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## 1 On the recirculation of ammonia-lithium nitrate in adiabatic 2 absorbers for chillers 3

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5 6

10 Abstract11

- 12 This paper presents a numerical model of single-effect absorption cycles with ammonia-13 lithium nitrate solution as the working pair and incorporating an adiabatic absorber. It is based on  $UA-\Delta T_{lm}$  models for separate regions of plate-type heat exchangers and it 14 15 assumes an approach factor to adiabatic equilibrium. The results are offered as a 16 function of external temperatures. A loop circuit with a heat exchanger upstream the 17 absorber produces subcooling for facilitating absorption process. The effect of the mass 18 flow rate recirculated through the absorber is studied. Results show a diminishing return 19 effect. The value at which the recirculation mass flow yields a reasonable performance 20 is between 4 and 6 times the solution mass flow. With a heat transfer area 6 times 21 smaller than with a conventional diabatic shell-and-tube type absorber, the adiabatic 22 absorber configured with a plate heat exchanger yields a 2% smaller maximum COP 23 and a 15-20 % smaller cooling power.
- 24

Keywords: Absorption chiller, ammonia-lithium nitrate, adiabatic absorber, mass flow
 recirculation.

27

28 Nomenclature

29

30 A Heat transfer area,  $m^2$ 

- 1 COP Coefficient of performance
- *cr* Circulation ratio
- 3 D Solution mass diffusivity,  $m^2 s^{-1}$
- *d* Droplet diameter, m
- $F_{ad}$  Approach factor to adiabatic equilibrium
- $F_d$  Approach factor to diabatic equilibrium
- $F_{d,max}$  Approach factor to maximum ammonia mass fraction diabatic equilibrium
- $F_{d,dmax}$  Ratio of approach factor to diabatic equilibrium and approach factor to
- 9 maximum ammonia mass fraction diabatic equilibrium for the same cycle.
- *h* Specific enthalpy, J kg<sup>-1</sup>
- *Le* Lewis number = thermal diffusivity/mass diffusivity
- *l* Path length
- $\dot{m}_r$  Refrigerant mass flow rate, kg s<sup>-1</sup>
- $\dot{m}_{rr}$  Recirculated mass flow rate, kg s<sup>-1</sup>
- $\dot{m}_5$  Solution mass flow rate at absorber outlet, kg s<sup>-1</sup>
- $\dot{m}_6$  Solution mass flow rate pumped by the solution pump, kg s<sup>-1</sup>
- $\dot{m}_8$  Solution mass flow rate at generator outlet, kg s<sup>-1</sup>
- $\dot{m}_{10}$  Solution mass flow rate at absorber inlet, kg s<sup>-1</sup>
- *P* Pressure, Pa
- $P_{inj}$  Injection pressure, Pa
- $\dot{Q}$  Thermal power, W
- *rr* Recirculation ratio
- T Temperature, °C
- $T_c$  Condensation temperature, °C

- $T_e$  Evaporation temperature, °C
- *t* Residence time, s
- 3 U Global heat transfer coefficient, W m<sup>-2</sup> K<sup>-1</sup>
- v Droplet velocity, m s<sup>-1</sup>
- $\dot{W}_{p,rr}$  Recirculation pump power, W
- $\dot{W}_{p,s}$  Solution pump power, W
- $X_{eq,ad}$  Adiabatic equilibrium ammonia mass fraction, outlet of absorber
- $X_{eq,d}$  Diabatic equilibrium ammonia mass fraction, outlet of absorber
- $X_{eq,dmax}$  Maximum diabatic equilibrium ammonia mass fraction, outlet of absorber
- $X_5$  Ammonia mass fraction, outlet of absorber
- $X_8$  Ammonia mass fraction, outlet of generator
- $X_{10}$  Ammonia mass fraction, inlet of absorber
- $\Delta T_{ml}$  Mean logarithmic temperature difference, °C
- $\eta_{hb}$  Pump hydraulic efficiency
- $\eta_{mb}$  Electro-mechanical pump motor efficiency
- $\tau$  Non-dimensional time

18 Subscripts

- *a* Absorber
- 20 ahx Absorber heat exchanger (subcooler)
- 21 ad Adiabatic
- 22 bo Boiling
- 23 c Condenser
- 24 col Vapour cooling

1	d	Diabatic (non-adiabatic)
2	е	Evaporator
3	eq	Equilibrium conditions
4	g	Generator
5	i	Inlet
6	r	Refrigerant
7	rr	Recirculation
8	S	Solution
9	shx	Solution heat exchanger
10	sub	Subcooling
11	sup	Superheating
12	tp	Two-phase

13

#### 14 **1. Introduction**

15 The absorber is currently the largest size element of absorption single-effect 16 machines due to transferring heat and mass at the same time [1]. The most common 17 type of this element is a falling film configuration, either along horizontal or vertical 18 tubes in a shell-and-tube arrangement. The main problem for these configurations is the 19 bad liquid distribution/surface wetting [2], hence lossing efficiency in the absorption 20 process. A similar process is performed in spray and plate heat exchanger (PHE) 21 absorbers, as they rely on falling film diabatic absorption. Other types of absorbers are 22 bubble absorbers and spray adiabatic absorbers [3].

The adiabatic absorber separates the processes of heat and mass transfer. The heat evacuation occurs in an external conventional single-phase heat exchanger, which allows reducing its size and cost, as it can be a commercial model. Moreover, if the heat

exchanger is a plate-type one, the heat transfer area needed is around 30 % of the area of
an equal power shell-and-tube heat exchanger [4]. Therefore, the plate heat exchanger
technology with adiabatic absorber seems to be an enabling factor for reducing the size
of the absorber.

5 The cooling happens before the poor in refrigerant (herewith ammonia) solution 6 flow enters the adiabatic absorber, where an adiabatic mass transfer process takes place 7 [5]. Usually mass transfer limits the absorption rate [6], being the liquid molecular 8 diffusion the factor that controls the absorption process. In order to reduce the 9 penetration length of the absorbed vapour into the liquid, the solution is sprayed. When 10 the drops start absorbing vapour their temperature rises, slowing absorption rate. If the 11 absorber is long enough, the adiabatic equilibrium is reached at the outlet of the 12 absorber because of a large residence time. However, as the absorption heat is not 13 evacuated the usual diabatic (non-adiabatic) equilibrium cannot be reached inside this 14 single pass absorber [1]; instead the equilibrium is at a higher temperature, thus with 15 less refrigerant absorbed. For this reason, there is need of an external recirculation and 16 subcooling of poor solution, so that a continuous multiple pass configuration results.

Different authors, e.g. [7, 8, 9 and 10], have studied the adiabatic absorption process
theoretically. Few authors [6, 11] carried out experimental studies. The results on these
works support its potential.

H<sub>2</sub>O-LiBr and NH<sub>3</sub>-H<sub>2</sub>O are the best-known working pairs for single-effect absorption cycles [12]. H<sub>2</sub>O-LiBr is commonly employed for air-conditioning purposes due to its overall favourable performance. For industrial refrigeration, NH<sub>3</sub>-H<sub>2</sub>O solution is the most common working fluid. NH<sub>3</sub>-LiNO<sub>3</sub> is a promising alternative that has been studied by [13, 14 and 15], among others. Single-effect absorption using this solution offers slightly higher coefficients of performance (*COP*) and a lower

investment cost and size than NH<sub>3</sub>-H<sub>2</sub>O, as it does not require a rectification tower, e.g.
 [15] and [16]. Lower driving temperatures for similar cooling purposes were reported in
 [16]. Theoretical studies about adiabatic absorption using this solution have been
 carried out in the last years [9] and [10].

5 There are still no rules on the suitable ratio of recirculation mass flow to solution 6 mass flow rates (rr) in adiabatic absorbers. This work aims at showing the influence of 7 rr on the absorption efficiency itself and also on the performance of a single-effect 8 based absorption cycle, using the promising NH<sub>3</sub>-LiNO<sub>3</sub> solution. Comparison with two 9 diabatic absorbers with saturated solution at their outlet is offered as a reference and 10 discussed in terms of efficiency, size and electricity consumption.

11

# 12 **2. Description of the single-effect absorption with adiabatic and diabatic absorbers**

13

14 Fig. 1 shows the cycle layout of an absorption cycle with the adiabatic absorber. The 15 rich in refrigerant solution exits the absorber and is divided into two flows, the recirculated flow  $(\dot{m}_{rr})$  returning to the absorber and the flow that goes to the generator 16  $(\dot{m}_5)$ .  $\dot{m}_5$  is pumped (point 6 in the cycle) through the solution heat exchanger and 17 18 preheated by the poor solution that comes from the generator. The rich solution enters 19 the generator (7) where ammonia vapour is desorbed and removed from the solution. 20 Poor solution returns to the absorber through the solution heat exchanger (8-9) and 21 lowers its pressure through the solution expansion valve (9). Downstream the valve, the 22 poor solution mixes with the recirculated flow and is cooled through the absorber heat 23 exchanger (subcooler). Finally, this flow is sprayed through injectors into the absorber 24 plenum by the remaining overpressure. This facilitates the incorporation of ammonia 25 vapour into the liquid solution. Ammonia liquid is produced in the condenser (1-2) at

1 condenser pressure  $(P_c)$  and is expanded (2-3). At low pressure  $(P_e)$  ammonia enters the 2 evaporator and produces cold. The resulting ammonia vapour (4) enters the adiabatic 3 absorber where it is absorbed by the solution spray.

4 Fig. 2 shows the same scheme of the absorption cycle but now with the diabatic 5 absorber, either single pass (no recirculation) or with recirculation. Now inside the 6 diabatic absorber the heat and mass transfer occurs simultaneously. This cycle will 7 serve to evaluate the differences with the adiabatic absorber. The differences in 8 thermodynamic state would vanish if both cycles reach diabatic equilibrium at the exit 9 of the absorber. This would happen with infinitely large absorption residence time (ideal 10 absorption, thus reaching saturation) and eventually with the cooperation of 11 recirculation.

12

#### 13 **3. Model**

#### 14 3.1. System of equations

15 The numerical model is based on the simultaneous resolution of mass and energy 16 steady state balance equations in all the components for either of both cycles. 17 Correlations of Infante Ferreira [17] are used for the solution thermodynamic properties. 18 Mechanical and chemical equilibrium are assumed at the exit of the components, 19 excepting the absorber, e.g. at generator outlet, saturation is imposed at condenser pressure  $P_{eq}(X_8, T_8) = P_c$ . Losses and irreversibilities are concentrated at discrete points. 20 21 The model is explained in detail in [18]. Only the fundamental issues that are related to 22 absorption processes will be presented here.

23 For both cycles, solution and refrigerant mass balances in the generator are:

$$24 \qquad \dot{m}_6 = \dot{m}_8 + \dot{m}_r \tag{1}$$

1 
$$\dot{m}_6 X_5 = \dot{m}_8 X_8 + \dot{m}_r$$
 (2)

The recirculation and refrigerant mass balance for the adiabatic absorption cycle are:

3 
$$\dot{m}_{10} = \dot{m}_8 + \dot{m}_6 \cdot rr$$
 (3)

4 
$$\dot{m}_{10}X_{10} = \dot{m}_8X_8 + \dot{m}_6 \cdot rr \cdot X_5$$

5 The recirculation ratio (*rr*) defines the mass flow recirculated towards the absorber 6 over the mass flow that goes to the generator, while circulation ratio (*cr*) refers to 7 solution mass flow pumped over the refrigerant flow:

2

9 
$$rr = \frac{\dot{m}_{rr}}{\dot{m}_6}; \ cr = \frac{\dot{m}_6}{\dot{m}_r}$$

10

11 3.2. Absorption figures of merit

12 The approach factor to adiabatic equilibrium  $F_{ad}$  is the ratio of the change in mass 13 concentration achieved at the outlet of the adiabatic absorber spray plenum over the 14 change in concentration reaching adiabatic equilibrium:

15

16 
$$F_{ad} = \frac{X_5 - X_{10}}{X_{eq,ad} - X_{10}}$$
 (6)

In order to illustrate the values of this figure of merit and to shed some light on its dependence on the operative parameters some discussion follows. The collision probability of the spray under conditions practical to absorption is very small, so that independent droplet absorption is currently accepted, e. g. [9], [19] and [23].

 $F_{ad}$ , in other words the efficiency of the mass absorption process in respect to the adiabatic equilibrium state, mainly depends on the diameter of the droplet (*d*), its velocity (*v*) and the length of its flight inside the absorption plenum chamber (*l*), which determines the residence time (*t*). Besides that, it depends on the diffusion coefficient of

(4)

(5)

1 ammonia in the solution (D), properties of the liquid and vapour phase, its turbulence 2 intensity and Reynolds number in the liquid droplet, which determines the fluid motion 3 inside the droplet. The droplet forming process and the external viscous flow shear 4 causes it. This motion enhances absorption. If this phenomenon is neglected jointly with 5 the external convection, a lower absorption rate results. Under this circumstance, a 6 simple estimation of  $F_{ad}$  is obtained if homogeneous temperature is assumed inside a 7 spherical droplet, which requires that the liquid Lewis number Le >> 1, which is the 8 case. The resulting equation for  $F_{ad}$  (Newman [19]) shows a growing value when the 9 characteristic non-dimensional residence time  $\tau$  (a mass transfer Fourier number) grows, 10 so that for  $\tau > 0.183 \Longrightarrow F_{ad} > 0.9$ :

11 
$$F_{ad} = 1 - \frac{6}{\pi^2} \sum_{i=1}^{i=\infty} \frac{\exp(-\pi^2 i^2 \tau)}{i^2}; \ \tau = \frac{tD}{(d/2)^2}$$
 (7)

12 Estimation of t is not straightforward owing to the varied trajectories the droplets 13 will follow inside the plenum and the decelerating effect of the ammonia vapour. An 14 even lower bound for  $F_{ad}$  is obtained if a constant velocity rectilinear trajectory is 15 assumed, so that t = l/v. For order of magnitude estimation, taking l = 0.2 m, v = 1 m/s and  $d = 300 \ \mu m$  yields  $F_{ad} = 0.63$ , which still is an interesting figure. The mere 16 17 inclusion of internal motion inside the droplet will lead to  $F_{ad} = 0.85$ , according to the 18 Kronig and Brink model [23], which is expressed in similar terms as eq. (7). This 19 indicates that including the rest of neglected phenomena and the residual absorption of 20 the liquid film on the walls, according to theory a value for  $F_{ad}$  near unity would result 21 in practice for this case. A selection of supporting studies on the topic is [19] to [23], 22 indicating that even higher values are possible when the remaining parameters are 23 considered. Both, experimental and numerical studies of exothermic adiabatic droplet 24 absorption have been expressed in similar terms as the Newman equation, [6] and [11]

but using just the first ones of the series. Results of a numerical model fo film
absorption [24] has showed that film absorption follows the same time evolution
functional form than Newman model predicted for droplets.

Experimental results, offered below, corroborate the above considerations. As  $F_{ad}$ depends on complex thermo-fluid process of spray absorption, here it will be used as input variable not precising how it will be achieved, but being sure that values near unity are achievable.

8 The adiabatic equilibrium mass concentration  $X_{eq,ad}$  is calculated at the constant 9 pressure of the absorber  $P_e$  and at the higher adiabatic equilibrium temperature  $T_{eq,ad}$ , 10 which comes from the following equation:

11 
$$P_{eq}(X_{eq,ad}, T_{eq,ad}) = P_e$$
 (8)

12 The energy balance in the absorber for the case of reaching the adiabatic equilibrium13 is:

14 
$$\dot{m}_8 \cdot h_{10} + \dot{m}_{r,eq} \cdot h_4 = (\dot{m}_8 + \dot{m}_{r,eq}) h_{eq,ad}$$
 (9)

15 
$$h_{eq,ad} = h_{eq}(X_{eq,ad}, T_{eq,ad})$$
 (10)

17 
$$\dot{m}_8 \cdot X_8 + \dot{m}_{r,eq} = (\dot{m}_8 + \dot{m}_{r,eq}) \cdot X_{eq,ad}$$
 (11)

The approach factor to diabatic equilibrium  $F_d$  is used to compare the performance of the adiabatic absorber with what can be achieved in an equivalent diabatic absorber reaching saturation, thus ideal. This parameter is defined as the ratio of the change in refrigerant mass concentration achieved at the exit of the adiabatic absorber over the change in concentration reaching the diabatic equilibrium at the same pressure:

23 
$$F_d = \frac{X_5 - X_8}{X_{eq,d} - X_{8,d}}$$
(12)

1 The concentration at the outlet of the absorber that reaches saturation the diabatic 2 equilibrium (in this sense ideal, *i.e.* involving the maximum X reachable with a finite 3 value of UA)  $X_{eq,d}$  is calculated modelling, the same way as before, an absorber in 4 which the mass and heat transfer proceed inside the absorber, as shown in Fig. 2. This 5 simulation is carried out with the same inlet parameters as the adiabatic absorber cycle, 6 Table 1. This simulation was performed with a same finite value of heat conductance 7  $(UA_a)$  as the adiabatic absorber  $(UA_{ahx})$ , thus it is called "equivalent". For this purpose, 8 the mean logarithmic temperature difference at the diabatic absorber is defined as usual:

9 
$$\Delta T lm_a = \frac{(T_{10} - T_{ao}) - (T_5 - T_{ai})}{\ln\left(\frac{(T_{10} - T_{ao})}{(T_5 - T_{ai})}\right)}$$
(13)

It is worth to note that diabatic equilibrium with finite heat conductance can be
approached in practice with a high enough recirculation rate. Recirculation, indicated in
Fig. 2, is common in large size absorption machines.

13 Still another reference is useful, again considering saturation at the exit of the 14 diabatic absorber, but at the external circuit inlet temperature, what is common in cycle 15 calculations [1], representing the maximum possible. The approach factor to the 16 maximum ammonia mass fraction  $F_{dmax}$  considers reaching this diabatic equilibrium, as 17 the reference. Therefore, it corresponds to the same eq. (12), but now using a conductance  $UA_a$  of infinite value, and infinite value for the external flow rate. As 18 above indicated the temperature of equilibrium now coincides with the external inlet 19 20 temperature to the absorber  $(T_{a,i})$ , usually named recooling inlet temperature:

21 
$$F_{dmax} = \frac{X_5 - X_8}{X_{eq,dmax} - X_{8,dmax}}$$
(14)

1  $F_{d,dmax}$  compares both diabatic absorbers considered, the equivalent one, and the one 2 that reaches the maximum diabatic absorption at its outlet, so reaching the external 3 circuit inlet temperature. Thus it is the ratio of  $F_{dmax}$  to  $F_d$  for the same fixed operating 4 conditions, shown in Table 1.  $F_{d,dmax} = \frac{X_{eq,d} - X_{8,d}}{X_{eq,dmax} - X_{8,dmax}}$ 5 (15)6 3.3. Cycle efficiency 7 The new mass concentration  $X_{eq,dmax}$  comes from an equilibrium condition: 8  $P_{eq}(X_{eq,dmax},T_{a,i}) = P_e$ (16)9 The coefficient of performance of the cycles is defined as follows:  $COP = \frac{Q_e}{\dot{Q}_g}$ 10 (17)11 The following equations allow calculating the electrical power consumptions of the 12 solution pump and the recirculation pump:  $\dot{W}_{p,s} = \frac{\dot{m}_6}{\rho_5} \frac{\left(P_c - P_e\right)}{\eta_m \cdot \eta_h}$ 13 (18)

14 
$$\dot{W}_{p,rr} = \frac{\dot{m}_{rr}}{\rho_5} \frac{\left(P_{inj} - P_e\right)}{\eta_m \cdot \eta_h}$$
(19)

#### 15 3.4. Working conditions

Table 1 summarizes the input parameters to the cycle that are kept constant. All the characteristics of the external flows are input constants: inlet temperatures and mass flow rates as well as the characteristics of the heat exchangers, i.e., the global heat transfer coefficients U for each type of flow region (single or two-phase) and the total transfer areas, are input constants. As can be seen in Table 1, different values for U are taken for each phase region inside each heat exchanger and the corresponding area is

1 part of the system of equations solution, excepting the two alternative absorber heat 2 exchangers as they embrace a single region. Moreover, according to [18] energy and 3 mass balances at the saturation condition determine the surface area for each region 4 until phase change is complete. Downstream or upstream this boundary, surface area is 5 determined by the corresponding subcooling or superheating conditions and the total 6 prescribed heat transfer surface. This way the resulting equivalent U for the whole 7 exchanger allows matching the prescribed UA and the resulting total area A through the 8 system of equations. However, to compare the performance of the adiabatic cycle with 9 the diabatic one, the overall conductance of the absorber in the diabatic case was 10 calculated with the same value as the adiabatic one  $(UA_{ahx} = UA_a)$ . Therefore, the input 11 variable for calculating both the diabatic absorber cycle performance was  $UA_a$  and not 12  $U_a$  and  $A_a$  separately.

The model equations were numerically solved by means of the software EES<sup>®</sup>, [25].

14

13

#### 15 **4. Results and discussion**

16

17 Figure 3 shows the variation of COP with recirculation ratio rr for different values 18 of  $F_{ad}$  (considered as an input everywhere) and a representative but moderate hot driving water temperature  $T_{g,i} = 85$  °C. One can observe that when  $F_{ad}$  is increased the 19 20 COP rises for every rr because of the improvement on the ammonia absorption. The 21 lower the  $F_{ad}$  the higher are the differences between the curves. For each curve, when rr22 increases, the value of COP rises, again as a result of the increased ammonia absorption. 23 For values of rr lower than about 4, for the case of  $F_{ad} = 1$ , the COP rises rapidly, 24 meanwhile for higher values the curves switch to a smaller slope. The switching point 25 rises slightly for lower  $F_{ad}$ .

1	The variation of the cooling capacity $\dot{Q}_e$ with the recirculation ratio $rr$ for different
2	values of $F_{ad}$ , again for $T_{g,i} = 85$ °C, is shown in Figure 4. $\dot{Q}_e$ rises when $F_{ad}$ and $rr$
3	increase, similarly as commented for the COP curves, but with a higher sensitivity, as
4	now more refrigerant absorption means a twofold improvement, more COP and more
5	mass. For $F_{ad} = 1$ $\dot{Q}_e$ rises rapidly up to $rr \approx 5$ meanwhile for higher values of $rr \dot{Q}_e$
6	rises at a lower pace, but the change in slope is not such apparent as in Figure 3. When
7	$F_{ad}$ decreases the value for which the curves change in slope slightly decreases, in
8	contrast with the case of the COP curves. $\dot{Q}_e$ seems to continue rising significantly up
9	to $rr \approx 10$ .

Figure 5 shows the variation of the approach factor to diabatic equilibrium  $F_d$  and 10 the approach factor to maximum ammonia mass fraction diabatic equilibrium  $F_{d,max}$ , 11 12 with recirculation ratio rr, for different approach factors to adiabatic equilibrium  $F_{ad}$ , again for  $T_{g,i} = 85$  °C. Both  $F_d$  and  $F_{dmax}$  rise with the increase of  $F_{ad}$ , being the rise 13 higher for the curves of  $F_d$ . The maximum values are reached for the best possible value 14  $F_{ad} = 1$  (adiabatic equilibrium). They were computed up to rr = 10 yielding  $F_d = 0.8$  and 15 16  $F_{dmax} = 0.64$ . These values indicate that the adiabatic absorption efficiency is far from 17 unity, the respective maxima possible, and that not much difference exists between  $F_d$ 18 and  $F_{dmax}$ , respectively the diabatic saturated absorbers with equivalent UA and the one with  $UA_a = \infty$ . As already commented for  $\dot{Q}_e$ , the values where the curves switch their 19 20 slope slightly decrease for lower rr.

Figure 6 shows the variation of the coefficient of performance *COP* with driving inlet temperature  $T_{g,i}$  for different recirculation ratios rr and the best value possible:  $F_{ad} = 1$  (adiabatic equilibrium) for the adiabatic and as a reference, the equivalent saturated diabatic absorption cycles. The *COP* curves rise when rr increases for all the

 $T_{g,i}$  simulated. The differences between curves are slight for rr = 4, 6 and 8, meanwhile 1 2 for rr = 0 (single pass) the curve tendency is different from the others and the values are 3 noticeably lower. The differences between curves decrease slightly with increasing  $T_{g,i}$ . 4 The recirculation ratio that almost reaches the maximum *COP* is  $rr \approx 4$ . The maximum 5 COP found for the highest recirculation ratio used, rr = 8, is close to the diabatic COP, 6 being 0.66 for the adiabatic absorber and 0.67 for the diabatic one, which represents less 7 than 2 % loss. It is worth to mention that these differences are lower with higher driving 8 temperatures, as a result of the higher driving force for absorption. Figure 7 shows the variation of cooling capacity  $\dot{Q}_e$  with driving inlet temperature  $T_{g,i}$  for different 9 recirculation ratios rr and again  $F_{ad} = 1$ . This figure also shows  $\dot{Q}_{a}$  for the cycle with 10 11 equivalent diabatic absorber. The curves rise almost linearly with the increase of  $T_{g,i}$ . 12 Thus indicating that neither evaporator overflow nor condenser insufficient 13 condensation appears, according to [18]. The figure depicts a higher cooling capacity  $\dot{Q}_{e}$  for a higher *rr*, decreasing the differences between curves for the highest values of *rr*. 14 In contrast with the COP curves the differences between curves herewith enlarge with 15 the increase of  $T_{g,i}$ , as well as the differences between rr = 4 and rr = 8 are larger.  $\dot{Q}_e$ 16 for rr = 6 is almost the maximum, so the increase of rr above rr = 6 does not 17 18 substantially improve the cooling capacity. The differences between the maximum 19 recirculation ratio considered, rr = 8, and the diabatic cycle grow with  $T_{g,i}$ , but the proportion diminishes, being the adiabatic cooling power 20 % lower at  $T_{g,i} = 90$  °C and 20 21 a mere 15 % lower at  $T_{g,i} = 110$  °C.

Table 2 shows the values of the enthalpy, temperature and concentrations at the inlet and outlet of the absorber for the cases of the adiabatic absorber with rr = 0 and rr = 6, for  $F_{ad} = 1$  and the equivalent diabatic absorber cycle for  $T_{g,i} = 85$  °C.

1 Figure 8 shows the variation of  $F_d$  and  $F_{dmax}$  with  $T_{g,i}$ , for different recirculation ratios rr and as before,  $F_{ad} = 1$ . All the curves grow with the increase of  $T_{g,i}$ , rapidly for 2 3 low driving temperatures and slower for higher one's. This rise is greater for  $F_d$  than for 4  $F_{dmax}$ , especially for high rr values, indicating that high  $T_{g,i}$  is especially in favour of the 5 adiabatic absorber approaching the equivalent diabatic absorber performance. As the 6 curves show, the values for rr = 6 and rr = 8 are very close together for all the  $T_{g,i}$ 7 simulated, suggesting that an increase above 8 does not much improve the performance 8 of the adiabatic absorber. The range of values of  $F_d$  for rr = 8 from  $T_{g,i} = 85$  °C to 9 122 °C, whereas the machine will likely operate, is from 0.74 to 0.88, meanwhile the 10 range of values of  $F_{dmax}$  is from 0.62 to 0.65. This difference increases with an increase in  $T_{g,i}$ , as Figure 8 shows, as a consequence of higher heat power evacuated through 11 12  $UA_a$ . Figure 8 shows too the above defined parameter  $F_{d,dmax}$ . The results indicate that 13 with conventional diabatic absorbers, a loss in absorption efficiency has to be accepted 14 owing to finite heat conductance, similarly to what has been described for adiabatic 15 absorbers.

16 The variation of  $F_d$  with driving inlet temperature  $T_{g,i}$  for different absorber heat 17 exchanger conductances  $UA_{ahx}$  is shown in Figure 9. Again  $F_{ad} = 1$  has been chosen to 18 isolate the effect of heat transfer conductance and solution thermodynamics from mass 19 transfer conductance. The increase of  $UA_{ahx}$  improves  $F_d$ , but the improvement is more 20 important for the smallest values of  $UA_{ahx}$  considered. This growth approaches the 21 performance of the adiabatic absorber to the diabatic equivalent one.

The increase of  $UA_{ahx}$  in the adiabatic absorption cycle does not mean that this heat exchanger is larger than the diabatic absorber. As explained in the introduction, the falling film configuration is the most common for diabatic absorbers and they use to rely on a shell-and-tube type heat exchanger. In [4] it is commented that the heat

1 transfer area for an equal power plate heat exchanger is 30 % of a shell-and-tube heat 2 exchanger. In addition to that, in [2] Jeong and Garimella comment that the wetted 3 surface in a falling film absorber can be around 50 % of the total available. This means 4 that the heat transfer area, for the same conductance, with the diabatic shell-and-tube 5 absorber can be more than 6 times larger than with a plate type one. Nevertheless, to 6 compare both absorber types on a fair basis it is necessary to consider also the adiabatic absorber plenum size. The plenum height of a spray absorber needed to reach  $F_{ad} = 0.8$ 7 8 with LiNO<sub>3</sub>-NH<sub>3</sub> as working fluid is around 205 mm. This has been found 9 experimentally, [26], for a solution mass flow rate ranging between 0.041-0.083 kg/s, 10 relying on 7 commercial swirl pressure injectors of the fog type, nominally producing 11 an average droplet diameter of  $d = 310 \,\mu\text{m}$ . This means that the adiabatic absorber does 12 not eliminate the size advantage so far, neither signifies a substantial cost overrun. The 13 consequence is that the total area and volume saved with the adiabatic absorber can be 14 quite significant.

The recirculation pump power  $\dot{W}_{p,rr}$ , is obtained using eq. (17) and the experimental data available in [26], being  $P_{inj}$ - $P_a = 1.5 \times 10^5$  Pa. The results are  $\dot{W}_{p,rr} = 231$  W for rr =8 and the solution pump power  $\dot{W}_{p,s} = 216$  W, eq. (16), both for a nominal capacity  $\dot{Q}_e =$ 4 kW at  $T_{g,i} = 85$  °C.

20 5. Conclusions

21

Detailed models for a single-effect absorption cycle with an adiabatic absorber and both a diabatic saturated equivalent and an ideal absorber have been implemented using

the NH<sub>3</sub>-LiNO<sub>3</sub> solution. The following conclusions can be drawn from the present
study:

3 - Saturation at the external recooling temperature is not reached neither 4 with adiabatic nor diabatic absorber with finite absorber heat conductance, even 5 in the case of equilibrium complete absorption (saturation), affecting both the 6 *COP* and the cooling capacity  $\dot{Q}_e$ .

- The recirculation loop is necessary in adiabatic absorbers for the cycle to
  operate with a reasonable performance.
- 9 For operating conditions leading to a reasonably high value of *COP*, this 10 parameter is less sensitive to recirculation ratio *rr* than the cooling capacity  $\dot{Q}_{e}$ .
- 11 The recirculation ratio to almost reach the maximum performance for 12 adiabatic absorbers could be found to be between rr = 4 and rr = 6.
- 13 For the same heat conductance  $UA_a$  the adiabatic absorber offers almost 14 the same *COP* figures as a complete absorption diabatic absorber, but with 15-20 15 % lower cooling capacity, at the maximum recirculation explored rr = 8.
- The size of the absorber subcooler in the adiabatic arrangement could be
  down to 6 times smaller than with the diabatic arrangement and the plenum size
  is not excessive. The price to pay is an extra pump, being its electricity
  consumption almost the same than the solution pump.
- 20 An increase of the subcooler heat conductance  $UA_{ahx}$ , for the adiabatic 21 absorber, improves the performance of the cycle, but at the expense of a minor 22 size reduction.
- 23

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1 Figure 1. Layout of the single-effect absorption cycle with the adiabatic absorber.

- 2 Figure 2. Layout of the single-effect absorption cycle with a diabatic absorber, showing
- 3 the optional recirculation circuit.

4 Figure 3. Coefficient of performance *COP* versus recirculation ratio *rr* for different

- 5 approach to equilibrium factors,  $F_{ad} = \{0.5, 0.6, 0.7, 0.8, 0.9, 1.0\}$  and  $T_{g,i} = 85$  °C, for
- 6 the adiabatic absorber.

Figure 4. Cooling capacity  $\dot{Q}_e$  versus recirculation ratio rr for different approach to equilibrium factors,  $F_{ad} = \{0.5, 0.6, 0.7, 0.8, 0.9, 1.0\}$  and  $T_{g,i} = 85$  °C, for the adiabatic absorber.Figure 5 Equivalent approach factor to diabatic equilibrium  $F_d$  and approach factor to maximum ammonia mass fraction diabatic equilibrium  $F_{d,max}$  versus recirculation ratio rr for different approach factors to adiabatic equilibrium  $F_{ad} = \{0.5, 0.6, 0.7, 0.8, 0.9, 1.0\}$  and  $T_{g,i} = 85$  °C for the adiabatic absorber.

Figure 6. Coefficient of performance *COP* versus driving inlet temperature  $T_{g,i}$  for different recirculation ratios,  $rr = \{0, 2, 4, 6, 8\}$ , using  $F_{ad} = 1$  for the adiabatic absorber. The *COP* of the equivalent diabatic absorber is depicted as a reference.

Figure 7. Cooling capacity  $\dot{Q}_e$  versus driving inlet temperature  $T_{g,i}$  for different recirculation ratios,  $rr = \{0, 2, 4, 6, 8\}$  and  $F_{ad} = 1$  for the adiabatic absorber. The cooling capacity of the equivalent diabatic absorber is depicted as a reference.

Figure 8. Approach factor to diabatic equilibrium  $F_d$  and approach factor to maximum ammonia mass fraction diabatic equilibrium  $F_{d,max}$  versus driving inlet temperature  $T_{g,i}$ for different recirculation ratios,  $rr = \{0, 2, 4, 6, 8\}$  and  $F_{ad} = 1$ , for the adiabatic

22 absorber.  $\overline{F}_{d,dmax}$  versus driving inlet temperature  $T_{g,i}$ .

- 1 Figure 9. Diabatic approach to equilibrium factor  $F_d$  versus driving inlet temperature  $T_{g,i}$
- 2 for different absorber heat exchanger conductances,  $UA_{ahx} = \{2, 250; 3, 000; 3, 750;$
- 3 4,500; 5,250}W m<sup>-2</sup> K<sup>-1</sup>,  $F_{ad} = 1$  and rr = 8, for the adiabatic absorber.
- 4 Table 1. Constant input variables for the simulation.
- 5 Table 2. Enthalpy, temperature and concentrations at the inlet and outlet of the absorber
- 6 for  $T_{g,i} = 85$  °C and  $F_{ad} = 1$ .



3 Figure 1. Layout of the single-effect absorption cycle with the adiabatic absorber.

 $\frac{1}{2}$ 



- 2 Figure 2. Layout of the single-effect absorption cycle with a diabatic absorber, showing
- 3

1

the optional recirculation circuit.



1

Figure 3. Coefficient of performance *COP* versus recirculation ratio *rr* for different approach to equilibrium factors,  $F_{ad} = \{0.5, 0.6, 0.7, 0.8, 0.9, 1.0\}$  and  $T_{g,i} = 85$  °C, for the adiabatic absorber.



Figure 4. Cooling capacity  $\dot{Q}_e$  versus recirculation ratio rr for different approach to equilibrium factors,  $F_{ad} = \{0.5, 0.6, 0.7, 0.8, 0.9, 1.0\}$  and  $T_{g,i} = 85$  °C, for the adiabatic absorber.



Figure 5. Equivalent approach factor to diabatic equilibrium  $F_d$  and approach factor to maximum ammonia mass fraction diabatic equilibrium  $F_{dmax}$  versus recirculation ratio rr for different approach factors to adiabatic equilibrium  $F_{ad} = \{0.5, 0.6, 0.7, 0.8, 0.9,$ 

5 1.0} and  $T_{g,i} = 85$  °C for the adiabatic absorber.



1

Figure 6. Coefficient of performance *COP* versus driving inlet temperature  $T_{g,i}$  for different recirculation ratios,  $rr = \{0, 2, 4, 6, 8\}$ , using  $F_{ad} = 1$  for the adiabatic absorber. The *COP* of the equivalent diabatic absorber is depicted as a reference.



Figure 7. Cooling capacity  $\dot{Q}_e$  versus driving inlet temperature  $T_{g,i}$  for different recirculation ratios,  $rr = \{0, 2, 4, 6, 8\}$  and  $F_{ad} = 1$  for the adiabatic absorber. The cooling capacity of the equivalent diabatic absorber is depicted as a reference.



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Figure 8. Approach factor to diabatic equilibrium  $F_d$  and approach factor to maximum ammonia mass fraction diabatic equilibrium  $F_{dmax}$  versus driving inlet temperature  $T_{g,i}$ for different recirculation ratios,  $rr = \{0, 2, 4, 6, 8\}$  and  $F_{ad} = 1$ , for the adiabatic absorber.  $F_{d,dmax}$  versus driving inlet temperature  $T_{g,i}$ .



1

Figure 9. Diabatic approach to equilibrium factor F<sub>d</sub> versus driving inlet temperature T<sub>g,i</sub>
for different absorber heat exchanger conductances, UA<sub>ahx</sub> = {2,250; 3,000; 3,750;
4,500; 5,250}W m<sup>-2</sup> K<sup>-1</sup>, F<sub>ad</sub> = 1 and rr = 8, for the adiabatic absorber.

Input Variable	Value	Input Variable	Value
$\eta_{hb}$	0.5	$A_{c}$	$1.8 \text{ m}^2$
$\eta_{mb}$	0.5	$A_e$	$1.0 \text{ m}^2$
$\dot{m}_a$	0.35 kg s <sup>-1</sup>	$A_g$	$0.9 \text{ m}^2$
$\dot{m}_c$	0.35 kg s <sup>-1</sup>	$A_{shx}$	$0.7 \text{ m}^2$
$\dot{m}_e$	0.4 kg s <sup>-1</sup>	$UA_a$	$2.25 \cdot 10^3 \text{ W K}^{-1}$
$\dot{m}_g$	0.15 kg s <sup>-1</sup>	$U_{c,col}$	$200 \text{ W} \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ K}^{-1}$
$\dot{m}_6$	0.05 kg s <sup>-1</sup>	$U_{c,tp}$	$1.8 \cdot 10^3 \text{ W m}^{-2} \text{ K}^{-1}$
$T_{a,i}$	30 °C	$U_{c,sub}$	$1.0 \cdot 10^3 \text{ W m}^{-2} \text{ K}^{-1}$
$T_{c,i}$	30 °C	$U_{e,tp}$	$2.5 \cdot 10^3 \text{ W m}^{-2} \text{ K}^{-1}$
$T_{e,i}$	8 °C	U <sub>e,sup</sub>	$200 \text{ W m}^{-2} \text{ K}^{-1}$
$T_c$	39 °C	$U_{g,bo} = U_{shx,bo}$	$2.0 \cdot 10^3 \text{ W m}^{-2} \text{ K}^{-1}$
$T_e$	0 °C	$U_g = U_{shx}$	$1.5 \cdot 10^3 \text{ W m}^{-2} \text{ K}^{-1}$

2

3 Table 1. Constant input variables for the simulation.

Variable	Adiabatic absorber <i>rr</i> = 0	Adiabatic absorber <i>rr</i> = 6	Equivalent diabatic absorber
$h_5$ (kJ kg <sup>-1</sup> )	104.8	90.1	81.97
$h_{10} ({\rm kJ} {\rm kg}^{-1})$	76.5	79.8	97.59
$T_5(^{\circ}\mathrm{C})$	39.05	34.75	31.9
$T_{10}$ (°C)	30.01	31.46	37.22
X <sub>5</sub>	0.4897	0.5129	0.5276
X <sub>8</sub>	0.4793	0.4866	0.4913
<i>X</i> <sub>10</sub>	0.4793	0.5093	0.4913
$\Delta X = X_5 - X_8$	0.0104	0.0263	0.0363

3 Table 2. Enthalpy, temperature and concentrations at the inlet and outlet of the absorber

4 for 
$$T_{g,i} = 85 \text{ °C}$$
 and  $F_{ad} = 1$ .