

1 Article

2 Heat Pump Dryer Design Optimization Algorithm

3 Bernardo Andrade ^{1,3}, Ighor Amorim ^{2,3}, Michel Silva ^{2,3,6}, Larysa Savosh ⁴, Luís Frólén Ribeiro ^{3,5,*}

4 ¹ CEFET-MG – Brazil

5 ² UTFPR – Ponta Grossa - Brazil

6 ³ Mechanical Technology Department - Polytechnic Institute of Bragança – Portugal

7 ⁴ Lutsk National Technical University – Ukraine

8 ⁵ Centre for Renewable Energy Research - INEGI – Portugal

9 ⁶ Team4cooling – Portugal

10

11 * Correspondence: frolen@ipb.pt; Tel.: +351-273303148 (L.F.R.)

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13 **Abstract:** Drying food involves complex physical atmospheric mechanisms with non-linear
14 relations from the air-food interactions and those relations are strongly dependent on the
15 moisture contents and the type of food. Such dependence makes it complex to design suitable
16 dryers dedicated to a single drying process. To streamline the design of a novel compact food-
17 drying machine, a heat pump dryer component design optimization algorithm was developed
18 as a subprogram of a Computer Aided Engineering tool. The algorithm requires inputting food
19 and air properties, the volume of the drying container and the technical specifications of the
20 heat-pump off-the shelf components. The heat required to dehumidify the food supplied by the
21 heat exchange process from condenser to evaporator, and the compressor's requirements
22 (refrigerant mass flow rate and operating pressures) are then calculated. Compressors can then
23 be selected based in the volume and type of food to be dried. The algorithm is shown via a flow
24 chart to guide the user through 3 different stages: Changes in drying air properties, Heat flow
25 within dryer and Product moisture content. Example results of how different compressors are
26 selected for different type of produces and quantities (*Agaricus Blazei* mushroom with 3 different
27 moisture contents or fish from *Thunnini* tribe) conclude this article.

28 **Keywords:** Algorithm; Heat-Pump; Drying; Food; Design; Optimization

29

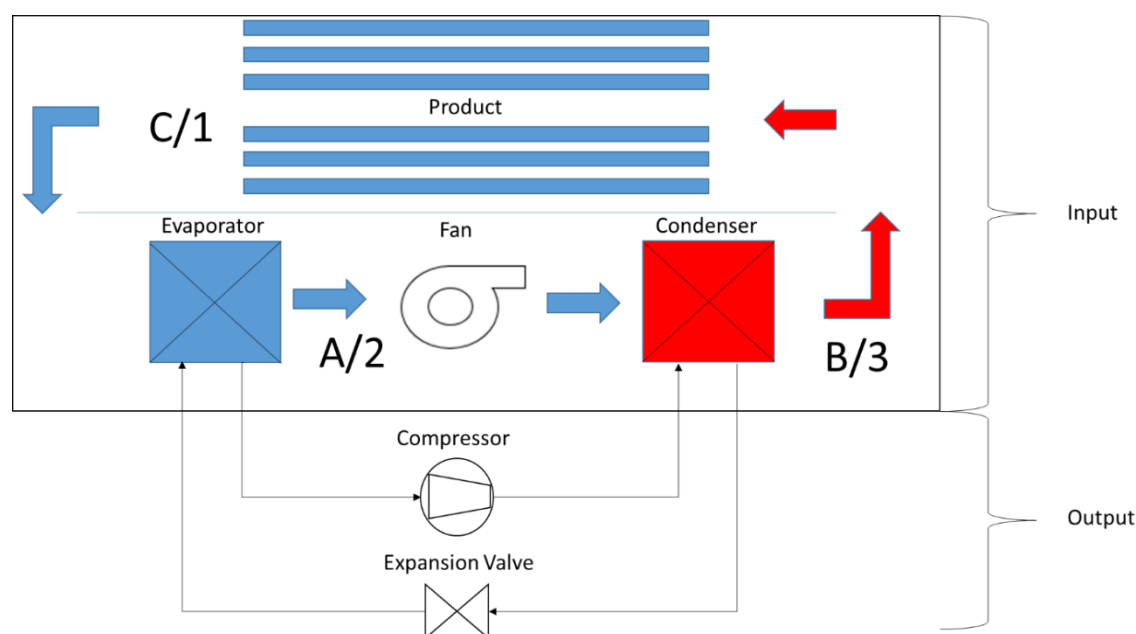
30 1. Introduction

31 Food drying is one of the strategies for food preservation, and one of several strategies is the
32 thermal based mechanism, which is complex and involves the removal of a solid product's moisture
33 by the employment of heat. The drying occurs through heat and mass transfers while the properties
34 of the food change throughout the process. There are many different machines that can make this
35 process, one of these is heat-pump based [1].

36 This machine extracts energy via a gas compressor from a cold-source and delivers it to a hot-
37 source. It does so by providing work to the refrigerant fluid. The heat-pump provides heat, making
38 it directly useful for heating ventilation and air conditioning (HVAC), but also for drying applications.
39 The machine energy input is the energy received from the compressor and adds it to the amount of
40 energy removed from the cold-source, yielding a higher energy output. As an example, for a
41 compressor yielding 100 W to remove 400 W from a cold-source, the total amount of energy provided
42 to the hot-source will be 500 W. This is a 5-time higher value than the one extracted by the compressor,
43 meaning a 500 W heating service from a 100 W electrical input. This highlights the energy saving
44 feature of this technology. A scheme of the whole machine and its components is shown in Fig 1:
45 compressor, expansion valve and heat exchangers (condenser and evaporator).

46

47 The work cycle starts with the air being heated at the condenser after being blown towards the
 48 product (A to B in Fig.1). When the warm air passes by the food, it removes moisture from the
 49 material. Downstream, the air captured the moisture from the food (B to C in Fig.1) and proceeds to
 50 the evaporator, to partially condense some of its water. This (C to A in Fig.1) is achieved by promoting
 51 the heat transfer of the air with the surfaces of the evaporator colder than the dew-point of the air.
 52 For a real machine a percentage of outside air replaces part of the circulating air at each pass to allow
 53 the cooling elements to condense more moisture from the air and to avoid the increase in temperature
 54 of the circulating air.
 55



56
 57 **Figure 1.** Scheme of a specific prototype of a heat pump food dryer tested for this algorithm
 58 where the thin line represents the refrigerant circuit while the thick arrows represent the air-flow
 59 circuit.
 60

61 The design of this machine for different purposes, or types of food, can be improved by the
 62 application of resources such as the numerical optimization. Improving equipment design takes time
 63 and laboratorial costs which are not directly translated towards the manufacturing process, for the
 64 material acquired is usually spent on tests. Mathematical and computational mechanics models are
 65 effective alternatives to many practical experiments since they provide a prediction of what may
 66 happen and what can be expected. This approach allows for greater comprehension of the transport
 67 phenomena involved in the drying of food, sharpens testing and production leading to a better and
 68 quicker design process [2].

69 A simulation can also have an edge on normal experiments for it can predict, with virtual sensors,
 70 the humidity, air velocity and temperature on points that are normally inaccessible since the presence
 71 of the sensors would impact the air circulation inside the drying container. Also, there is no limitation
 72 of testing different working conditions, there is no space restriction nor need for trained operators.
 73 However, simulations require reliable data and proper modelling, otherwise the quality of results
 74 may be questionable. This is true for the case of drying food especially describing the
 75 physical/chemical properties and transport phenomena.

76 To achieve better results in energy efficiency and product quality, studies have been performed
 77 in this area and new, more efficient models of heat-pump dryers have been created [2,4]. And so, the
 78 use of algorithms comes into play as the driving force of better product design, enabling the creation
 79 of products directed to many markets: from food industry to the small-scale farmer.

80 An algorithm is proposed in this article to aid the selection of heat-pump components. It is
 81 presented through a flow chart that helps the designer visualize and comprehend the specified
 82 numerical solution's steps. A code was created to test the algorithm and how its results help the
 83 development of different size drying machines. Examples from 2 different produces and how they
 84 determine compressor selection (outputs) are later discussed.

85 2. Materials and Methods

86 The design algorithm is a logic map of efficient design of food-drying heat-pump air-based
 87 machines. The algorithm inputs are the type of food, the air properties and the dimensions of the
 88 food container, as well as the dryer component properties. To guarantee the temperature control
 89 throughout the drying process, the working temperature of the air to which the food is being exposed
 90 to is used as input. Therefore, it is possible to ascertain the final product quality, since over-heating
 91 could cause damage to the product. Meanwhile, the algorithm outputs the mass flow of refrigerant
 92 fluid from which the compressor and expansion valve can be selected. The difference of the algorithm
 93 inputs and outputs, and their relation to the machine design are depicted in Fig.1. In this figure within
 94 the circulating air volume there are 2 different nomenclatures aiming the description of different
 95 things: A, B and C are related only to the air properties; 1, 2 and 3 represent the 3 stages of the
 96 algorithm, with different transport and energy equations.

- 97 1. Changes in drying air properties;
- 98 2. Heat flow within dryer;
- 99 3. Product moisture content.

100 2.1. Stage 1 of the algorithm

101 The first stage of the algorithm determines the psychrometric and dynamic states of the air. The
 102 literature recommends temperatures for drying each food, and by using them in the following
 103 psychrometric and transport equations, one obtains every property necessary to the characterization of
 104 the process and posterior steps [5–7].

105 The calculus of the air properties are given by Eq. (1) to (17). The specific psychrometry Eq. (1-8) are
 106 recommended by [6]. The psychrometric equations utilized at this stage describe the humid air based
 107 on its temperature, amount of water as vapor and the air's occupied volume [8–10].

108 To provide the readers less clutter information on the variables of the equations, a list of variables
 109 and units is shown in the end of the article.

110 At first it is necessary to obtain the vapor saturation pressure P_{vs} and the absolute humidity w .
 111 The air humidity after the contact with the food in the first iteration and after the air leaves the
 112 evaporator, corresponding to air process C and A in Fig. 1, are calculated by Eq. (1) and (2):
 113

$$114 \quad P_{vs} = 6 \frac{10^{25}}{1000 * T^5} \cdot \exp\left(-\frac{6800}{T}\right) \quad (1)$$

$$115 \quad w = \frac{0.622 P_v}{P_{atm} - P_v} \quad (2)$$

116 In the following iterations, the absolute humidity is obtained by adding the total humidity lost by
 117 the food to the air humidity after it left the condenser, process B to C in Fig. 1. The air humidity when
 118 it leaves the condenser is equal to the one when it left the evaporator. Therefore, the next step are the
 119 calculations of the air's vapor pressure P_v , and its enthalpy H , from the absolute humidity Eq.(3) and
 Eq.(4):

$$120 \quad P_v = w \cdot \frac{P_{atm}}{0.622 + 0.378 * w} \quad (3)$$

$$H = 1.006 \cdot (T - 273.15) + w[2501 + 1.775 \cdot (T - 273.15)] \quad (4)$$

120 With the air's vapor pressure and the vapor saturation pressure, the relative humidity ϕ and the
121 dew point T_{dp} are then calculated for this pressure, Eq. (5) and (6).

$$\phi = \frac{P_v}{P_{vs}} \quad (5)$$

$$T_{dp} = \frac{186.4905 - 237.3 \log 10 \cdot P_v}{\log(10 P_v) - 8.2859} \quad (6)$$

122

123

124

Also, with the vapor's pressure and the absolute humidity, the algorithm calculates the specific
volume ν and the vapor molar fraction X_v relative to the mixture and molar mass.

$$X_v = \frac{P_v}{P_{atm}} \quad (7)$$

$$\nu = 0.28705T \cdot \frac{1 + 1.6078w}{P_{atm}} \quad (8)$$

125

126

127

The determination of the transport properties, equations (11) to (17) as stated by [7], require the
non-dimensional dry air/water vapor proportion parameters Φ_{av} and Φ_{va} , equations (9) and (10) also
recommended by [7].

$$\Phi_{av} = \frac{\sqrt{2}}{4} \left(1 + \frac{M_a}{M_v}\right)^{-\frac{1}{2}} \left[1 + \left(\frac{\mu_a}{\mu_v}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \left(\frac{M_a}{M_v}\right)^{\frac{1}{4}}\right]^2 \quad (9)$$

$$\Phi_{va} = \frac{\sqrt{2}}{4} \left(1 + \frac{M_v}{M_a}\right)^{-\frac{1}{2}} \left[1 + \left(\frac{\mu_v}{\mu_a}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \left(\frac{M_a}{M_v}\right)^{\frac{1}{4}}\right]^2 \quad (10)$$

128

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The acronyms M_v and M_a respectively represent the molar masses of the vapor and dry air while
the μ_v and μ_a represent their dynamic viscosity. Therefore, with the proportion parameters Φ_{av}
and Φ_{va} defined, the mean thermophysical properties are calculated.

Firstly, the thermal conductivity of the humid air k_{air} is given by Eq. (11).

$$k_{air} = \frac{(1 - x_v)k_a}{(1 - x_v) + x_v\Phi_{av}} + \frac{x_vk_v}{x_v + (1 - x_v)\Phi_{av}} \quad (11)$$

132

And, the specific heat cp_m of this air is obtained with Eq. (12).

$$cp_m = cp_a x_a \frac{M_a}{M_m} + cp_v x_v \frac{M_v}{M_m} \quad (12)$$

133

These properties are used to obtain the thermal diffusivity α , which is expressed by Eq. (13).

$$\alpha = \frac{k}{\rho * c_{pm}} \quad (13)$$

134

Also, the mixture density ρ for incompressible gases are calculated according to Eq. (14):

$$\rho = \frac{P_0}{RT} \left[1 - x_v \left(1 - \frac{M_v}{a}\right)\right] \quad (14)$$

135

136

The transport properties that govern the fluid's movement are calculated from the equations
pointed by [7]. The dynamic viscosity μ_{mix} of the mixture results from Eq. (15):

$$\mu_{mix} = \frac{(1 - x_v)\mu_{air}}{(1 - x_v) + x_v\Phi_{av}} + \frac{x_v\mu_{vapor}}{(1 - x_v) + x_v\Phi_{va}} \quad (15)$$

137
138 With μ_{mix} and ρ , the cinematic viscosity τ then is obtained with Eq. (16):

$$\tau = \frac{\mu_{mix}}{\rho} \quad (16)$$

139 The Prandl number Pr , which is used to determine the water loss, is calculated from Eq. (17):

$$Pr = \mu_{mix} \frac{cp_m}{k} \quad (17)$$

140 2.2. Stage 2 of the algorithm

141 The second stage of the algorithm relates to the heat flow analysis and component design, it uses
142 the data calculated in Stage 1, the pre-determined dimensions and construction parameters of
143 components to calculate results that are essential to the final design of the product.

144 To reduce the time from client order to the actual manufacturing of the novel compact food-drying
145 machine, a supplier component database is created from witch off-the-shelf products such as heat
146 exchangers and fans will be selected from. Their physical dimensions and operating parameters are
147 used in the algorithm. Because a heat-pump system can be defined by the compressor and the heat
148 exchangers [9], the heat output of this stage will be used to calculate the mass flow rate of refrigerant
149 required to select a fitting compressor.

150 The reasoning behind this is that controlled temperatures are a main focus of the algorithm to
151 assure product quality. Also, the heat exchangers and fans are parts that affect the final product
152 dimension if changed, and so, by selecting products that are available in the market, the cost of
153 production is expected to drop and the final product construction can be streamlined. Any machine
154 designed through this method will have its power output controlled through the variation of the
155 compressor's cycle rate.

156 At this stage the fans diameter is used with previously calculated air speed and density to obtain
157 the air mass flow rate, which will be used in the third stage for controlling the removed water.

158 With the combined data from Stage 1 and the dimensions of components, the heat which will flow
159 to the air is calculated. That heat is the same that is removed from the refrigerant fluid, and since the
160 temperatures have been set, the enthalpy variation of the refrigerant expected is known and so its mass
161 flow rate is achieved.

162 To do so, the equations used were the ones that relate to the heat exchangers, such as logarithmic
163 mean temperature difference, Nusselt and Reynolds dimensionless numbers, global heat conductivity
164 and heat flow equation at heat exchangers. These equations are pointed out in [12–15].

165 The logarithmic mean temperature difference ΔT_{ml} is a variable that accounts for the logarithmic
166 nature of the heat transfer properties and converts the temperatures and the exchanger's entry and exit,
167 jointly with the external's fluid temperature to obtain a mean value that can be used in heat transfer
168 equations.

$$\Delta T_{ml} = \frac{(T_{med} - T_{in}) - (T_{med} - T_{out})}{\log \frac{(T_{med} - T_{in})}{(T_{med} - T_{out})}} \quad (18)$$

169 These equations also require a mean global heat flux coefficient U . This has the same principle of
170 the previous Eq. (18), making a mean value that accounts for every heat transfer process. However,
171 unlike the logarithmic mean temperature difference, this equation results in a heat transfer factor.
172
173

$$U = \frac{1}{\frac{1}{h} + \frac{l}{k}} \quad (19)$$

174
175 Where l represents the thickness of the heat exchanger's walls.

176 And so, the required data to calculate such a factor are the conduction heat transfer coefficient for
 177 the heat exchanger's material k , and the convection heat transfer coefficient for the operating air flow
 178 h .

$$h = k_{air} \frac{Nu}{D} \quad (20)$$

179 Where D equals to the heat exchanger's cylinder diameter k_{air} is the air's heat conductivity and
 180 Nu is a dimensionless number obtained through the following equation:

$$Nu = 1.13 Re^M \cdot C \cdot Pr \quad (21)$$

181 In this equation, the M and C variables are constants obtained based on the heat exchanger's
 182 dimensions and layout. The Re is another number obtained by:

$$Re = \frac{\rho V D}{\mu} \quad (22)$$

183 The V in the equation is the air's speed. Finally, the final exchanged heat value \dot{Q} , equals to:

$$\dot{Q} = UA\Delta T_{ml} \quad (23)$$

184 Where A is the total exposed heat exchanger area. The heat can be used, as previously mentioned,
 185 together with the variation of enthalpy ΔH , to obtain the refrigerant mass flow rate \dot{m} .

$$\dot{m} = \frac{\dot{Q}}{\Delta H} \quad (24)$$

186 2.3. Stage 3 of the algorithm

187 The third stage, the food analysis, is a control stage. This means that in it the algorithm has its
 188 control variables calculated to provide the iterative results that make the calculating cycles continue or
 189 stop. For this case, the control variable is food's moisture level, and it is calculated through the use of
 190 well-known food-drying models. The Modified Henderson model was selected for its recurring
 191 appearance in the literature and consequent versatility. It requires the air's humidity level, temperature
 192 and speed to calculate the water loss variation [4, 5].

193 For the calculus of the water mass transfer and consequently total moisture left in the product the
 194 air diffusion coefficient is used as cited at [12, 16]. This coefficient is presented in Eq. (25).

195

$$D_{ab} = 1.87 \times 10^{-10} \frac{T^{2.072}}{P} \quad (25)$$

196

197 This equation will lead to an underestimation of the drying time for it does not consider the
 198 biological properties of internal moisture diffusion and surface diffusion. However, the algorithm
 199 structure is built to incorporate further published knowledge in this particular field.

200 With the air diffusion coefficient calculated also the Graschof Gr and Schimdt Sc numbers can be
 201 obtained:

$$Gr = \frac{g\Delta\rho S^3}{\rho\tau^2} \quad (26)$$

$$Sc = \frac{\tau}{D_{ab}} \quad (27)$$

202 Where S is the characteristic dimension, which in the case of the drying machine are the spaces
 203 between the plaques that hold the food. With both Graschof and Schimdt, the Rayleigh Ra and
 204 Sherwood numbers can be obtained, for both natural Sh_n and forced Sh_f convections:

$$Ra = Gr \cdot Sc \quad (28)$$

205

$$Sh_n = 0.197 \cdot Ra^{\frac{1}{4}} \left(\frac{hp}{S} \right)^{\frac{1}{9}} \quad (29)$$

206

207 If Reynolds is less than 200.000,

$$Sh_f = 0.664 \cdot Re^{0.5} \cdot Sc^{\frac{1}{3}} \quad (30)$$

208

But for value greater than that,

$$Sh_f = 0.0365 \cdot Re^{0.8} \cdot Sc^{\frac{1}{3}} \quad (31)$$

209

With Sherwood defined, the mass transfer coefficient is obtained with Eq. (32).

$$hcf = Sh \frac{D_{ab}}{hp} \quad (32)$$

210

211

The hp value is the food containing plaque's height. The total water mass removed m_l is calculated by:

$$m_l = hcf \cdot ns \cdot Ap \cdot \Delta\rho \quad (33)$$

212

213

In Eq. (33), Ap is the plaque's area, ns is the number of plaques and $\Delta\rho$ is the difference between density of water in the air and food.

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215

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The next step of the algorithm compares the value obtained with the mass transfer equation and the Modified Henderson model, and select the most conservative value. This value is removed from the food's total humidity and accounted for in the control function, restarting the cycle if necessary.

217

3. Results

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The algorithm can be represented in the form of a flow chart to illustrate the proposed logic map. The first stage shown in Fig.2 results in the definition of the air's psychrometric and transport properties throughout the drying process, doing so from the Eq. (1) to (17) and the input data both from the food and from the machine.

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The first decision box of the flowchart present in this first stage is a part of the logical process of the algorithm and should be included in any code as failsafe. The halting of the calculation process is given when the variation of the moisture content over time reaches almost zero, 1E-9. This criterion is flexible because it accommodates residual moisture differences from different types of food.

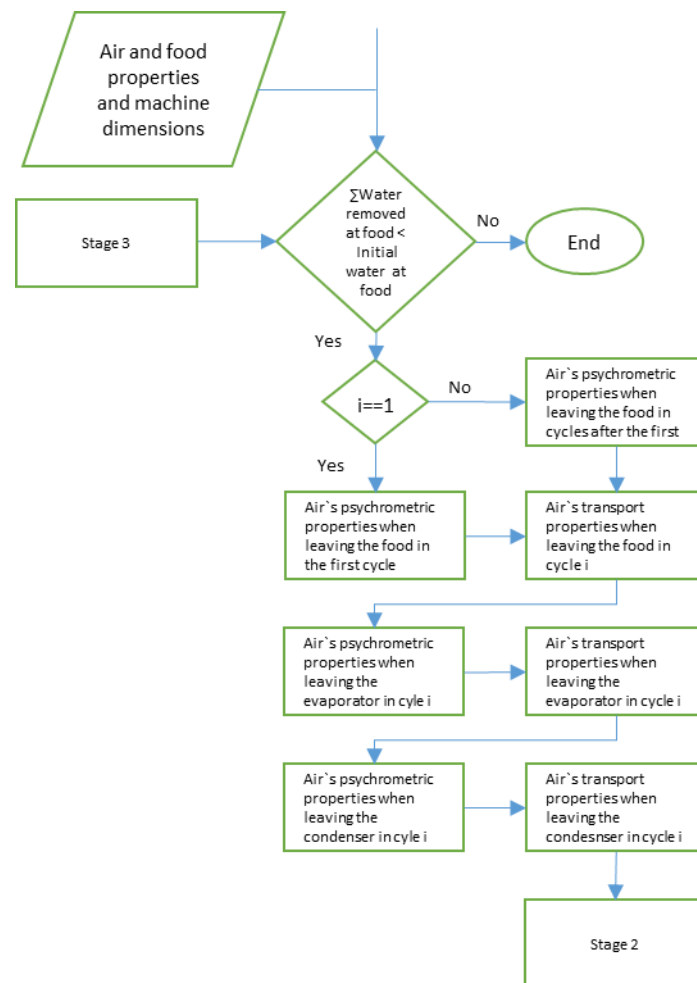


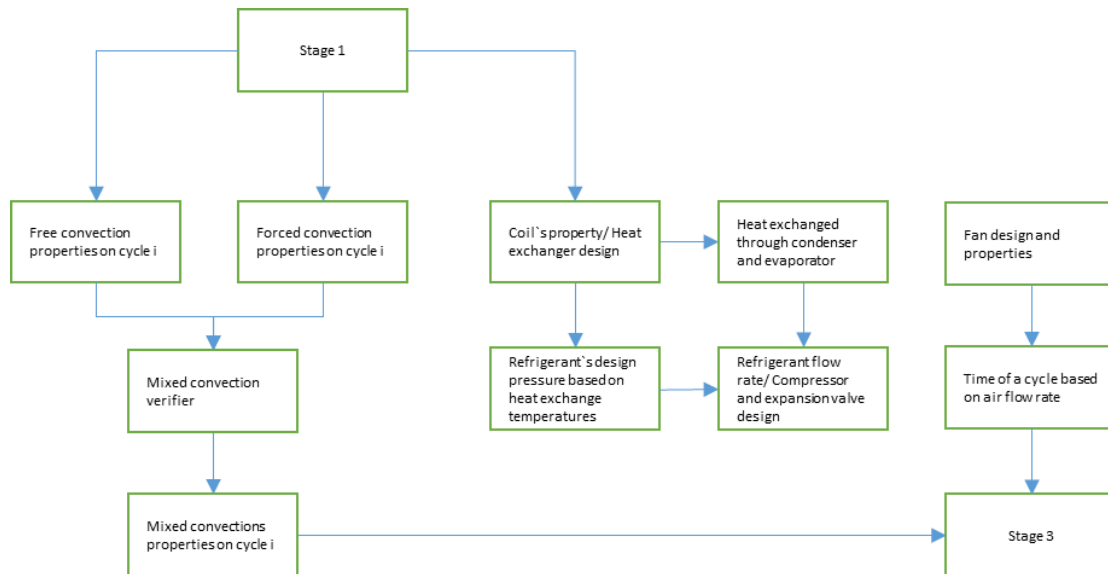
Figure 2. Stage 1 of the algorithm. The internal air analysis described in Eq. (1) to (17).

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The properties outputs are used mainly as input for other stages. However, the program still can provide this data to guarantee quality control, specifically through the monitoring of the air's temperature at the exit of each component.

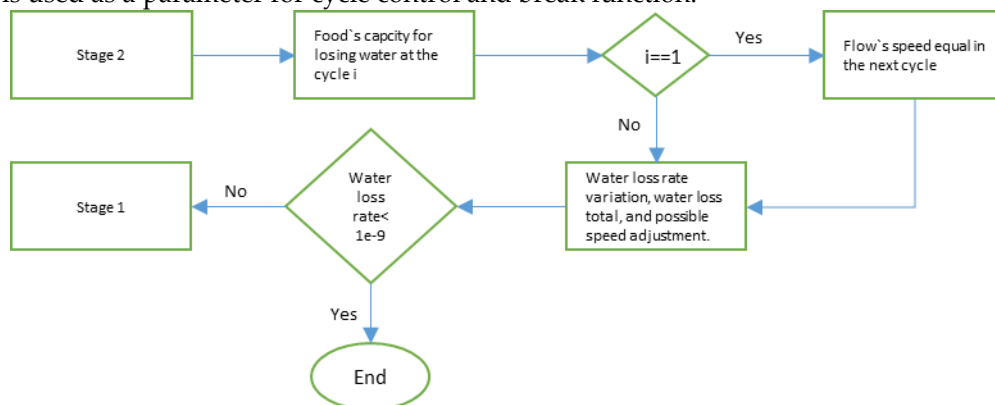
The second stage shown in Fig.3 outputs both design and process parameters. By taking the aforementioned properties, it calculates the heat required to change the air's state at both condenser and evaporator. With it, and the expected enthalpy variation, the refrigerant mass flow rate is achieved. These characteristics allow for an easy selection of the components required to design the heat-pump of the dryer. These components are: compressor, expansion-valve, refrigerant fluid and heat exchangers.

Even though the algorithm allows for easier selection of components, there are still some parts that require manual selection. As commented in Section 2, the fans that circulate the air are pre-selected to fit the drying container so that their dimensions are used as input data to calculate the mass flow rate of the circulating air inside the machine.



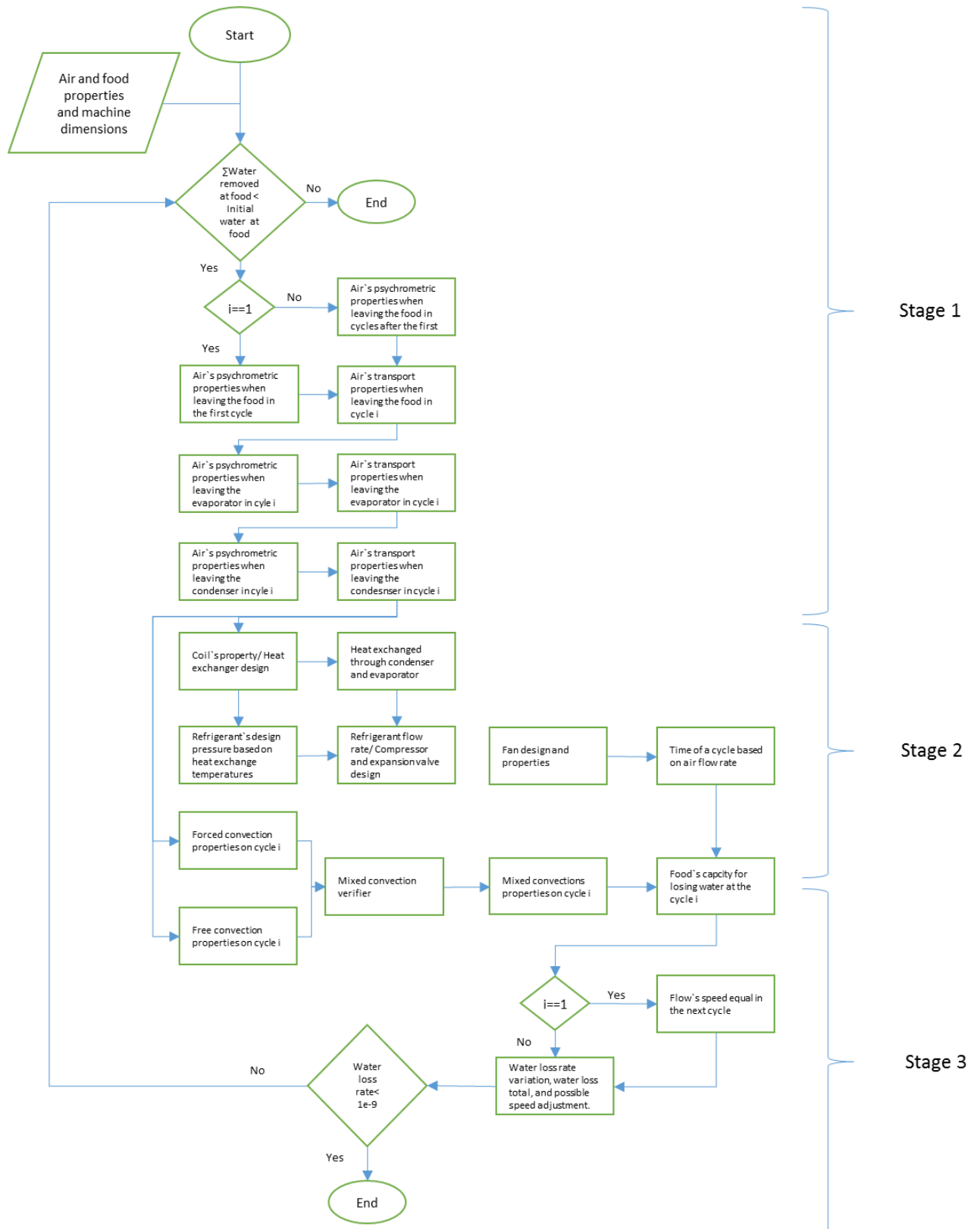
244
245 **Figure 3.** Stage 2 of algorithm. Heat flow analysis between components, air and food.
246 Component design derived from Eq. (18) to (24).
247

248 For the final stage shown in Fig. 4, the results are given as a function of the amount of water in
249 the system. The algorithm outputs the rate of water removal. From it, the algorithm calculates how
250 this rate varies and how it effects the drying food. Finally, the variation of how much water is being
251 removed is used as a parameter for cycle control and break function.



252
253 **Figure 4.** Stage 3 of algorithm. Food humidity calculus and verification as demonstrated from
254 Eq. (25) to (33).
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257 The whole algorithm is depicted in Fig. 5 showing the 3 stages that correspond, in Fig. 1, to the
258 A-B, B-C and C-A thermal processes.



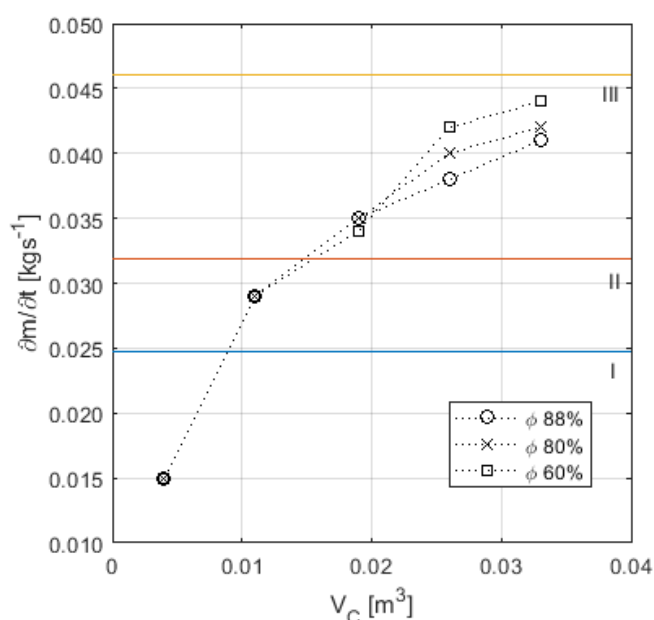
259
260 **Figure 5.** Heat pump dryer design optimization algorithm

261 **4. Discussion**

262 The flow chart allows for an easier overview of the process (Fig. 5). This handy resource guides
263 its user from a basic starting point towards its desired goal which makes designing simpler since
264 every information required can be traced back.

265 The proposed algorithm is a tool of how to design the heat-pump air-based drier being also a
 266 step-by-step guide. The value proposition is by providing the specifications of the components for
 267 the machine that is going to be built (compressors, evaporators, condensers, etc.); and the fact that it
 268 is not restricted by the food-drying physical models hereby proposed. The latter is a feature of the
 269 algorithm because it is possible to update the used models of each process to the newest and most
 270 sound ones available. Doing so, and using more accurate data, will impact the precision of the final
 271 result. Actually, such a practice was used in the development of this algorithm. Data and equations
 272 found in earlier versions of established guides and books such as [8] and [10] were posteriorly
 273 replaced by newer ones [7].

274 The algorithm specifies each step and allows for the comprehension of the necessary and
 275 produced data for that step. A code was written in GNU Octave automating the algorithm to deliver
 276 as output a final value, and not clutter the user with processual information. In order to exemplify
 277 the application of the code, one simulated the drying of the *Agaricus Blazei* mushroom for batches of
 278 varying volumes that correspond to about 45, 123, 200, 277 and 355 kilograms of product. To simulate
 279 the drying, and consequently provide suitable data for the design, it was considered the properties
 280 pointed out by [5] related to the product's fraction of water. Also, the input for stage 2 related to the
 281 heat-exchangers and fan dimensions were based on the ECO coils and coolers of the Luvata Company.



282 **Figure 6.** Relation of volume of product to required refrigerant flow.

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285 Considering that 90% of the drying container's volume is filled with food and that the
 286 mushroom's amount of water for 3 different cases is: 60%, 80% and 88%, the humidity removed can
 287 be calculated based on the container's volume. This is used as a variable parameter from which the
 288 power output can be measured. Also, the temperature of drying was set to 80 °C, the superior
 289 temperature limit from which this particular mushroom species starts having chemical and
 290 organoleptic changes.

291 The algorithm simulated moisture removal for those given conditions and the results are
 292 depicted in Fig. 6. The refrigerant mass flow rate is plotted against the volume of food in the drying
 293 container, being a critical information for the selection of a suitable compressor. A commercial
 294 compressor for nominal power operations yields a maximum mass flow rate. The graph represents
 295 these working limits of 3 types of compressors from a given manufacturer (EMBRACO). The number
 296 I, II and III respectively represent increasingly potent compressors of 610, 990 and 1445 W.

297 The simulation results show a clear need to upgrade the compressor from type I to II while
 298 increasing the amount of *Agaricus Blazei* mushrooms from 45 to 123 kg, a 2.73-fold increase in drying
 299 needs to a 1.6 increase in compressor power. Furthermore, an increase of 1.6 times, from 123 to 200

300 kg, will require a power increase of 1.46 times. The non-linearity of the drying process is clear, and
 301 in this example, for the larger batches, from 200 to 355 kg, only one type of compressor would suffice.

302 For smaller batches the amount of humidity in the food is negligible for design purposes. For
 303 larger batches the power needs are quite different. The dryer the food is, the harder the compressor
 304 will have to work as it is depicted in Fig. 6. This is a known result and good indication of the proper
 305 response of the algorithm.

306 The power needs for drying other types of products were also evaluated. Additional simulations
 307 were done for fish from *Thunnini* tribe, comprising 15 species of the vulgarly known as tuna fish.
 308 Because those species of fish (when fresh) are 3.3 times denser than mushrooms and have constant
 309 moisture, more fish will fit into the drying chamber. There are also significant differences between
 310 the experimental values of the drying curve from both products [15]. The experimental values for the
 311 drying process are seldom available and changes may occur according to how the produce is
 312 presented (whole, sliced, filleted, grinded, etc.). For example, a reduction of 1.57 times compressor
 313 mass-flow rate (and the same amount in compressor power) is required when drying sliced fresh
 314 tuna fish with a moisture content of 80% against the same volume of mushrooms. This contra intuitive
 315 result derives from the fact that the drying temperature of the fish from *Thunnini* tribe cannot exceed
 316 40 °C, thus a gentler drying is required. Different results may occur if the product is considered in a
 317 different presentation, but the lack of public experimental drying curves is a caveat within this
 318 industry.

319 5. Conclusions

320 A flexible optimization algorithm is presented, aimed to help design heat-pump air-based dryers
 321 incorporating off-the-shelf components. The algorithm is segmented into 3 parts allowing the
 322 modification or upgrade of any one according to new scientific developments. It also allows
 323 dedicated solutions for different types and quantities of food because it incorporates their own
 324 chemical and organoleptic limitations.

325 With this guide in hand, the selection of components and materials is simpler because the users
 326 will have the key parameters of the required components and streamline the iterative process of
 327 machine design.

328 The authors recommend that future versions of the algorithm, and possible programs,
 329 incorporate more precise equations that consider the falling rate diffusion coefficient for the moisture,
 330 possibly replacing Eq. (25) by a better one or using specific equations for different types of food.

331
 332

333 Appendix A

334 List of variables and units.

335	P_{vs}	Vapor saturation pressure	[pa]
336	w	Absolute humidity	[kg water/kg air]
337	P_v	Air's vapor pressure	[pa]
338	H	Enthalpy	[kJ/kg*K]
339	ϕ	Relative humidity	
340	T_{dp}	Dew point	[K]
341	v	Specific volume	[m ³ /kg]
342	X_v	Vapor molar fraction	
343	k_{ar}	Thermal conductivity of the humid air	[W/m ² *K]
344	c_p	Specific heat	[kJ/kg*K]
345	α	Thermal diffusivity	[m ² /s]

346	ρ	Mixture density	[kg/m ³]
347	μ_{mix}	Dynamic viscosity	[N*s/m ²]
348	τ	Kinematic viscosity	[m ² /s]
349	ΔT_{ml}	Logarithmic mean temperature difference	[K]
350	U	Mean global heat flux coefficient	[W/m ² *k]
351	l	Thickness of the heat exchanger's walls	[m]
352	k	Heat transfer coefficient of material	[W/m ² *K]
353	h	Convection heat transfer coefficient	[W/m ² *K]
354	V	Air's speed	[m/s]
355	A	Total exposed heat exchanger area	[m ²]
356	\dot{m} or $\frac{\partial m}{\partial t}$	Mass flow rate	[kg/s]
357	D_{ab}	Air diffusion coefficient	[m ² /s]
358	m_l	Total water mass removed	[kg/s]
359	T	Absolute temperature	[K]
360	A_p	Plaque's area	[m ²]
361			

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