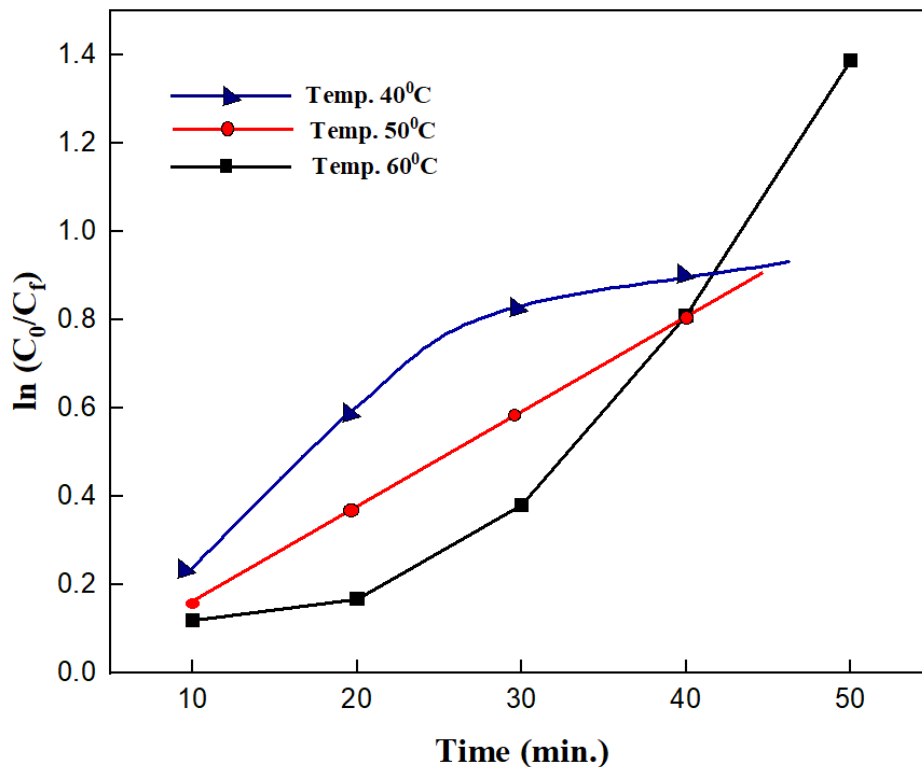


Fig. 13 Correlation between the Natural Logarithm of the Initial Concentration Divided by the Final Concentration and the Duration of Time at the Specified Temperature.

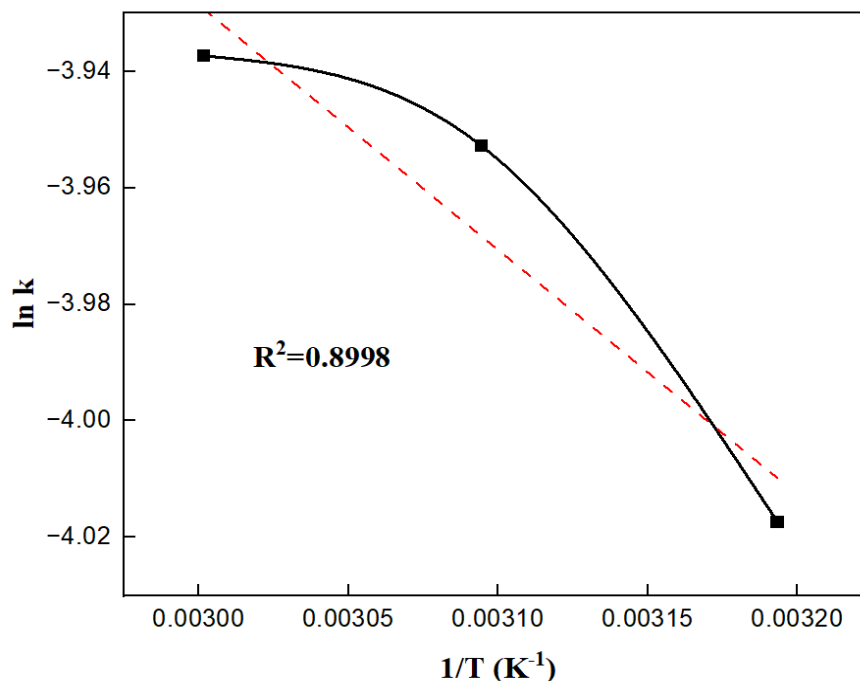


Fig. 14 Influence of Temperature on the Rate Constant of a Reaction.

4.CONCLUSIONS

The present study used MnO₂ nanoparticles as the cathode in a modified trickling bed electrochemical reactor coupled with PTFE to desulfurize Dibenzothiophene (DBT) in diesel fuel. The Co-Precipitation approach effectively produced MnO₂ nanoparticles. The nanoparticles were defined using XRD, SEM, and FTIR methodologies. A study was conducted to evaluate the DBT in situ oxidation in diesel and the electrogeneration of H₂O₂ using a constant voltage of 0.5 V. Introducing 10% diesel into the electrolyte reduced producing H₂O₂ by nearly 50% compared to without diesel, with a concentration of 18.32 mM. Modifying the oil-phase percentages revealed a reduction in peroxide generation, suggesting that the oil phase occupied the active sites. Nevertheless, with the small quantity of hydrogen peroxide generated, a complete conversion efficiency was attained within two hours after the DBT in situ oxidation in the TBER. The TBER has demonstrated a distinctive and pragmatic approach for effectively reducing sulfur emissions in diesel fuel.

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