

DIRECT-CONTACT DEHUMIDIFICATION AS A SUSTAINABLE FRESH WATER PRODUCTION TECHNIQUE: A REVIEW

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Summary

This chapter provides a literature review of the direct-contact dehumidification (DCD) concept, process and devices. It starts with an introductory that highlights the main results collected from literature. Then, it briefly explains the humidification and dehumidification (HDH) phenomenon and introduces the DCD concept with illustration and psychrometric calculations. Next, it provides information on the historical development of the DCD devices starting with the first recorded use of the DCD concept. After that, it highlights the main findings of past publications and scientific works relating to the parameters involved in the DCD process; in HDH systems and sustainable energy systems. Additionally, it provides brief definitions of the parameters that evaluate the technical effectiveness of the DCD devices and some past scientific works that evaluated the DCD's economic effectiveness.

Introduction

Direct Contact Dehumidifiers (DCDs) are devices used to extract moisture from humid air stream through a direct contact between two phases: relatively cold freshwater and warm humid air. In comparison to indirect contact dehumidifiers, DCDs proved superiority in terms of being corrosion- and fouling-free, no water leakage and more heat transfer. This chapter presents a review of the various aspects of DCD systems such as the working principle, historical development, applications in different Humidification-De-Humidification (HDH) systems, energy sustainability and technical and economic effectiveness. The literature on the subject reports three main types of DCDs: (i) spray type, (ii) packing type and (iii) bubble column (pool condensation) type. Freshwater production is directly proportional to air temperature, air humidity, water-to-air ratio, and apparatus height, and inversely proportional to water temperature. Water-to-air ratio, DCD height and air flowrate have optimal values of 2, 60 cm and 0.16 kg/s, respectively, that correspond to highest production rates and beyond these values production decreases. Several methods to calculate numerical values for DCD technical effectiveness are reviewed along with experimental results. For large-scale use, a direct contact HDH system operated with renewable energy was found to be the most efficient and profiting desalination technique reported. Therefore, direct contact HDH systems are very promising desalination methods due to their enhanced economic effectiveness.

1.1. Background

Dehumidification is the process of removing moisture from a gas-vapor stream through contact with a cold surface of liquid or solid form. The dehumidification process involves a phase change of matter from gas to liquid, which is known as condensation. When a relatively-warm air-water mixture makes contact with a cold surface, the mixture reaches its dew point and consequently water-vapor molecules condense on the cold surface (Collins Dictionary, 2017; Brundrett 1987). This process is a naturally-occurring phenomenon, and can also be artificially implemented in several areas in science and industry. For instance, commercial dehumidifiers are used to enhance air quality in residential, industrial and medical premises (Allergyandair, 2017; Thepurefactory, 2013; AMFA, 2017; Aprilaire, 2018). The commercial dehumidifiers are essential in areas of increased humidity because moisture in the air can cause a number of drawbacks like; health problems and discomfort, accumulation of mold in households and acceleration of metal corrosion over time (Brundrett, 1987 ; Arundel et al, 1986 ; Davis et al, 2016 ; Shaman et al, 2010 ; Yang et al, 2015; Li et al, 2010 ; Hayes et al, 2013). Along with the removal of moisture, dehumidifiers take out micro-size pollutants like pollens from the atmospheric air (Iihf, IIHF Arena Man, 2002; Airconditioning-systems Dehumidifier, ;2017; Mohammad et al, 2015; Chung et al, 1995). Another industrial purpose for dehumidification is desalinating saline water through Humidification-Dehumidification (HDH) systems (Huang et al, 2017 ; Niroomand et al, 2015; Al-Ismaili et al, 2016; Klausner et al, 2004; Narayan et al, 2010; Eslamimanesh et al, 2010).

The HDH systems are used to desalinate water through imitation of the natural hydrologic cycle. These systems have attracted the attention of scientists who wish to

alleviate the drawbacks of fresh water scarcity in many parts of the world. The HDH systems are basically composed of three major components; a humidifier, a dehumidifier and a heat-providing system (solar stills, waste heat, electric heaters, etc...) (Parekh et al, 2004; Al-Hallaj et al, 2006; Farid et al, 2003; Ettouney, 2005; Hou, 2008; Xiong et al, 2006; Al-Enezi et al, 2006; Zheng, 2017; Sharshir et al, 2016; Yildirim and Solmuş, 2014). Usually in the HDH systems, the dehumidifier component is mainly a surface heat exchanger, which was found to be costly due to the corrosion and blockage damages caused by the saline water (Huang et al, 2017; Alsadaie and Mujtaba, 2017; Somerscales, 1997). One method to eradicate the technical and economic disadvantages of the surface heat exchangers is to replace them with direct contact dehumidifiers (DCD). These devices offer a long mean lifetime and are cost-effective due to the ease of construction and the absence of contact between saline water and transporting elements which eliminate typical problems like; fouling, corrosion and water leakage (Niroomand et al, 2015; Al-Ismaili et al, 2016; Zamen et al, 2013).

1.2. DCD Concept

Direct-contact dehumidifiers (DCD) condense water vapor that is residing in a humid air stream with high temperature and a near saturation humidity by means of direct contact of the humid air stream with a relatively cold fresh water stream. The idea is that heat and mass transfer will take place as a result of the temperature differential between the two fluids as the contact is occurring. Compared to indirect contact dehumidifiers, the DCDs achieve more heat transfer due to the absence of barriers between the two fluids and the increased surface area of contact (Zamen et al, 2013; Li et al, 2006). The DCDs can be categorized according to the flow pattern of both fluids. There are three flow patterns of the DCDs which are: (i) counter-flow contact pattern in which the air and water streams flow in opposite directions to each other, (ii) concurrent flow contact pattern in which the two streams flow in the same direction and (iii) cross-flow contact pattern in which the direction of flow of one stream is perpendicular to the other (Niroomand et al, 2015; Li et al, 2006; McNaught, 2011).

The DCDs can also be categorized according to the working protocol of the apparatus where the DCD unit is involved. Several types of apparatus were reported in the literature that include packing type (Huang et al, 2017; Eslamimanesh et al, 2010; Li et al, 2013; Jacobs, 1988; Trofimov, 2011), spray (fogging or jet) type (Niroomand et al, 2015; Klausner et al, 2004; Jacobs, 1988; Trofimov, 2011; Hijikata, 1984; Lekic, 1980; Ford and Lekic, 1973; Lin Jie Huang and Ayyaswamy, 1987; Celata et al, 1989; Ayyaswamy, 1995) and bubble-column or pool-condensation type (McNaught, 2011; Narayan, 2014; Mahood et al, 2014; Shah and Sekulić, 2003; Tow and Lienhard, 2013; Chehayeb et al, 2014; Schmack et al, 2016; Youn, 2003; Kim et al, 2004; Gulawani et al, 2006). In the packing type DCD, contact between the humid air and the cold fresh water takes place through the distribution of both fluids evenly along the packed bed. For even mass transfer of water along the packing bed which is essential for dehumidification, liquid distributors (such as nozzles) are used (Seader and Henley, 2006). In addition, liquid desiccant solutions are used as packing bed DCD coolants because of their great water absorbance and capability of dehumidifying humid air that comes in contact with them (Sahlot and Riffat, 2016; Yutong and Hongxing, 2007; Yin et al, 2014; Jain and Bansal, 2007; Campen et al, 2003; Mei and Dai, 2008;

Pahlavanzadeh and Nooriasl, 2012; Xiong et al, 2010; Elsarrag, 2006; Babakhani and Soleymani, 2009). Although the use of liquid desiccants in packed bed DCDs is very common, the concept is beyond the scope of this review because liquid desiccants DCDs do not offer direct freshwater production. In the spray type DCD, the contact between air and water occurs with spraying water droplets through nozzles or water jets directly on the air stream (Niroomand et al, 2015; Jacobs, 1988; Trofimov, 2011). In the pool-condensation type, vapor in the form of bubbles is injected through a perforated pipe to come in contact with a relatively cold pool of liquid as exemplified with the Sparge Pipe (McNaught, 2011).

Figure 1 illustrates the DCD working principle; the air stream enters the DCD with relatively high temperature and a humidity level close to saturation where it meets with the coolant fluid (a low-temperature water stream) that acts as the heat sink during contact (Kandlikar et al, 1999). Heat and mass transfer takes place in a direction governed by the temperature gradient during contact as implied by the second law of thermodynamics. In the DCD system, the latent heat load in the humid air is normally released onto the surface of the low-temperature water which causes the vapor to condense on the water surface. Hence, the mass of vapor in the air stream will transition to the surface of the water. Due to this mass transfer, the vapor molecules coalesces on the surface of the water droplet causing its mass to increase (Kandlikar et al, 1999; Oueslati and Megriche, 2017). Finally, the water droplet with its added mass is collected at the bottom of the DCD and the air exits the DCD seemingly drier.

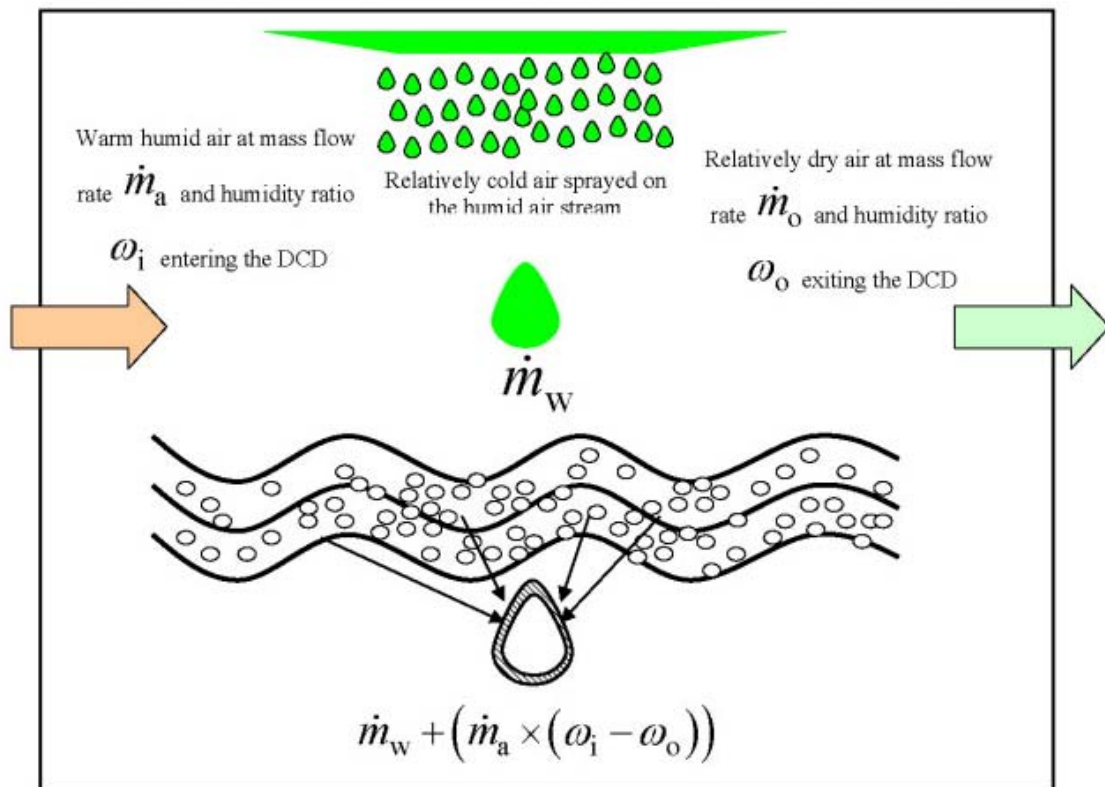


Figure 1. Schematic of the DCD working principle.

1.3. Psychrometric Calculations

Modeling of HDH systems is mainly based on psychrometric calculations of moist air. At a given atmospheric pressure, the thermodynamic state of air-water mixture can be identified by knowing any two of its intensive properties such as dry bulb temperature ($^{\circ}\text{C}$), wet bulb temperature ($^{\circ}\text{C}$), specific humidity (kg water/kg dry air), relative humidity (%), specific volume (m^3/kg dry air) and specific enthalpy (kJ/kg dry air). Specific humidity and enthalpy are the most relevant properties to HDH systems. With the knowledge of dry bulb temperature and relative humidity, these two values can be calculated using the following equations (ASHRAE, 2009):

$$\omega = \frac{0.62198P^v}{P - \varphi P^v}, \quad (1)$$

where ω is the specific humidity (kg moist/kg dry air), φ is the relative humidity and P^v is the water vapor pressure (Pa) that can be calculated using:

$$P^v = 610.78 \exp\left(17. - \frac{269T}{237.78 + T}\right), \quad (2)$$

where T is the dry bulb temperature ($^{\circ}\text{C}$).

The enthalpy (referenced to kJ/kg dry air at $T = 0^{\circ}\text{C}$) can be calculated from (Cengel and Boles, 2015):

The enthalpy (referenced to $h = 0$ kJ/kg dry air at $T = 0^{\circ}\text{C}$) can be calculated from (Cengel and Boles, 2015):

$$h = 1.005T + \omega(2500.9 + 1.82T). \quad (3)$$

Al-Azri et al, (2013) extensively described psychrometric calculations of any moist-air property with the knowledge of another two properties. In the dehumidification process (Figure 2), air-water mixture is cooled down to its wet bulb temperature value (1-1' line) which corresponds to 100% relative humidity. Any further cooling will result in the formation of water condensate and a decrease in the specific humidity of air (1'-2 line). The mass flow of the collected water can be calculated from:

$$\dot{m}_w = \dot{m}_a (\omega_2 - \omega_1), \quad (4)$$

where \dot{m}_a is the mass flow rate of dry air which can be calculated using the ideal gas equation :

$$\dot{m}_a = \frac{P_a \dot{V}}{R_a T}, \quad (5)$$

where \dot{V} is the mixture volumetric flow rate (m^3/s) and P_a is the dry air partial pressure which can be calculated from:

$$P_a = P - P^v \quad (6)$$

The change in the enthalpy of air can be calculated from:

$$\Delta H = \dot{m}_a (h_2 - h_1) \quad (7)$$

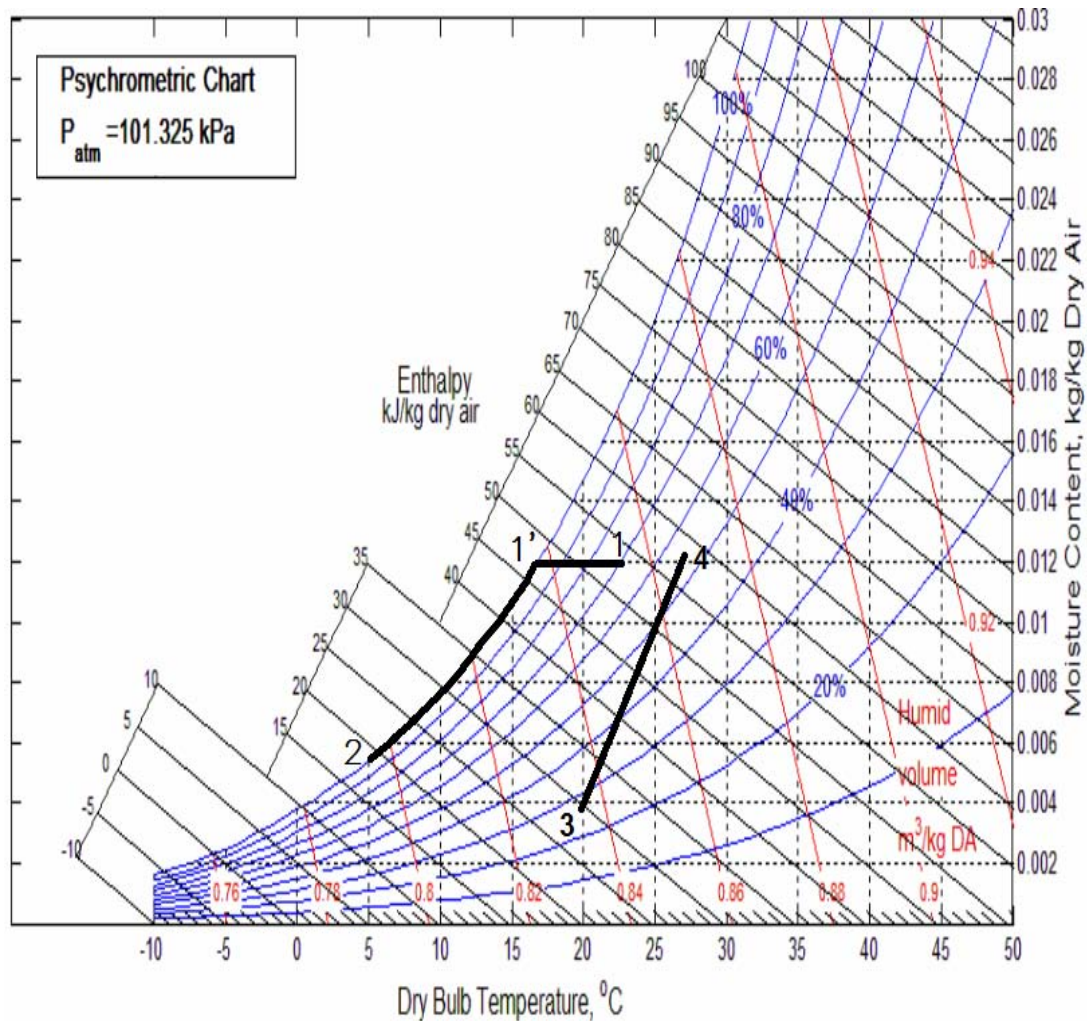


Figure 2. Dehumidification process.

Figure 2 also shows a humidification process of air-water mixture stream (3-4 line). The air stream is heated with direct contact with warmer water, which results in water mass transfer to the air stream and hence increasing its specific and relative humidity.

The amount of water vapor absorbed by air is:

$$\dot{m}_w = \dot{m}_a (\omega_4 - \omega_3) \quad (8)$$

The amount of heat transferred in the process is:

$$\Delta H = \dot{m}_a (h_4 - h_3). \quad (9)$$

1.4. Historical development

In 1765 James Watt revolutionized the Newcomen steam engine with the idea of using a separate direct-contact condenser to make use of the latent heat of steam (Figure 3). The Newcomen steam engine relied on condensation of steam to create partial vacuum pressure needed for pumping, and the condensation occurred in the cylinder through indirect contact between cold water and the high pressure steam. James Watt invented a detached condensation chamber where the steam was condensed through direct contact with the cold water; consequently a great amount of heat loss was avoided (Kandlikar et al, 1999; Kingsford, 2017; The Hunterian Museum and Art Gallery, 2017).

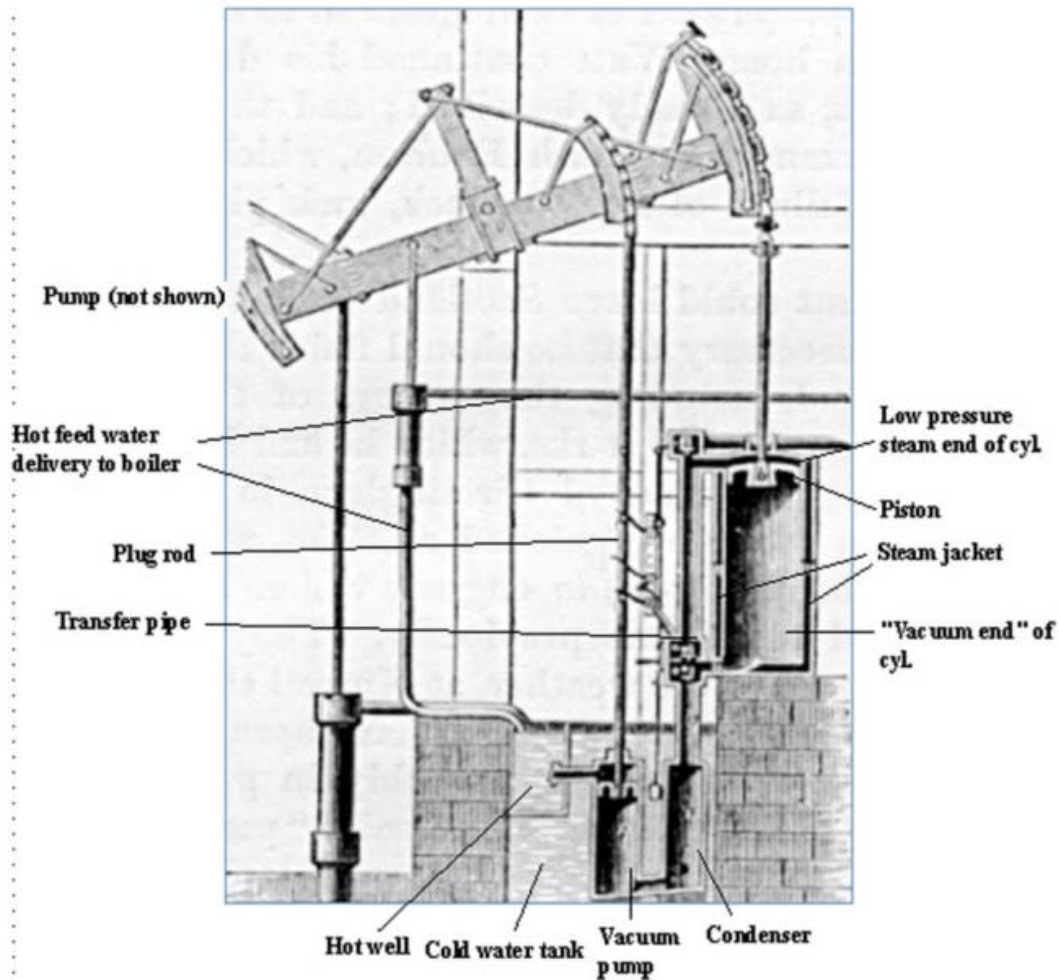


Figure 3. Modified James Watt's Newcomen steam engine (www.Sussexvt.k12.de.us).

Hausbrand in 1900 explained another type of direct-contact heat exchangers called the barometric condenser (Jacobs, 2011). This type of condenser is mainly composed of a

shell body and a bundle of jet nozzles, and the discharge of the condensate and coolant is achieved through the use of a vertical tailpipe, if the apparatus is elevated to a certain height otherwise a discharge pump is used (Graham Corp, 2009). In 1923, Schutte and Koerting manufacturing company produced several types of barometric condensers including the first multi-jet barometric condenser. This condenser was working without air pumps and consisted of water jets only. Also, in 1936 they introduced a new multi-jet condenser with dual water inlets; top inlets with water jets of different flows to do most of the condensation and center inlets with fixed pressure jets to condense the uncondensed particles. In 1940, they introduced a modified version of their 1936 invention with a countercurrent flow pattern, Figure 4 (Schuttle and Koerting, 2014).

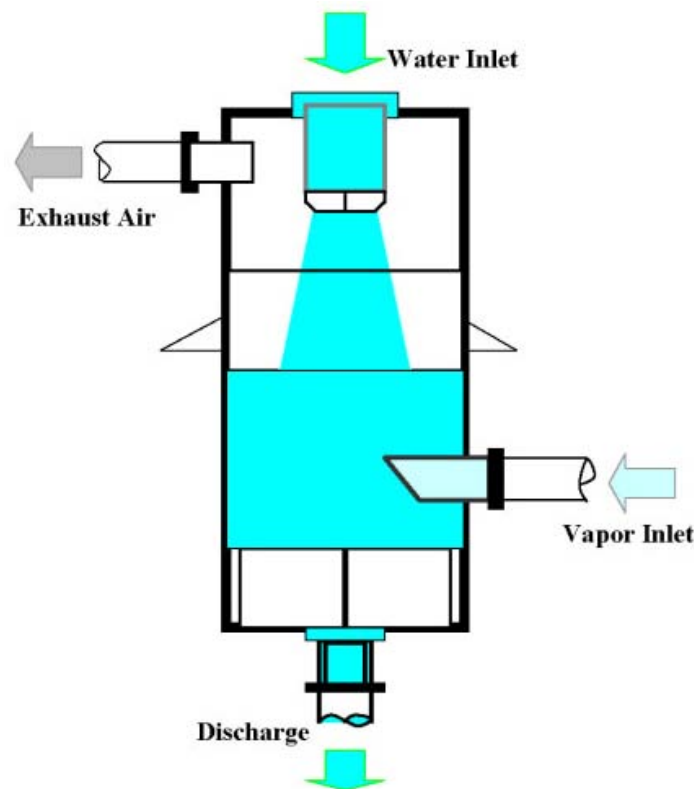


Figure 4. Counter-current barometric condenser (Schuttle and Koerting, 2014).

In 1961, a mathematical simulation for a direct-contact condenser showed that liquid film condensation resistance is negligible in packing type DCDs (Olander, 1961). In 1965, it was proposed to employ direct-contact condensation of refrigerants in all hydrate and freezing processes that use water-immiscible refrigerants (Saline Water Convers. Act). In 1974, Barrett and Dunn (Barrett and Dunn, 1974) simulated a DCD that is composed of a stack of trays inside a sealed tower where coolant water flows from top to trays underneath through a perforation at the bottom. Contact between coolant and vapor as vapor is injected in bubble form through the perforation at the bottom of the trays. They validated their work through comparison with experimental results collected from a hydrogen sulfide water dehumidifier. They proved the effectiveness and applicability of their simulation on several systems operating on condensation of superheated and supersaturated vapor. In 1988, direct contact heat transfer devices were classified according to their applications in different systems

(Kreith and Boehm, 1988). One of these systems was a dry cooling tower that was combining direct and indirect heat transfer processes (Figure 5). In this system, water is indirectly cooled via cooling coils and subsequently, this water is used to directly condense water vapor leaving the exhaust of a steam turbine. Further elaboration on the application of DCDs is given below.

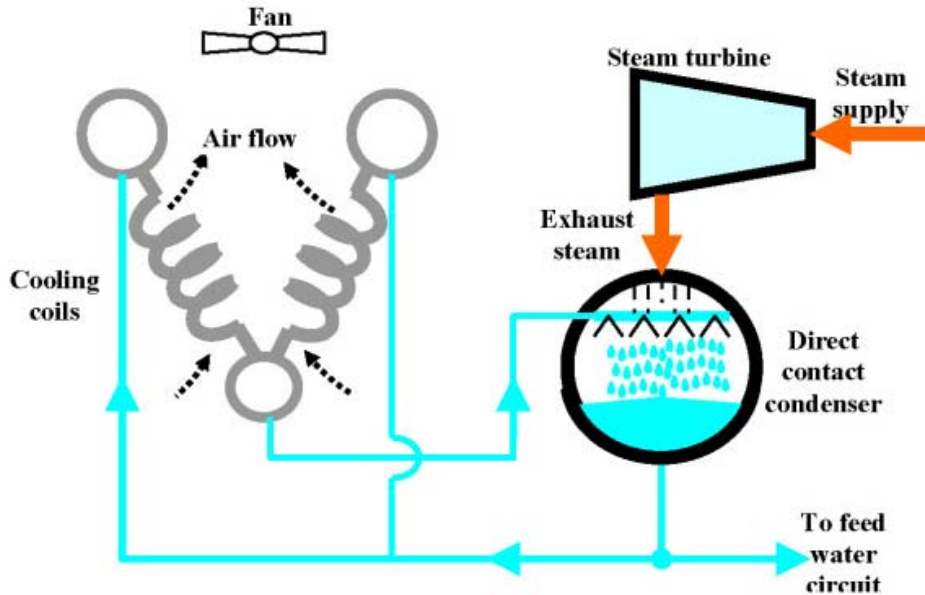


Figure 5. Dry cooling tower with a direct-contact condenser (Kreith and Boehm, 1988).

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