

1 **Development of optical digital interferometry for visualizing and**
2 **modelling the mass diffusion of ammonia in water in an**
3 **absorption process**

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10 **Keywords**

11 Ammonia/Water mixture; Mass Diffusion, Modelling, Optical Digital Interferometry,
12 Visualization

13 **Abstract**

14 This study reports the development and implementation of Optical Digital
15 Interferometry for visualizing and modelling mass diffusion in the absorption process of
16 ammonia in water. Absorption experiments were performed at infinite dilution of
17 ammonia and at 293 K, 303 K, and 313 K. The method developed makes it possible to
18 visualize the development of the mass diffusion layer and determine the evolution of
19 concentration profiles in the ammonia/water mixture, providing new spatio-temporal
20 data on the absorption process. A non-equilibrium model based on Fick's Second Law
21 was used to describe the mass diffusion process. It was found that the model can
22 successfully reproduce the experimental profiles of the ammonia concentration. The
23 method developed also allows the simultaneous determination of mass diffusivity and
24 mass transfer coefficients from a single experimental test. The values obtained for the
25 mass diffusivity of ammonia in water vary from $1.54 \times 10^{-9} \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$ at 293.1 K to $2.50 \times$
26 $10^{-9} \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$ at 313.1 K. The relative deviations between the experimental mass
27 diffusivity and literature values did not exceed 6.0%. The mass transfer coefficient
28 ranges from $2.12 \times 10^{-5} \text{ m s}^{-1}$ at 293.1 K to $4.19 \times 10^{-5} \text{ m s}^{-1}$ at 313.1 K. The results
29 show the potential of Optical Digital Interferometry for the development and validation
30 of heat and mass transfer models used to design components in absorption
31 refrigeration systems.

1 **Nomenclature**

2	Δn	change in refractive index (dimensionless)
3	x, y	Cartesian co-ordinates in a 2D plane (dimensionless)
4	t	time (s)
5	λ	laser wavelength (m)
6	$\Delta\varphi$	optical phase difference (rad)
7	L	optical path of the absorption cell (m)
8	i	light intensity distribution (arb. units)
9	i_0	background intensity distribution (arb. units)
10	m	local contrast function (arb. units)
11	u, v	spatial frequencies in the x- and y-directions (cycles per m)
12	c	ammonia mass concentration in the ammonia/water mixture (kg m^{-3})
13	z	vertical position from the bottom of the absorption cell (m)
14	D_{12}	mass diffusivity of ammonia in water ($\text{m}^2 \text{s}^{-1}$)
15	z_0	height of the ammonia/water mixture in the absorption cell (m)
16	k	mass transfer coefficient (m s^{-1})
17	c_{eq}	equilibrium concentration (kg m^{-3})
18	P_{eq}	equilibrium pressure (kPa)
19	Δn_0	factor of proportionality (dimensionless)
20	T	temperature (K)
21	P	pressure (kPa)

22 ***Subscripts***

23	exp	experimental
24	cal	calculated

25
26

1 **1. Introduction**

2 In absorption refrigeration systems, it is commonly acknowledged that the
3 absorber is the most critical component in terms of the overall system
4 performance, size, and first cost [1]. Consequently, the absorption process,
5 which involves simultaneous heat and mass transfer occurring in the absorber
6 during which the refrigerant changes phase, has been the subject of a
7 significant amount of research [2–6].

8 In an original study, Kojima and Kashiwagi [2] used a holographic real-time
9 interferometry technique to study the absorption process of ammonia in various
10 absorbent substances. During the absorption process, the time evolution of
11 ammonia concentration profiles in the stagnant absorbent was determined. The
12 field of view covered by the technique was a small area near the vapour-liquid
13 interface, around 20 mm inside the liquid bulk. The time evolution of ammonia
14 concentration profiles in the absorbents studied was obtained by simply
15 counting the number of interference fringe shifts in the field of view at each
16 instance. The authors also determined the mass diffusivity of ammonia in the
17 absorbents by fitting the experimental distribution of ammonia concentration to
18 a theoretical model based on the one-dimensional (1D) Fick's Second Law. The
19 main hypotheses of the mass diffusion model used were: (1) the vapour-liquid
20 interface is saturated with ammonia throughout the absorption process, and (2)
21 the contact time between the ammonia vapour and the absorbent is short
22 enough for the diffusion front not to reach the bottom of the field of view.

23 Subsequently, Mahmoud et al. [5] and Mustafa [6] analyzed the absorption
24 process of ammonia vapour in a stagnant pool of ammonia/water mixture using
25 three different experimental approaches: the pressure drop method (PDM), the
26 interface heat flux method, and optical interferometry. They compared the
27 absorption rate values obtained from the three experimental methods used and
28 found that the results of PDM and interferometry show reasonable agreement
29 with each other but not with the results of the interface heat flux method.

30 The authors [5,6] used a Mach-Zehnder interferometer to visualize the heat and
31 mass transfer near the vapour-liquid interface. The field of view covered was
32 around 12 mm inside the liquid mixture. The interferograms obtained allowed

1 the authors to identify two diffusion layers at short absorption times. In the first
2 layer, near the interface, mass and heat are simultaneously diffused, while in
3 the other layer, further away from the interface, only heat is diffused. The
4 ammonia concentration profiles were obtained by simply counting the number of
5 interference fringe shifts in the field of view.

6 In their respective studies, Mahmoud et al. [5] and Mustafa [6] did not determine
7 the mass diffusivity but did select the literature value that best describes the
8 observed concentration profile. The authors also used a model based on the 1D
9 Fick's Second Law valid at short absorption times. However, unlike the model
10 used by Kojima and Kashiwagi [2], the mass diffusion model used by Mahmoud
11 et al. [5] and Mustafa [6] did consider that the concentration at the vapour-liquid
12 interface varied over time. The ammonia concentration at the interface was
13 determined assuming an instantaneous equilibrium between the vapour and
14 liquid phases at the temperature and pressure at each instant of time during the
15 absorption process. The authors [5,6] found that fringe analysis and the mass
16 diffusion model gave different concentration distributions. This difference was
17 attributed to the effects of heat on fringe formation.

18 Previous experimental studies [2,5,6] on the absorption process show that
19 optical techniques for the direct visualization of diffusion phenomena near the
20 vapour-liquid interface are powerful tools for investigating the absorption
21 process. In recent years, advancements in lasers and charge-coupled devices
22 (CCD) have enabled optical interferometry to drastically increase the accuracy
23 of the measurement from the typical, not very accurate, interferograms such as
24 those used by Kojima and Kashiwagi [2] to high-resolution digital images [7,8].
25 At the same time, optical components, such as laser sources, beam splitters,
26 and reflective mirrors, are now more affordable than in former times.

27 Nowadays, sophisticated image processing methods have become available
28 that can be easily implemented in computational packages such as MATLAB®
29 [9]. One of these methods, Optical Digital Interferometry (ODI), has been
30 successfully used to determine diffusion coefficients and to visualize heat and
31 mass transfer in liquid mixtures [10–13]. The unique feature of the ODI method
32 is the ability to track the time evolution of temperature and concentration fields
33 throughout the cell cross-section [14].

1 Therefore, the application of the ODI method can help reveal more valuable and
2 higher quality information about the absorption process of ammonia in
3 absorbent substances. For example, it can show the time evolution of the
4 ammonia concentration profiles in the absorbents during the absorption
5 process. These profiles can be used to assess whether a specific boundary
6 condition or model is suitable for describing ammonia mass diffusion during the
7 absorption process correctly. Moreover, the time evolution of ammonia
8 concentration profiles is also useful for the development and validation of more
9 complex heat and mass transfer models that can be used for screening suitable
10 absorbents for this natural refrigerant.

11 The ODI method can also be used to determine the mass diffusivity of natural
12 refrigerants in absorbent substances, an essential transport property, before
13 going on to make a detailed study of the heat and mass transfer performance of
14 new working pairs so that different types of absorbers can be properly
15 designed.

16 Recently, our research group [15] implemented a new experimental setup to
17 investigate the behaviour of the absorption process and determine the mass
18 diffusivity of ammonia in absorbent substances using the ODI method. Despite
19 the significant benefits derived from the application of the ODI method, this
20 method is currently not widely used to investigate the absorption process. In our
21 opinion, the main obstacle lies not in the fundamental limitations of the
22 technique but in the lack of adequately developed experimental procedures,
23 incomprehension of the mathematical formalism, and the lack of familiarity with
24 the data processing steps.

25 Therefore, this paper reports the development and implementation of Optical
26 Digital Interferometry for investigating the absorption process of natural
27 refrigerants in absorbent substances for absorption refrigeration systems. In
28 particular, the main objectives are to visualize and model the time evolution of
29 concentration profiles of ammonia refrigerant in the conventional absorbent,
30 water. A mass diffusion model based on the 1D Fick's Second Law was used to
31 describe the ammonia mass diffusion in the ammonia/water mixture. The mass
32 diffusion model – namely, the non-equilibrium model – is unlike previous models

1 in the literature [2,5,6] in that it uses different key assumptions and boundary
2 conditions.

3 **2. Experimental approach**

4 **2.1. Materials, setup, and experimental procedure**

5 Anhydrous ammonia (purity 99.98%, CAS no. 7664-41-7) was obtained from
6 Carbueros Metálicos and was used directly without any further purification.
7 Deionized water with a MilliQ reagent-grade was obtained from the laboratories
8 of the Universitat Rovira i Virgili (URV), and it was degassed to avoid the
9 formation of bubbles, which can seriously affect the ammonia concentration
10 distribution in water.

11 The experimental setup (Figure 1) consisted of an absorption test loop based on
12 the Pressure Drop Method and an optical system for visualization that used the
13 Mach-Zehnder interferometer. The main components of the test loop were the
14 absorption cell (see Figure 2), in which the absorption process took place, and
15 the cylindrical tank, which contained the ammonia vapour that fed the
16 absorption cell during the absorption process. Three pressure transducers
17 (Wika, model S20) measured the pressure in the test loop, two in the absorption
18 cell and one in the cylindrical tank. The temperature in the absorption cell was
19 measured with five 4-wires Pt100 probes, one of which was placed in the
20 vapour phase while the other four were placed at equidistant depths in the liquid
21 phase. The probes in the liquid phase allowed us to obtain a temperature profile
22 for the investigation of the thermal behaviour of the ammonia/water mixture.
23 The temperature of the absorption cell was controlled by a circulating bath
24 (Huber, model Pilot One), which pumped distilled water through a copper
25 cooling coil placed around the absorption cell. Also, another 4-wires Pt-100
26 probe was placed in the cylindrical tank. All the temperature probes and
27 pressure transducers were connected to the data acquisition system
28 (Keysight/Agilent 34972A).

29 Before experiments, the non-condensable gases trapped in the absorption test
30 loop were removed by a vacuum pump (Comecta-Ivymen). Then, ammonia
31 vapour and water were charged into the cylindrical tank and the absorption cell,
32 respectively. The ammonia vapour was taken directly from an external reservoir

1 until the desired pressure value (≈ 1 atm) in the cylindrical tank was reached.
 2 This pressure value was selected to guarantee infinite dilution conditions for the
 3 ammonia absorption process in water. Meanwhile, the mass of water (≈ 30 g) in
 4 each experimental run was used in such a way as to allow good visibility of the
 5 vapour-liquid interface and maximum use of the optical windows to visualize the
 6 absorption process. The mass of water used in each experimental run was
 7 weighed on a Mettler AE 260 DeltaRange digital mass balance (resolution ± 0.1
 8 mg). Then, it was carefully fed into the absorption cell in vacuum conditions
 9 through the injection line.

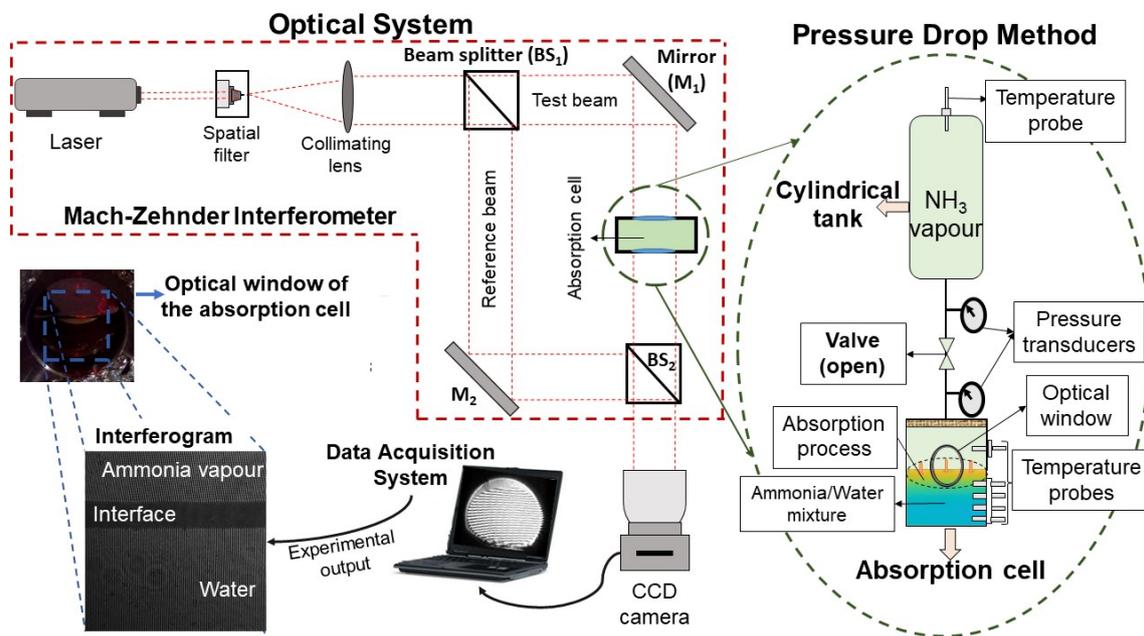


Figure 1. Schematic of the experimental setup

12 Initially, the absorption cell and the cylindrical tank were connected by a closed
 13 valve, which did not allow contact between the ammonia vapour (at higher
 14 pressure) and the absorbent water (in vacuum conditions). To start the
 15 absorption experiments, the valve between the absorption cell and the
 16 cylindrical tank was opened. Consequently, the ammonia vapour expanded into
 17 the absorption cell, and the absorption process began. The valve was kept open
 18 throughout the experiment so the ammonia vapour feed was continuous. The
 19 temperature and pressure of the absorption cell and the cylindrical tank were
 20 continuously monitored. Absorption experiments were performed at
 21 temperatures of 293 K, 303 K and 313 K.

1 Figure 1 also shows the optical system (Mach-Zehnder interferometer) used for
2 the visualization of the process. Here, the beam from a He-Ne laser ($\lambda = 632.8$
3 nm, Thorlabs, HRS015B) was used as a light source. First, the laser beam was
4 expanded, filtered and collimated. Then, the collimated beam was divided by a
5 beam splitter (BS_1), which refracted half of the amplitude and transmitted the
6 other half. The resulting beams travelled through different optical paths in the
7 system. One of the beams – the reference beam – passed through the ambient
8 air. The other beam – the object or test beam – passed through the absorption
9 cell (see Figure 2). Finally, the two beams were recombined by a second beam
10 splitter (BS_2) and imaged on a CCD camera (Basler, piA1000-60gm) by an
11 objective lens (Fujinon, HF75HA-1B). The optical paths of the two beams were
12 different so an optical phase difference was generated. As a result, an image
13 presenting interference fringes, called an interferogram or fringe pattern, was
14 observed.

15 The resulting interferogram was recorded by a CCD camera with a 1000 x 1000
16 pixels sensor. The resolution of the imaging system was around 9.0 μm per
17 pixel. The image acquisition time step was varied from 30 s at the beginning of
18 the experiment to 300s at the end. All optical elements were mounted on
19 mechanical platforms so that they could be accurately adjusted. In addition, the
20 Mach-Zehnder interferometer (MZI) and the absorption cell were mounted on a
21 special optical table (Nexus Breadboard, 750 mm x 900 mm x 60 mm) with a
22 vibration isolation system.

23 Figure 2 shows the schematic design of the absorption cell used for the
24 experiments. The optical path length inside the liquid bulk was 35.4 ± 0.3 mm. At
25 the top of the absorption cell, a Teflon[®] mesh was added so that the ammonia
26 vapour could be uniformly distributed over the entire vapour-liquid interface. The
27 absorption cell was equipped with two optical sapphire windows (model
28 SAW24, diameter 25.40 mm, thickness 2.30 mm, from Lasing S.A) for the
29 visualization of the absorption process.

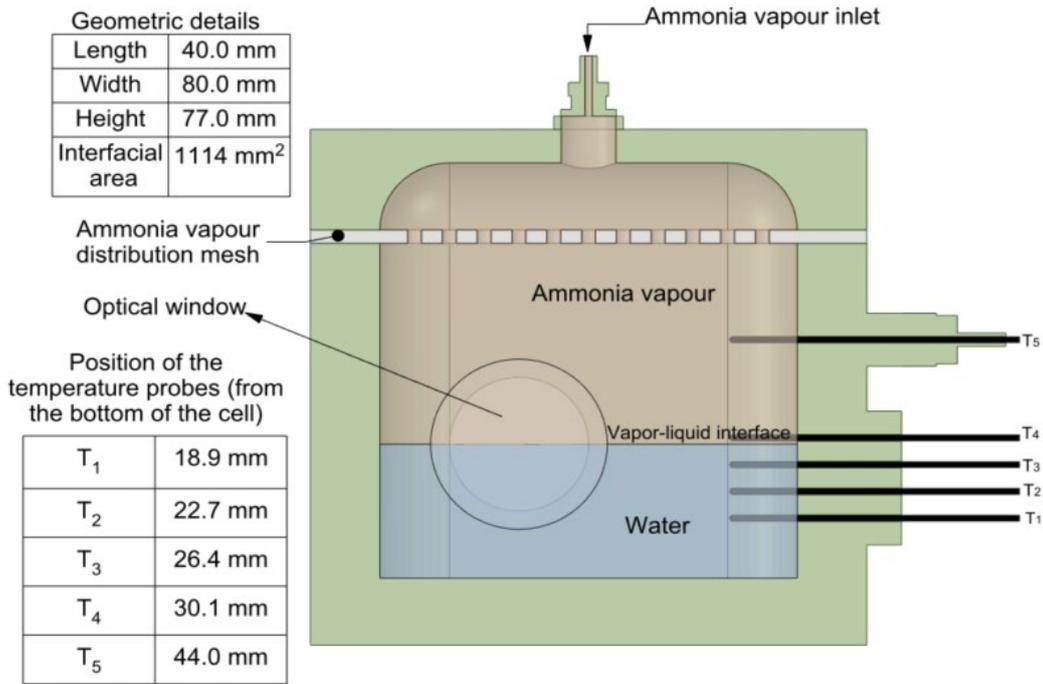


Figure 2. Schematic of the absorption cell

2.2. Optical Digital Interferometry

Interferograms obtained during absorption experiments implicitly provide the optical phase difference ($\Delta\varphi(x, y, t)$) between the test beam and reference beam of the MZI. In turn, $\Delta\varphi(x, y, t)$ can be related to the change in the refractive index ($\Delta n_{exp}(x, y, t)$) of the ammonia/water mixture as:

$$\Delta n_{exp}(x, y, t) = \frac{\lambda}{2\pi L} \Delta\varphi(x, y, t) \quad (1)$$

where L is the optical path inside the ammonia/water mixture.

However, the experimentally observed quantity is the light intensity in each pixel of the interferogram and not the optical phase difference itself. Therefore, a suitable processing method, such as Optical Digital Interferometry (ODI), should be used to extract the optical phase from the measure of light intensity distribution in the interferograms. For this purpose, we used the ODI method in combination with the Fourier transform technique [16]. The mathematical description of the optical phase extraction procedure is shown below.

2.2.1. Optical phase extraction from the interferograms

The measured light intensity distribution in the interferograms can be expressed as:

$$1 \quad i(x, y) = i_0(x, y) + m(x, y) \cdot \cos [2\pi u_0 x + \Delta\varphi(x, y)] \quad (2)$$

2 where $i_0(x, y)$ represents the background variation and $m(x, y)$ is related to the
 3 local contrast of the pattern. $2\pi u_0 x$ is the linear phase introduced by the tilted
 4 mirror, u_0 is associated with the spatial frequency of the fringes and $\Delta\varphi(x, y)$ is
 5 the remaining optical phase difference between the interferometer arms.

6 The fringe-pattern formula (Eq. (2)) can be written as one term around zero
 7 frequency and two terms around frequency u_0 :

$$8 \quad i(x, y) = i_0(x, y) + \exp[j2\pi u_0 x] \cdot d(x, y) + \exp[-j2\pi u_0 x] \cdot d^*(x, y) \quad (3)$$

9 where:

$$10 \quad d(x, y) = \frac{1}{2} m(x, y) \cdot \exp[j\Delta\varphi(x, y)] \quad (4)$$

11 with $j = \sqrt{-1}$ and $*$ denoting the complex conjugate. The terms of interest in Eq.
 12 (3) are $d(x, y)$ and $d^*(x, y)$, which contain the optical phase difference term.
 13 Then, Eq. (3) had to be Fourier transformed to give:

$$14 \quad I(u, v) = I_0(u, v) + D(u, v) * \delta(u - u_0) + D^*(-u, -v) * \delta(u + u_0) \quad (5)$$

15 where $*$ represents the convolution operator, and the term D is the Fourier
 16 transform of $d(x, y)$. D and D^* were placed symmetrically around the origin at
 17 frequencies $\pm u_0$ respectively. These terms contain equivalent information about
 18 the optical phase difference. Therefore, the next step was to filter out either one
 19 of the two spectra. By applying a Gaussian filter centred at $-u_0$, all frequencies
 20 except those that belong to D^* were filtered out. Then, D^* was shifted to the
 21 zero frequency, and the inverse Fourier transform was applied; so the term
 22 $d^*(x, y)$, defined in Eq. (3), was obtained. Finally, the optical phase difference
 23 between the interferometer arms (without the linear phase introduced by the
 24 mirror) was calculated from $d^*(x, y)$ as:

$$25 \quad \Delta\varphi(x, y) = \arctan \left\{ \frac{Im[d^*(x, y)]}{Re[d^*(x, y)]} \right\} \quad (6)$$

26 where $Im[d^*(x, y)]$ and $Re[d^*(x, y)]$ denote the real part and the imaginary part,
 27 respectively. After these steps, the results were a set of two-dimensional (2D)
 28 optical phase map images wrapped into $[-\pi, \pi]$ range. The next step in the
 29 image processing was to select a reference image. This reference image was
 30 subtracted from each of the following images to separate the value of interest.

1 In this study, we are interested in the refractive index variations caused by
2 changes in ammonia concentration in the water. Thus, the reference
3 interferogram was taken as the last image recorded just before the beginning of
4 the absorption process.

5 **2.2.2. Phase unwrapping**

6 Optical phase maps need to be unwrapped so that a continuous natural phase
7 can be constructed [10]. The procedure begins with the selection of a pixel
8 where it is assumed that the wrapped phase is equal to the unwrapped phase.
9 Selecting a suitable reference pixel is a very important step because it modifies
10 the shape of the unwrapped phase profile and, therefore, the concentration
11 profile. In diffusion experiments involving liquid-liquid systems, the reference
12 pixel is generally located at the centre of the optical phase maps [10,11,13],
13 since the concentration profiles are symmetric with respect to that position.

14 However, in diffusion experiments involving vapour-liquid systems, as in the
15 present study, the concentration profiles are not symmetric to the centre of the
16 optical phase maps. In this case, the reference pixel can be conveniently
17 located at the vapor-liquid interface or at the bottom of the field of view,
18 depending on the boundary conditions used to describe the mass diffusion in
19 the absorption process. For example, Mahmoud et al. [5] and Mustafa [6]
20 considered that the ammonia concentration at the vapour-liquid interface varies
21 with time. Consequently, the refractive index of the ammonia/water mixture near
22 the vapour-liquid interface must also change and it is not appropriate to select a
23 reference pixel located at that position. Nevertheless, for short absorption times,
24 when the diffusion front has not reached the bottom of the field of view, there is
25 no change in the refractive index of the ammonia/water mixture at the bottom of
26 the field of view. Therefore, like Wylock et al. [7], here we have used a
27 reference pixel located at the bottom of the field of view.

28 Two-dimensional phase unwrapping could be demanding, especially for noisy
29 fringe images, for which sophisticated unwrapping techniques are required [10].
30 In our case, the 2-D phase maps were generally of good quality, so we adopted
31 an approach based on the method described by Kreis [17]. The unwrapping
32 procedure started from the reference pixel. The optical phase of this pixel was
33 compared with a neighbouring pixel. If the magnitude of the difference between

1 the two neighboring pixels was less than π , the optical phase remained
2 unchanged. If the difference between two pixels was less than $-\pi$, then 2π was
3 added to the wrapped phase; otherwise, if the difference was more than π , 2π
4 was subtracted from the wrapped phase at that pixel [18]. Each pixel was
5 compared to a previously validated one in the horizontal and vertical directions,
6 and this iterative procedure was performed over the full wrapped phase map. In
7 the next image-processing step, the unwrapped phase maps were converted
8 into refractive index maps by applying Eq. (1).

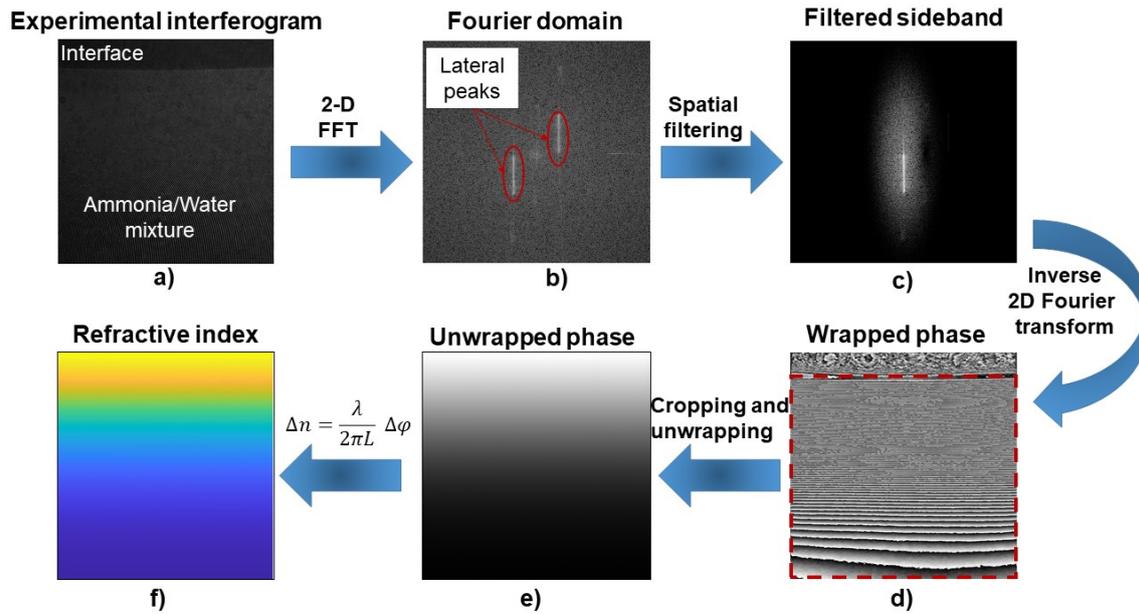
9 **2.2.3. Image processing steps**

10 Figure 3 shows the main image processing steps of the ODI method combined
11 with the Fourier transform technique for investigating mass diffusion in
12 ammonia/water mixtures.

- 13 1. Two-dimensional (2D) Fourier transform is applied to each experimental
14 interferogram (Figure 3(a)). The result is a spectrum with three peaks in
15 the Fourier domain (Figure 3(b)).
- 16 2. One of the lateral peaks is selected using a Gaussian filter, and then, the
17 selected peak is moved towards the origin of the Fourier domain (Figure
18 3(c)).
- 19 3. The inverse Fourier transform is applied to the filtered sideband, and the
20 result is an optical phase map wrapped in the range $[-\pi, \pi]$ (Figure 3(d)).
- 21 4. The wrapped phase map is cropped, the reference pixel is selected, and
22 an unwrapping procedure is applied. Thus, an unwrapped optical phase
23 map, as shown in Figure 3(e) is obtained.
- 24 5. Finally, the unwrapped optical phase map is converted into a refractive
25 index map (Figure 3(f)) by applying Eq. (1).

26 An image processing code was developed in Matlab [9], which makes the
27 above steps easy to implement, including the Fourier transform technique
28 (FFT), and extract the refractive index change maps from the experimental
29 interferograms.

30



1
2 *Figure 3. Image processing steps: (a) an interferogram (experimental output); (b)*
3 *image after applied 2D fast Fourier transform (FFT); (c) filtered sideband using a*
4 *Gaussian filter; (d) wrapped phase map; (e) unwrapped phase map; (f) refractive index*
5 *field of the ammonia/water mixture in the field of view of the absorption cell.*

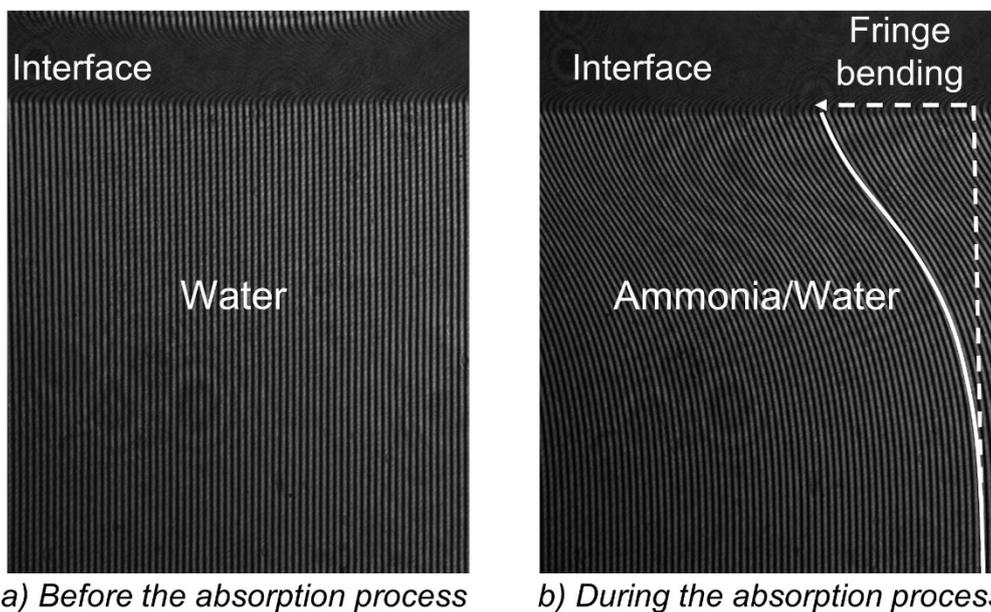
6 **3. Visualization of the mass diffusion layer and the** 7 **experimental profiles of the refractive index change**

8 Figure 4 shows two interferograms obtained at different instances during a
9 typical experimental run. The horizontal black strip observed corresponds to the
10 area of the vapour-liquid interface. The meniscus shape of the interface deflects
11 the test beam light in this area, so this area appears in black in the
12 interferograms [7].

13 Before the inlet valve of the absorption cell was opened (see Figure 1), the
14 interference fringes were vertical, as shown in Figure 4(a). In our optical system,
15 one of the mirrors (M₂ in Figure 1) was tilted to produce a linear optical phase
16 difference in the horizontal direction. Thus, vertical interference fringes were
17 observed even if the fluids in the absorption cell were optically uniform.

18 Then, as soon as the ammonia absorption process started, an additional optical
19 phase difference was established between both arms of the interferometer. This
20 additional difference was due to the local distribution of the refractive index of
21 the ammonia/water solution. An interferogram recorded a few minutes after the

1 start of the absorption process is presented in Figure 4 (b). It shows that the
2 fringes were bent in the region of the image corresponding to the
3 ammonia/water solution just below the interface. This means that the variation
4 of the refractive index was greater in that region than in a deeper region of the
5 liquid bulk. Moreover, the interface area is also observed to thicken between
6 Figure 4 (a) and (b). This thickening was caused by the expansion of the
7 ammonia vapour, which was initially at a higher pressure than the water in the
8 absorption cell, and it is mainly observed during the first minutes of the
9 absorption process. After this time, the pressure began to decrease due to the
10 absorption of ammonia in the water, and it was observed that the thickness of
11 the interface remained stable until the end of the experiments.

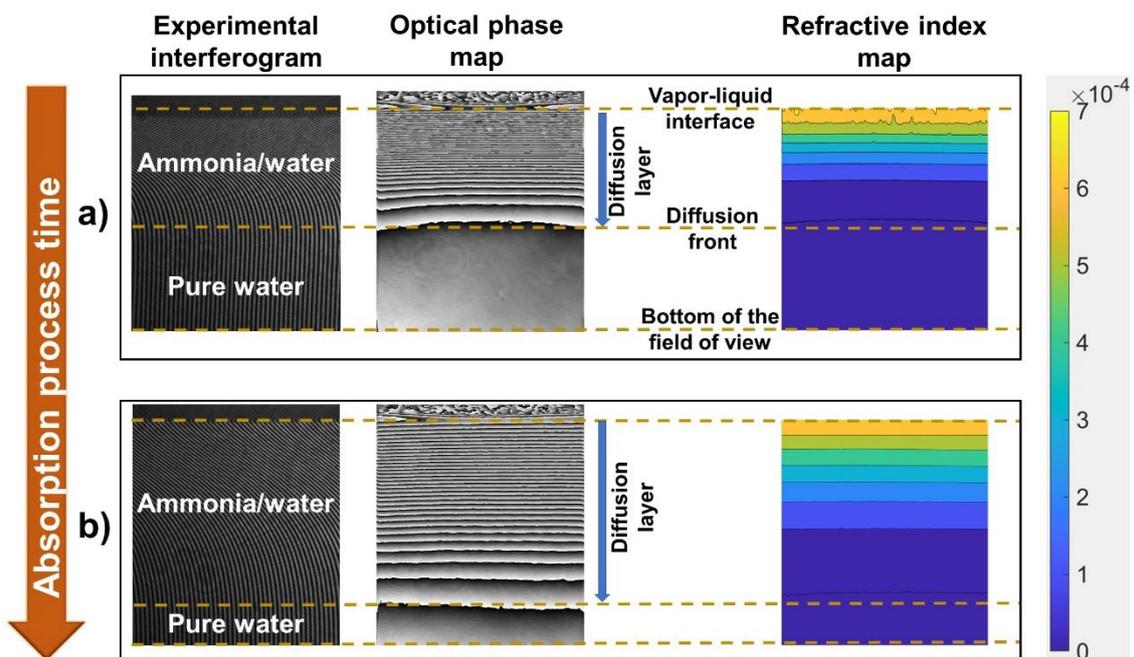


13 *Figure 4. Experimental interferograms or fringe images*

14 At the scale of the interferogram, the optical phase difference between the
15 reference beam and the test beam of the MZI leads to a time and space
16 evolution of the fringe positions. By following this evolution, the MZI can
17 accurately detect local variations in the refractive index during mass diffusion in
18 the absorption process [7]. In this way, the experimental setup visualizes the
19 formation and evolution of the mass diffusion layer inside the ammonia/water
20 mixture.

21 Figure 5 shows the development of the mass diffusion layer during the
22 absorption process of ammonia in water at 313.1 K at different times. Two

1 regions of a similar size can be identified in the interferogram shown in Figure 5
 2 a). In the region closest to the vapour-liquid interface, the fringes bend to the left
 3 because of the mass diffusion of ammonia into the water bulk. While in the
 4 region furthest from the interface and therefore closest to the bottom of the field
 5 of view, the fringes remain vertical. This suggests that there is a layer within the
 6 liquid bulk in which the diffusive transport of ammonia in water takes place.
 7 Outside this mass diffusion layer, no ammonia is present and, therefore, the
 8 liquid bulk is pure water. However, as the absorption process progresses, the
 9 mass diffusion layer gets thicker (Figure 5(b)). After a sufficiently long time, the
 10 diffusion front reaches the bottom of the field of view.



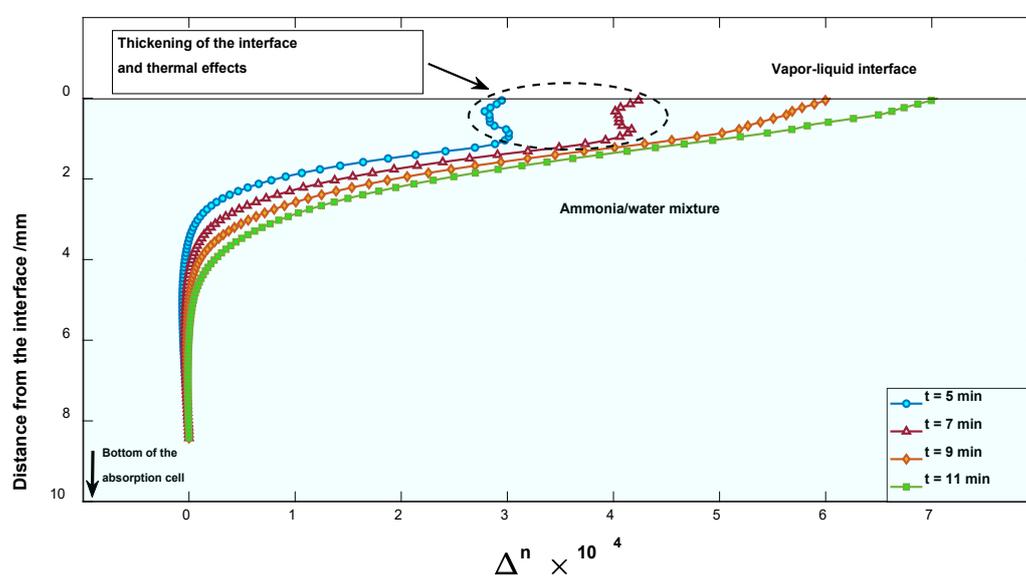
11
 12 *Figure 5. Evolution of the mass diffusion layer at different times during the absorption*
 13 *process of ammonia in water at 313.1 K: a) 10 minutes; b) 14 minutes.*

14 Figure 5 also shows the corresponding (wrapped) optical phase and refractive
 15 index maps. Optical phase maps are very useful for identifying the “preferred”
 16 direction of the mass diffusion layer. In this case, mass diffusion occurs in the
 17 vertical direction, from the vapour-liquid interface to the bottom of the field
 18 of view.

19 The ODI method makes it possible to increase measurement accuracy by
 20 providing information about concentration distribution throughout the diffusion
 21 path. It provides a two-dimensional concentration field, although the distribution
 22 can be considered one-dimensional (1D), as confirmed by the refractive index

1 maps in Figure 5. To apply 1D mathematical description of measurements, the
 2 2D map of the refractive index change is averaged in the horizontal direction.
 3 This averaging increases the reliability of the extracted profiles because it
 4 suppresses local noise, which is otherwise observable, without applying
 5 additional filters.

6 Figure 6 shows the evolution of the experimental profiles of the refractive index
 7 change (Δn) in the ammonia/water mixture during the absorption process at
 8 313.1 K. At absorption times of 5 and 7 minutes, the combined effects of
 9 changes in concentration and temperature and thickening of the interface
 10 caused a high refractive index gradient that led to squeezing of the fringes of
 11 unwrapped phase, resulting in unresolvable phase steps. This caused a
 12 "deformation" in the part of the refractive index change profiles near the vapor-
 13 liquid interface that did not correctly reflect the "real" concentration profiles in
 14 the mixture. Nonetheless, after a few minutes, the interface thickness and
 15 temperature stabilized in the experiments, so the refractive index change
 16 profiles were considered to be affected only by concentration changes, as
 17 discussed in Appendix A.



18
 19 Figure 6. Evolution of the experimental profile of the refractive index change (Δn) in the
 20 ammonia/water mixture during the absorption process at 313.1 K

21 Figure 6 also shows that as the absorption process progresses and more
 22 ammonia passes from the vapour phase to the liquid phase, the difference in Δn
 23 between the upper and lower regions inside the ammonia/water mixture

1 increases. This difference increases until the diffusion front reaches the lower
2 region of the field of view. Then, the difference gradually begins to decrease as
3 the interface tends to saturate, and the diffusion front continues until it reaches
4 the lower region of the field of view. The refractive index change profiles shown
5 in Figure 6 are useful for evaluating specific modelling approaches to the
6 absorption process of ammonia in water, as discussed below.

7 **4. Modelling the mass diffusion in the absorption process**

8 Modelling the mass diffusion in the absorption process of ammonia in water is
9 quite a demanding task due to the presence of complex physical phenomena,
10 which include the possible evolution of the heat of absorption, liquid convection,
11 and the possible change in thermophysical properties of the liquid [19].
12 Nevertheless, the effect of these complex phenomena can be minimized with a
13 well-designed experimental setup and suitable experimental conditions. In the
14 literature [2,5,6,19–22], different mathematical models based on a simplified
15 mass diffusion equation have been used to describe the time-dependent
16 behaviour of the absorption process. These models and their solutions have
17 different interface thermodynamic conditions, assumptions, and parameter
18 estimation algorithms [22]. The present study makes the following assumptions:

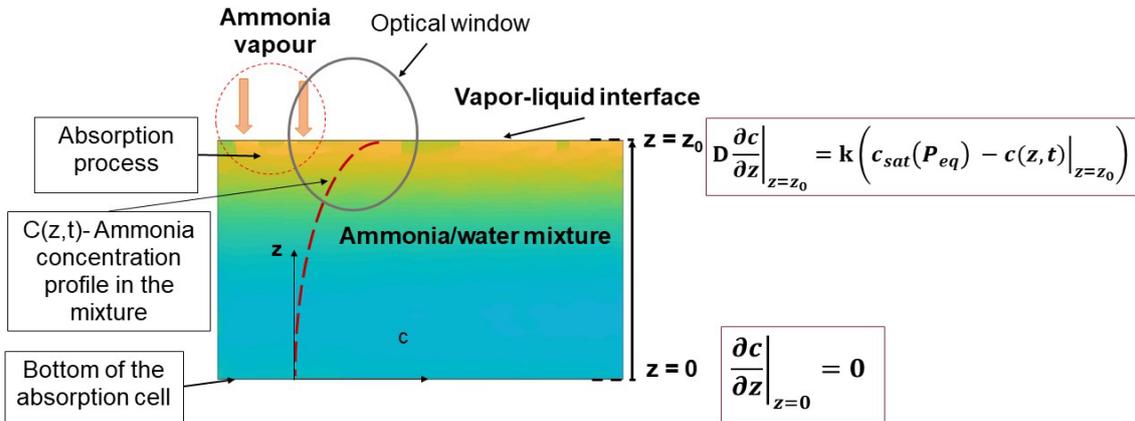
- 19 1. Mass diffusion in the ammonia/water mixture is one-dimensional, and
20 there is no convective flow in the absorption process of ammonia in
21 water [2–6,20].
- 22 2. For the diffusion analysis, the temperature in the absorption cell is
23 considered constant [21]. In the experimental setup implemented, the
24 dimensions of the absorption cell and the capacity of the thermal control
25 circuit facilitate rapid heat transfer between the ammonia/water mixture
26 and the external fluid of the thermal control circuit, which keeps the
27 temperature practically constant during the absorption process.
- 28 3. The ammonia is highly diluted in the water (the ammonia mass fraction in
29 the ammonia/water mixture does not exceed 0.007 in the absorption
30 experiments). Thus, the relevant thermophysical properties of the mixture
31 do not significantly change during the absorption process [19].
- 32 4. The amount of ammonia absorbed in water is too small to cause a
33 noticeable increase in the volume of the liquid phase. Therefore, the

1 liquid phase's height in the absorption cell is assumed to be constant
 2 during the absorption process [21].

3 On the basis of the above assumptions, the mass diffusion in the
 4 ammonia/water mixture can be obtained using Fick's Second Law as:

$$5 \quad \frac{\partial c}{\partial t} = D_{12} \frac{\partial^2 c}{\partial z^2} \quad (7)$$

6 where c [kg m^{-3}] is the ammonia mass concentration in the ammonia/water
 7 mixture; z [m] is the vertical position from the bottom of the absorption cell; t [s]
 8 is time; and D_{12} [$\text{m}^2 \text{s}^{-1}$] is the mass diffusivity of ammonia in water. Figure 7
 9 displays a schematic of the boundary conditions (BCs) used to model the mass
 10 diffusion in the absorption process of ammonia in water.



11
 12 *Figure 7. Schematic of the boundary conditions used to model mass diffusion in the*
 13 *absorption process of ammonia in water*

14 To solve Eq. 7, one initial condition and two boundary conditions are required.
 15 Before the absorption process, the water contains no ammonia (i.e. the
 16 absorbent is pure water). Thus, in all the experiments, the initial condition is
 17 given by:

$$18 \quad c(z, t)|_{t=0} = 0 \quad (0 \leq z \leq z_0) \quad (8)$$

19 One boundary condition can be conveniently located at the bottom of the
 20 absorption cell and the other at the vapour-liquid interface.

21 At the bottom of the absorption cell, two different options can be considered
 22 depending on the contact time and the mass transfer rate between the vapour
 23 and liquid phases. Here, we have assumed that the diffusion front does not

1 reach the bottom of the absorption cell. Therefore, the diffusion can be
 2 considered as occurring in a semi-infinite medium, and the boundary condition
 3 is expressed as:

$$4 \quad c = 0 \quad (z = 0 \text{ and } t \geq 0) \quad (9)$$

5 The literature reports three main boundary conditions at the vapour-liquid
 6 interface; namely, equilibrium, quasi-equilibrium, and non-equilibrium [22,23].

7 Here, we have adopted a non-equilibrium boundary condition that more
 8 realistically describes the mass diffusion phenomena in the absorption process
 9 of ammonia in water in our experimental setup. Therefore, the ammonia mass
 10 transfer flux at the interface is assumed to be proportional to the difference
 11 between the saturation concentration under the equilibrium pressure and the
 12 existing concentration at the interface [23]:

$$13 \quad D \left. \frac{\partial c}{\partial z} \right|_{z=z_0} = k(c_{sat}(P_{eq}) - c(z, t)|_{z=z_0}) \quad (10)$$

14 where k [m s^{-1}] is the mass transfer coefficient, and $1/k$ represents the interfacial
 15 resistance.

16 The solution of Fick's Second Law (Eq. 7) subjected to the initial (Eq. 8) and
 17 boundary conditions (Eqs 9 and 10) is given by Crank [24]:

$$18 \quad c^*(z, t) = \text{erfc}(\xi) - \exp(h(z_0 - z) + h^2 D_{12} t) \text{erfc}(\xi + h\sqrt{D_{12} t}) \quad (11)$$

19 where z_0 is the height of the ammonia/water mixture in the absorption cell, $\xi =$
 20 $\frac{z_0 - z}{2\sqrt{D_{12} t}}$, $h = k/D_{12}$, $c^*(z, t) = c(z, t)/c_{eq}$, and c_{eq} is the equilibrium concentration.

21 Thus, the concentration changes in the ammonia/water mixture between the
 22 initial or reference time, $t_{ref} = 0$, and any other time during the absorption
 23 process, t , can be expressed as:

$$24 \quad \Delta c^*(z, t) = c^*(z, t) - c^*(z, t_{ref} = 0) = c^*(z, t) - 0 = c^*(z, t) \quad (12)$$

25 since initially, there is no ammonia in the water.

26 **4.1. Determination of the mass diffusivity of ammonia in water**

27 The changes in ammonia concentration may be related to changes in the
 28 refractive index of the ammonia/water mixture. On the assumption that they are

1 linearly related [25] (for the concentration ranges found in our experiments), the
 2 refractive index variation profile can be calculated as:

$$3 \quad \Delta n_{cal}(z, t) = \Delta n_0 \cdot \Delta c^*(z, t) \quad (13)$$

4 where Δn_0 is a factor of proportionality which accounts for the equilibrium
 5 concentration and the mean value of the derivative of the refractive index on
 6 concentration (so-called concentration contrast factor) for the experimental
 7 concentration range. Since this factor is unknown, it is determined
 8 simultaneously with the mass diffusivity and mass transfer coefficient using a
 9 non-linear least-squares minimization of the deviation between experimental
 10 ($\Delta n_{exp}(z, t)$) and calculated ($\Delta n_{cal}(z, t)$) refractive index profiles as:

$$11 \quad \Phi = \sum_{i,j} [\Delta n_{exp}(z_i, t_j) + \Delta n_{cal}(z_i, t_{ref}) - \Delta n_{cal}(z_i, t_j)]^2 \quad (14)$$

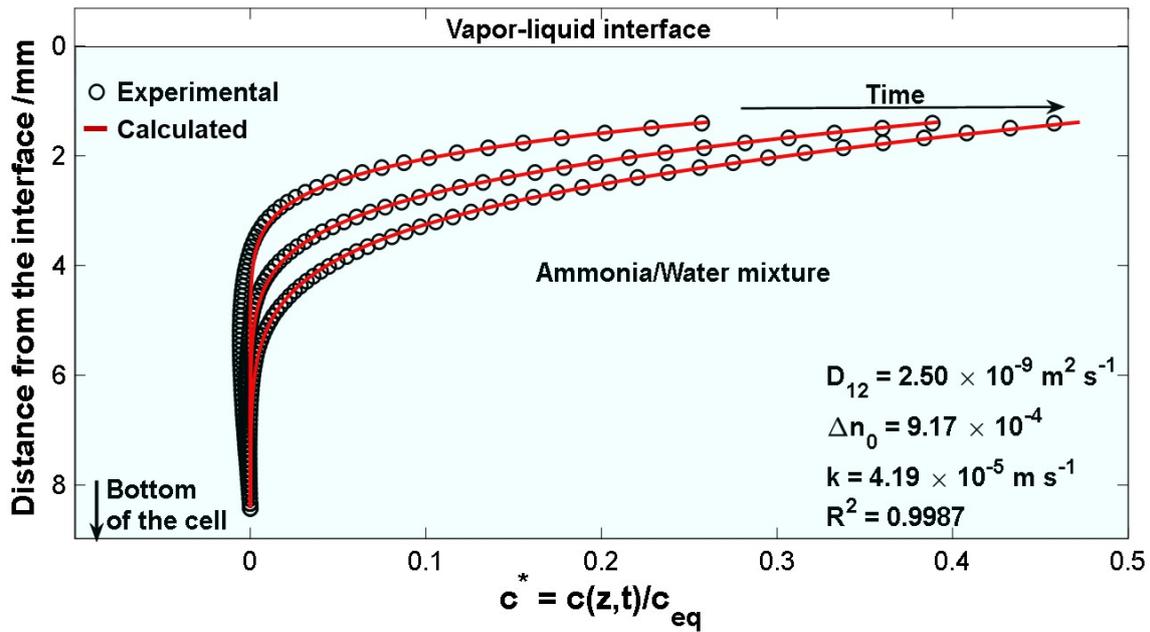
12 Several minimization algorithms can be found in the literature and are available
 13 in commercial software packages such as MATLAB® [26]. In the present study,
 14 the Nelder-Mead (simplex) [10,27] and Levenberg-Marquardt [22] algorithms
 15 were used to determine the unknown parameters. The minimization procedure
 16 was based on the sequential application of both algorithms to benefit from their
 17 respective advantages. Thus, we divided the regression procedure into two
 18 steps to accelerate the convergence. The first step aimed to search for good
 19 initial guesses using the Nelder-Mead (simplex) algorithm. The second step was
 20 the iterative process to minimize Φ , which used the initial guesses obtained in
 21 the first step. The second step was performed using the Levenberg-Marquardt
 22 algorithm.

23 **5. Results and Discussion**

24 [Figure 8](#) shows the ammonia concentration profiles observed and calculated
 25 during the absorption process of ammonia in water, at 313.15 K. Also shown in
 26 the figure are the regressed parameters and the coefficient of determination
 27 (R^2), which was calculated as:

$$28 \quad R^2 = 1 - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N [c^*_{exp}(i) - c^*_{calc}(i)]^2}{\sum_{i=1}^N [c^*_{exp}(i) - \bar{c}^*_{exp}]^2} \quad (15)$$

29 where c^*_{exp} is the experimental concentration, c^*_{calc} the calculated
 30 concentration, and \bar{c}^*_{exp} is the average value of the experimental concentration.



1

2 *Figure 8. Experimental and calculated profiles of the ammonia concentration during the*
 3 *mass diffusion process in the ammonia/water mixture at 313.15 K*

4 A coefficient of determination (R^2) close to 1, as shown in Figure 8, indicates that
 5 the mass diffusion model used satisfactorily reproduces the experimental
 6 profiles of the ammonia concentration in the ammonia/water mixture.

7 In Figure 8, the part of the concentration profiles near the vapour-liquid interface
 8 that could be affected by interface thickening and temperature variations at the
 9 beginning of the absorption process has been excluded. The flexibility of the
 10 ODI method makes it possible to exclude the "deformed" part of the
 11 experimental profiles without losing sensitivity due to the large number of
 12 experimental points it provides. Note that the number of spatial pixel points in
 13 the experimental data set is around 800, and the number of images acquired in
 14 a typical experimental run is 20, giving a total of 16000 experimental points to
 15 determine only three unknown parameters (D_{12} , k , and Δn_0).

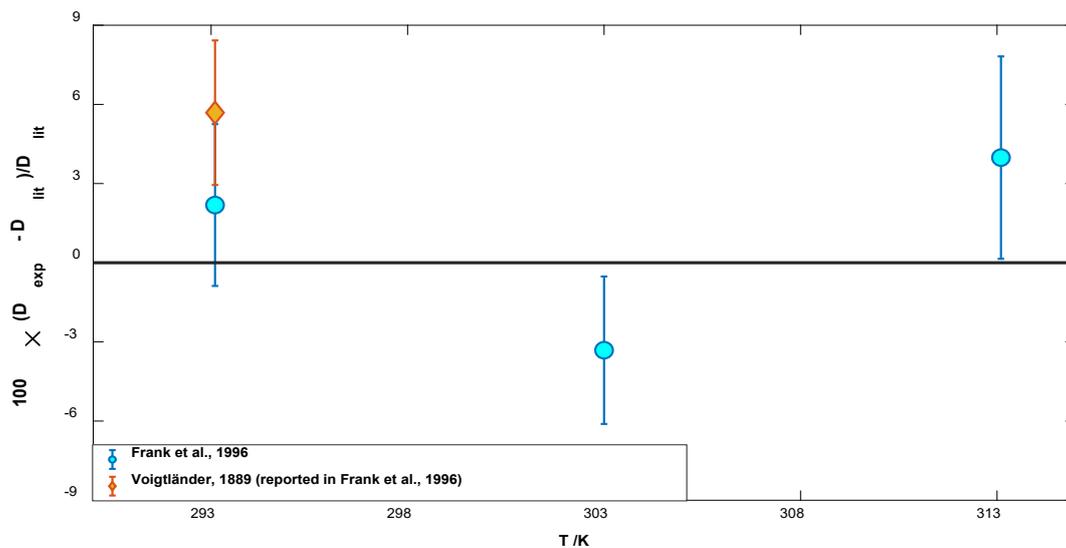
16 Table 1 lists the main results of the present study. As expected, the mass
 17 diffusivity increases with temperature and ranges from $1.54 \times 10^{-9} \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$ at
 18 293.1 K to $2.50 \times 10^{-9} \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$ at 313.1 K. The relative expanded uncertainty in
 19 our diffusivity measurements, $U_r(D_{12})$, do not exceed 3% with a confidence level
 20 of 0.95 (coverage factor $k = 2$). As shown in the table, the mass transfer
 21 coefficient also increases with temperature and it ranges from $2.12 \times 10^{-5} \text{ m s}^{-1}$
 22 at 293 K to $4.19 \times 10^{-5} \text{ m s}^{-1}$ at 313.1 K. Unlike the mass diffusivity and mass

1 transfer coefficient, the factor of proportionality Δn_0 decreases with temperature,
 2 which is consistent with the expected behaviour of the equilibrium concentration
 3 for the mixture studied. The coefficient of determination (R^2) shown in Table 1
 4 indicates that the mass diffusion model used provides satisfactory results at all
 5 temperatures studied.

6 *Table 1. Mass diffusivity (D_{12}) and mass transfer coefficient (k) in the ammonia/water*
 7 *mixture at different experimental conditions*

T /K	P /kPa	$D_{12} \times 10^9 /m^2 s^{-1}$	$k \times 10^5 /m s^{-1}$	$\Delta n_0 \times 10^3$	R^2
293.1 ± 0.7	14 ± 4	1.54 ± 0.04	2.12 ± 0.05	2.50 ± 0.06	0.9949
303.0 ± 0.5	29 ± 5	1.84 ± 0.04	3.04 ± 0.07	2.14 ± 0.05	0.9985
313.1 ± 0.3	70 ± 3	2.50 ± 0.07	4.19 ± 0.10	0.92 ± 0.03	0.9987

8 Figure 9 shows the deviations between the determined mass diffusivity and the
 9 values from the literature at different temperatures. Although there are several
 10 experimental studies available in the literature, most of the diffusivity data for
 11 the ammonia/water mixture under conditions of infinite dilution are out of date.
 12 We found that only Frank et al. [28] have reported recent data at the
 13 temperatures studied here. They used a Taylor Dispersion Technique to
 14 determine the diffusion coefficients of ammonia in water at different
 15 temperatures, at atmospheric pressure, and in the concentration range between
 16 0 and 0.312.



17
 18
 19

Figure 9. Deviation plot of the mass diffusivity of ammonia in water at different temperatures

1 As shown in Figure 9, the relative deviations between our values and those
2 obtained by Frank et al. [28] do not exceed 4%. Furthermore, the deviations fall
3 within the uncertainty range of the measurements, which highlights the excellent
4 concordance between both studies. Also shown in Figure 9 is the deviation from
5 the study by Voigtländer (reported in Frank et al. [28]) at 293 K. As can be seen,
6 in this case, the deviation is greater, close to 6%, which is still a reasonable
7 value despite the age of the reported data.

8 As mentioned, the ODI method in combination with an appropriate mass
9 diffusion model is a powerful tool that can simultaneously determine the mass
10 diffusivity (D_{12}) and mass transfer coefficient (k) from a single experimental test.
11 These parameters can be used to determine the mass-transfer Biot number
12 (k_D) defined as [22,23]:

$$13 \quad k_D = \frac{k \cdot z_0}{D_{12}} \quad (16)$$

14 Physically, $1/k_D$ represents the ratio of the interfacial resistance ($1/k$) for the
15 mass transfer to the bulk resistance (z_0/D_{12}) for molecular diffusion. For the
16 three experimental temperatures studied, $1/k_D$ ranges from 2.16×10^{-3} to $2.56 \times$
17 10^{-3} , which indicates that the interfacial resistance is smaller than the resistance
18 for molecular diffusion.

19 **6. Conclusions and perspectives**

20 In this study, we reported the development and implementation of Optical Digital
21 Interferometry (ODI) for visualizing and modelling the mass diffusion in the
22 absorption process of ammonia in water. For this purpose, a new experimental
23 setup was implemented that was based on the Pressure Drop Method with
24 interferometric probing using a Mach-Zehnder interferometer. Absorption
25 experiments were performed at infinite dilution of ammonia and 293 K, 303 K,
26 and 313 K. The experimental procedure, the mathematical formalism, and the
27 main image processing steps of the ODI method for visualizing the mass
28 diffusion layer and determining the experimental profiles of the ammonia
29 concentration in the ammonia/water mixture are described in detail.

30 A model based on the 1D Fick's Second Law was used to describe the
31 experimental profiles of ammonia concentration. The mass diffusion model used

1 considered a non-equilibrium boundary condition at the vapour-liquid interface.
2 It was found that the model can successfully reproduce the experimental
3 profiles of the ammonia concentration in the mixture studied. The method
4 developed made it possible to simultaneously determine the mass diffusivity
5 and mass transfer coefficient from a single experimental test. We found that the
6 mass diffusivity of ammonia in water ranged from $1.54 \times 10^{-9} \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$ at 293.1 K
7 to $2.50 \times 10^{-9} \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$ at 313.1 K. The relative deviations between the
8 experimental mass diffusivity and literature values did not exceed 6.0%. The
9 mass transfer coefficient ranged from $2.12 \times 10^{-5} \text{ m s}^{-1}$ at 293.1 K to 4.19×10^{-5}
10 m s^{-1} at 313.1 K.

11 The results obtained in this study show the potential of the method for
12 investigating mass transfer processes in transparent binary mixtures of natural
13 refrigerants with absorbent substances. Optical Digital Interferometry provides
14 new and valuable space-time experimental data on the absorption process,
15 which are useful for developing and validating heat and mass transfer models
16 for designing absorbers and other components in absorption refrigeration
17 systems.

18 **Acknowledgements**

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20 Economy and Competitiveness of Spain and FEDER/UE under the Research
21 project DPI2015-71306-R.

22 **Appendix A: Influence of thermal and other “unwanted” effects** 23 **on the refractive index variations**

24 The absorption process of ammonia vapour in water is known to be exothermic.
25 Thus, the evaluation of the absorption thermal effects is fundamental for the
26 method developed in this study because temperature variations can also induce
27 variations in the refractive index. Furthermore, in vapour-liquid absorption
28 experiments, a critical issue in diffusion measurements is to avoid the
29 appearance of convection currents in the liquid phase. In this appendix, the
30 influence of thermal and other “unwanted” effects on the refractive index
31 variations are considered and analysed.

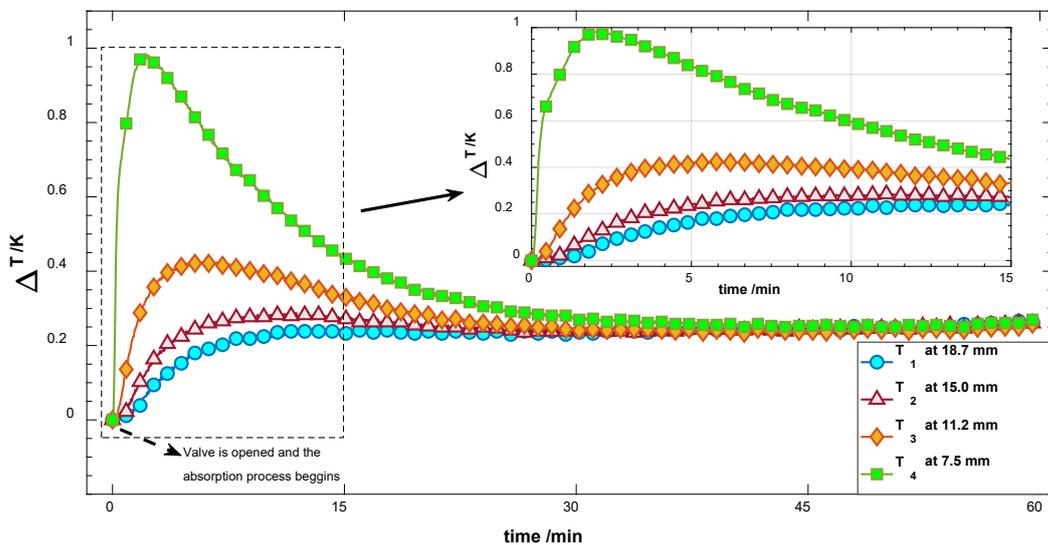
1 At low-to-moderate pressures and a given wavelength λ , the total change in the
 2 refractive index of liquid mixtures includes temperature, $\Delta T(z, t)$, and
 3 concentration, $\Delta C(z, t)$, contributions [10]:

$$4 \quad \Delta n_{\text{Total}}(z, t) = \left(\frac{\partial n}{\partial T}\right)_{C_0, \lambda} \Delta T(z, t) + \left(\frac{\partial n}{\partial C}\right)_{T_0, \lambda} \Delta C(z, t) \quad (\text{A.1})$$

5 where T_0 and C_0 are the temperature concentration at reference time, t_{ref} , and
 6 the derivative terms (called optical contrast factors) represent the variation of
 7 the refractive index with these properties, respectively.

8 **A.1 Influence of thermal effects**

9 Illustratively, the time evolution of the temperature of mixture studied during the
 10 absorption process at 313.1 K is shown in Figure A.1. As can be seen, the
 11 temperature rises immediately after the ammonia vapour and water in the
 12 absorption cell come into contact, reaches a maximum value in a short time,
 13 then gradually decreases, and finally remains constant. Note that the final
 14 temperature was slightly different (around +0.3 K) to the initial temperature of
 15 the experiment. This temperature difference was caused by the limited capacity
 16 of the thermal control system and considered in the uncertainty analysis.



17
 18 *Figure A.1. Time evolution of the temperature rise (ΔT) at different distances from the*
 19 *vapour-liquid interface inside the ammonia/water mixture during the absorption process*
 20 *at 313.1 K. T_1 , T_2 , T_3 , and T_4 , represent the temperature probes located in the*
 21 *absorption cell within the ammonia/water mixture.*

22 Unlike the mass diffusion layer, the thermal layer should not have a "preferred"
 23 direction due to the design of the external thermal control system, which

1 extracts heat from the ammonia/water mixture through all the vertical walls of
2 the absorption cell. Moreover, since the thermal diffusivity is much larger
3 (around 60 times at 313.1 K) than the mass diffusivity for the ammonia/water
4 mixtures studied, the thermal layer should be much larger than the mass
5 diffusion layer. In this sense, Mahmoud et al. [5] found that the thermal layer
6 was between 6.4 and 8.5 times larger than the mass diffusion layer. Thus,
7 depending on the absorption time analysed, the increase in temperature can be
8 considered homogeneous in the observation window. Wylock et al. [7] also
9 reached this conclusion based on numerical simulations for the absorption
10 process of CO₂ in an aqueous solution of NaHCO₃-Na₂CO₃ in a Hele-Shaw cell
11 visualized by digital holographic interferometry.

12 A homogeneous increase in the temperature of the ammonia/water mixture will
13 affect the total value of the change in the refractive index of the mixture but will
14 not disturb the shape of the profiles. In other words, it will affect the value of Δn_0
15 (factor of proportionality in Eq. (13)) but not that of D_{12} (mass diffusivity) and k
16 (mass transfer coefficient). Note that the term in Eq. (13) that depends on D_{12}
17 and k always varies between 0 and 1, while the value of Δn_0 depends on the
18 experimental conditions studied (temperature, concentration, etc.).

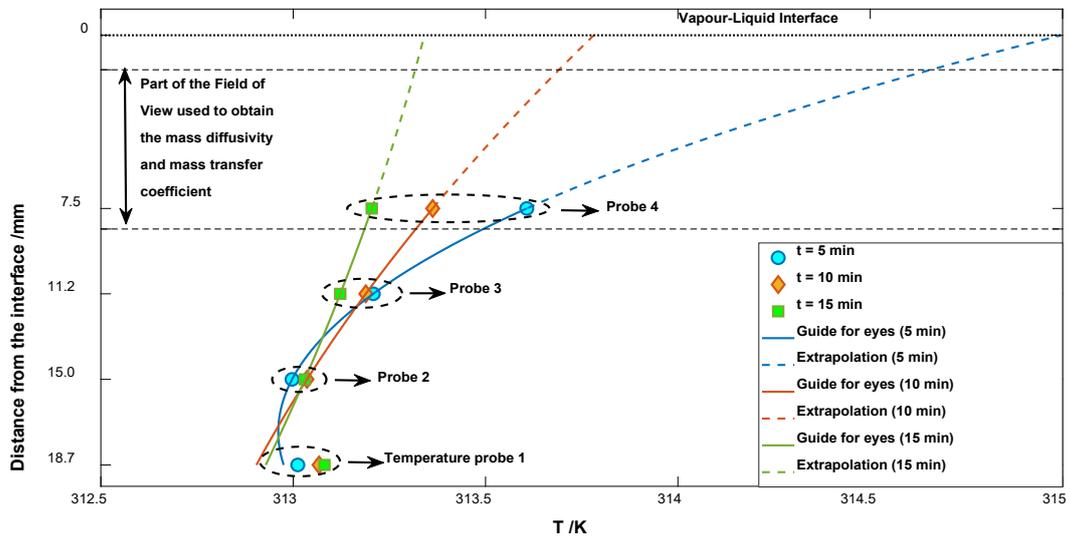
19 To determine the absorption time in which the temperature increase in the
20 observation window can be considered homogeneous, we tentatively used
21 [Figure A.1](#). The observation window was around 8.2 mm from the vapour-liquid
22 interface. Thus, only the temperature probe T₄, located 7.5 mm from the
23 interface, is within the observation window. Nonetheless, the readings of the
24 temperature probes T₁, T₂, and T₃ were useful to get an idea of the thermal
25 homogeneity of the ammonia/water mixture within the absorption cell.

26 As shown in [Figure A.1](#), the greatest temperature variations occur in the first 15
27 minutes of the absorption process. The maximum rise in temperature detected
28 by T₄ was approximately 1 K for an absorption time between 2 and 3 minutes.
29 The extent of temperature rise perceived by probes T₁, T₂, and T₃ located at
30 greater distances from the interface was generally much less and occurred at
31 longer absorption times. For an absorption time of 15 minutes, the difference
32 between T₄ and T₁ (the probes closest and furthest from the interface,
33 respectively) was less than the temperature uncertainty (± 0.3 K). Therefore,

1 after 15 minutes, the temperature of the ammonia/water mixture inside the
2 absorption cell can be considered homogeneous.

3 For absorption times less than 15 minutes, the existing temperature gradient in
4 the ammonia/water mixture could have affected the shape of the refractive
5 index profiles (and consequently, the values of D_{12} and k). Intuitively, the rise in
6 temperature of the ammonia/water mixture can be expected to be greatest near
7 the interface. Nonetheless, after a few seconds, Mustafa [6] observed that the
8 temperature rise at the interface decreased rapidly and was reduced by 60%
9 and 80% for absorption times of 5 and 10 minutes, respectively. Moreover,
10 unlike our experimental setup, the setup used by Mustafa [6] did not include an
11 external thermal control circuit. Therefore, the reduction in temperature rise at
12 the interface for our absorption experiments can be expected to be greater for
13 the same absorption times.

14 To get a rough idea of the extent of the thermal effects on the refractive index
15 change profiles, Figure A.2 shows the measured and extrapolated temperature
16 profiles in the ammonia/water mixture. The extrapolated profiles at a distance
17 from the interface between $0 \text{ mm} < z < 7.5 \text{ mm}$ were obtained from the trend of
18 the measured temperature at a distance between $7.5 \text{ mm} < z < 18.7 \text{ mm}$.



19 *Figure A.2. Measured and extrapolated temperature profiles at three different*
20 *absorption times (5, 10, and 15 minutes) during the absorption process of ammonia*
21 *vapour in water at an initial temperature of 313.1 K.*
22

23 Possible evidence of the adequacy of this extrapolation are:

- 1 • For an absorption time of 5 minutes and an initial temperature of 295 K,
2 the increase in temperature at the interface observed by Mustafa [6] was
3 close to 4 K. However, the heat of absorption of ammonia in water
4 decreases with increasing temperature and therefore the temperature
5 increase should be less for a higher initial temperature. Furthermore, in
6 our experiments it is also necessary to consider the cooling action of the
7 thermal control system. Accordingly, for an absorption time of 5 minutes
8 and an initial temperature of 313.1 K, the extrapolation results, showing
9 an increase in interface temperature of 2 K (Figure A.2), appear to be
10 physically consistent with what can be expected from the results
11 provided by Mustafa [6].
- 12 • For very short absorption times, Mahmoud et al. [5] observed an
13 exponential behaviour of the temperature profile in the ammonia/water
14 mixture. As the absorption process progressed, the temperature profile
15 adopted a linear behaviour. This thermal behaviour is consistent with that
16 shown in Figure A.2.

17 On the assumption that the refractive index variation due to temperature
18 variation for the wavelength used ($\lambda = 632.8$ nm) and the studied mixtures
19 (infinitely dilute ammonia/water solutions) can be estimated using the
20 relationship found in Wylock et al. [7]:

$$21 \quad \left(\frac{\partial n}{\partial T}\right)_{c_0, \lambda} = -0.985 \times 10^{-4} K \quad (A.2)$$

22 the extent of the thermal effects on the refractive index change (Δn_T) was
23 calculated as:

$$24 \quad \Delta n_T(z, t) = \left(\frac{\partial n}{\partial T}\right)_{c_0, \lambda} \Delta T(z, t) \quad (A.3)$$

25 The values of Δn_T in the observation window were 1.14×10^{-4} , 0.36×10^{-4} , and
26 0.13×10^{-4} for absorption times of 5, 10, and 15 minutes, respectively. These
27 values represented the 39.1%, 7.9%, and 2.5% of the total change (Δn_{Total}) in
28 the refractive index observed in our experiments. Thus, for an absorption time
29 of 5 minutes, the refractive index profiles can be expected to "deform" near the
30 vapour-liquid interface (please, see Figure 6) since the share ($\Delta n_T / \Delta n_{Total}$) of
31 the thermal effects was higher there. For absorption times between 5 and 10

1 minutes, this share was reduced five times. For absorption times greater than
2 10 minutes, the change in refractive index due to temperature variation was one
3 order of magnitude lower than the total change in the refractive index. Thus, we
4 can conclude that the thermal effects on the refractive index fields varied over
5 time, although they are significant at the beginning of the absorption process,
6 they can be neglected after a certain absorption time.

7 Based on the above, we have selected suitable intervals of absorption time to
8 extract quantitative information from the raw experimental results. For example,
9 the refractive index change profiles observed for absorption times less than 5
10 minutes were always excluded in the regression procedure to determine the
11 mass diffusivity (D_{12}) and mass transfer coefficient (k). This is because the
12 thermal effects on the refractive index were greater in this interval of absorption
13 times. For absorption times between 5 and 10 minutes, the contribution of
14 thermal effects to the total change in the refractive index was still significant.
15 Despite this, the contribution of thermal effects was much smaller than those
16 related to changes in concentration. In addition, in the determination of D_{12} and
17 k , many more profiles corresponding to absorption times greater than 10
18 minutes were used. Therefore, in the present study, this marginal contribution of
19 thermal effects to the total change in the refractive index of the ammonia/water
20 mixture was considered in the uncertainty of the reported results.

21 **A.2 Influence of other effects**

22 In addition to thermal effects, other “*unwanted*” effects may cause variations in
23 the refractive index of the ammonia/water mixture. For example, the
24 evaporation of water can induce surface tension gradients along the interface
25 that ultimately lead to a surface driven flow, known as Marangoni convection
26 [29]. Marangoni convection in the ammonia/water absorption process
27 with/without heat transfer additives has been studied using holographic
28 interferometry by Kang and Kashiwagi [4]. The authors observed Marangoni
29 convection near the vapour-liquid interface only in the cases with heat transfer
30 additive. In perfect compliance with the above, here, no Marangoni convection
31 was observed in any of the experiments performed.

1 The absorption process of ammonia in water always led to a decrease in the
2 density of the liquid phase. Therefore, density-driven natural convection did not
3 occur in our experiments either. It is important to note that this is not the general
4 case, and the possible occurrence of convective currents must be investigated
5 before using the method developed to study the absorption process if the mass
6 diffusivity for a particular mixture is to be determined.

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