

## Transport phenomena, thermodynamic analyses, and mathematical modelling of okra convective cabinet-tray drying at different drying conditions

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### Abstract

Okra is a vegetable that is highly consumed for its nutritive and health benefits. Due to its highly perishable nature, it is often subjected to hot air drying to increase the shelf-life. Hence, the drying kinetics, moisture diffusivity, heat and mass transfer coefficient, total and specific energy consumption, and exergy (exergetic efficiency, exergetic improvement potential rate, and exergetic sustainability index) are essential parameters required for the drying system design. This study was therefore focused on okra drying data generation for the determination and evaluation of these parameters. The major goal was to utilize the generated data for the development of an innovative process model that can find application in dryer design. A self-designed laboratory cabinet-tray dryer was used for the drying at different drying conditions (temperature (40-70 °C), air velocity (0.5-2.0 m/s), and relative humidity (60-75%)). The obtained results showed that the effective moisture diffusivity ranged from  $2.59 \times 10^{-10}$  -  $7.50 \times 10^{-10}$  m<sup>2</sup>/s while the heat and mass transfer coefficient varied from 1.24-8.07 W/m<sup>2</sup>K and  $1.61 \times 10^{-7}$ - $18.3 \times 10^{-7}$  m/s over the drying conditions range, respectively. The energy consumption increased with increasing air velocity, temperature, and relative humidity. The exergy loss rate was higher at higher air velocity, temperature, and relative humidity. The energy and exergetic efficiencies respectively varied from 0.78-4.67% and 65.12-84.96% over the drying conditions range. The exergetic improvement potential rate and the exergetic sustainability index of the drying chamber varied from 0.013-0.201 kW and 2.86-6.65, respectively. An innovative multiple linear regression-Biot-Lag factor model was developed.

**Keywords:** Bi-G model, Drying conditions, Energy and exergy analyses, Moisture diffusivity, Multiple linear regression model, Okra drying

### Nomenclature

$A_{CS}$	Tray cross-sectional area (m <sup>2</sup> )	ESI	Exergetic sustainability index
ANOVA	Analysis of variance	$Fo$	Fourier number
$Bi$	Biot number (dimensionless)	$G$	Lag factor
$b_0$	Regression constant in multiple linear regression model	HDT	Half-drying time
$b_1, b_2$ and $b_3$	Coefficients of the parameters in multiple linear regression model	$h_c$	Heat transfer coefficient (W/m <sup>2</sup> K)
$C_p$	Specific heat for pure components of okra	$h_{dai}$	Enthalpy of the inflow air
$C_{pda}$	Specific heat capacity of air (kJ/kgK)	$h_{dao}$	Enthalpy of the outflow air
$C_{pm}$	Specific heat of wet food material	$h_{Lv}$	Latent heat of vaporization (kJ/kg)
$D_{eff}$	Effective moisture diffusivity	$h_f$ and $h_g$	Enthalpy of saturated water and vapor, respectively
$EU$	Energy utilization (kJ/s)	$K_m$	Mass transfer coefficient (m/s)
$E_{Total}$	Total energy consumption (MJ)	$L$	Half-thickness or diameter of sample (m)
$E_{Specific}$	Specific energy consumption (MJ/kg)	LSD	Least significance difference
$ex$	Specific exergy (kJ/kg)	$Le$	Lewis number
$\dot{E}x$	Exergy rate (kJ/s or kW)	$M_0$	Moisture content in kg/kg at time $t = 0$
$Ex_{inflow}$	Exergy inflow rate (kJ/s or kW)	$M_t$	Moisture content in kg/kg at time $t = t$
$Ex_{outflow}$	Exergy outflow rate (kJ/s or kW)	$M_{eq}$	Moisture content in kg/kg at equilibrium
$Ex_{Loss}$	Exergy loss rate (kJ/s or kW)	MR	Normalized moisture content or dimensionless moisture ratio
EIP	Exergetic improvement potential	$\dot{m}$	Mass flow rate (kg/s)

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**Nomenclature** (continued)

$m_{da}$	Mass flow rate of the drying air	$T_{\infty}$	Reference or surrounding temperature
$m_w$	Mass of moisture evaporated (kg)	$V$	Air velocity (m/s)
OFAT	One factor-at-a time	$W_p$	Weight of dried product (kg)
$P$	Ambient atmospheric pressure (kPa).	$X$	Mass fraction of the pure components in okra
Pr	Prandtl number (dimensionless)	$X_1, X_2 \text{ and } X_3$	Independent variables representing temperature, air velocity, and relative humidity, respectively.
$P_{SV}$	Saturated vapor pressure (kPa)	$X_{mean}$	Mean or average of the measurements
$Q_w$	Energy consumption for moisture evaporation (kJ)	$x_{wv}^o$	Mole fraction of water vapour in air
$Q_{sp}$	Energy utilized for heating the sample (kJ)	$\partial X_i$	Measurement uncertainty
$R_{da} \text{ and } R_{wv}$	Gas law constant for drying air and water vapor (kJ/kgK), respectively.	$Y$	Response variable
$R^2$	Correlation coefficient or coefficient of determination	<b>Greek Symbols</b>	
$RH$	Relative humidity (%)	$\rho_{da}$	Air density (kg/m <sup>3</sup> )
$S$	Drying coefficient	$\eta_D$	Drying efficiency (%)
$Sc$	Schmidt number (dimensionless)	$\eta_E$	Energy efficiency (%)
$S_f \text{ and } S_g$	Entropy for saturated water and vapor, respectively	$\eta_{Ex}$	Exergy efficiency (%)
$T_{abs}$	Absolute temperature (K)	$K_{Tm}$	Thermal conductivity (W/mK)
$T_{da}$	Temperature of the drying air (K)	$\phi$	Thermal diffusivity (m <sup>2</sup> /s)
$T_i$	Inlet temperature of food material (K)	$\mu_1$	Characteristic root (dimensionless)
$T_o$	Outlet temperature of food material (K)	$W$	Specific humidity (kg water/kg air)

**1. Introduction**

Okra (*Hibiscus/Abelmoschus esculentus*) is one of the most important fruit and vegetable that is largely cultivated in tropical and warmer parts of temperate countries for its nutritive, health, and economic benefits [1, 2]. It is a good source of macro- and micro-nutrients [2, 3]. It can be consumed either as a fresh vegetable, cooked vegetable or as snacks and additives in stews, soups, and salads [4]. Most okra are commercially sold as fresh vegetable without any form of processing. Besides being consumed at the natural form, there are other products that can be derived from okra pods, such as oil, juice, dried products, and concentrated okra powders. Most fruit and vegetables like okra contain more than 80% moisture or water and are therefore highly perishable. Hence, to prolong the shelf life of the food materials there is the need to reduce the water activity to a very low level where microbial growth and enzymatic reactions are inhibited [5]. This reduction is achieved through the process of drying or dehydration. Drying is an ancient traditional technology of fruit and vegetables preservation.

Drying is a complex, unsteady, nonlinear, and dynamic energy-intensive unit operation process involving simultaneous heat and mass transfer (i.e. transport phenomena) in a solid material that results in a moisture removal [1]. In accordance with temperature and moisture gradient, heat is transferred or transported by convection from the drying air to the surface of the food material and then by conduction to the food material interior while moisture is transported by diffusion from the interior to the surface and from the surface by convection to the air medium [6]. From the view point of engineering, it is of importance to develop a better understanding of the engineering parameters controlling this complex drying process. These engineering parameters which includes specific heat, moisture diffusivity, heat and mass transfer coefficients, thermal conductivity, and energy consumption and their accurate determination are essential and crucial to the precise development of mathematical models and design of drying equipment [7]. Several mathematical models which are either simple or complex [8] have been developed and proposed for designing new and/or improving existing drying systems. These models can be classified as theoretical, semi-theoretical, and empirical [9]. Despite the use of some of these complex models to predict some of these engineering parameters for various food products, simple models that can be verified by experimental data are more applicable to produce solutions that are optimum for the drying process [9].

Furthermore, thermodynamics analysis and more particularly energy and exergy analyses, have become an essential and powerful tool for the design of systems and evaluation as well as for thermal systems optimization [10]. From the view point of the first law of thermodynamics, energy can neither be created nor destroyed while according to the second law of thermodynamics, exergy can be destroyed or consumed within the system due to irreversibility [11, 12]. Energy analysis is based on energy conservation principle and it involves quantitative evaluation of the energy quantity required for drying and the associated energy losses within the system during drying process [13]. However, energy analysis does not provide information on the energy irreversibility and the qualities of the different energy within the system [12]. These problems are overcome with the use of exergy analysis. Exergy is the maximum quantity of work or energy that can be produced by a system from stream or flow of matter or heat when it comes to equilibrium with the surrounding environment [12, 14]. It is a measure of energy quality that can be destroyed in the system [12]. Thus exergy analysis helps to estimate or evaluate the quantity of available energy at different points or locations as well as help to determine types, magnitudes, and location of energy losses in a system [15]. Thermodynamics analysis (energy and exergy analyses) have been carried out on the drying of some food products such as convective tray drying of olive leaves [10], microwave drying of soybean [7], fluidized bed drying of eggplant [16], mixed flow drying of maize grain [17], and column drying of walnut [18].

With regards to drying conditions, quite a number of researchers have investigated the effects of drying air temperature on the transport phenomena of food drying such as effective moisture diffusivity [5, 19-21], mass transfer coefficient [22-27], and heat transfer coefficient [9, 22-25] for agricultural-food materials. In addition, many workers have investigated the effect of air drying velocity on moisture diffusivity [20, 28, 29] while very few workers have evaluated the effect of air velocity on mass transfer coefficient [22, 23] and heat transfer coefficient [9, 22, 23, 30] as well as the effect of relative humidity on effective moisture diffusivity [28, 29, 31, 32], mass transfer coefficient [22, 31], and heat transfer coefficient [22]. Furthermore, only few number of researchers have evaluated the

effects of both drying air velocity and temperature on the thermodynamics such as energy and exergy consumption or utilization of agricultural and food products drying using drying equipment such as mixed flow dryer [17], solar hybrid dryer [33], convective tray dryer [10, 11], while very few workers have evaluated the effect of relative humidity on energy consumption [31, 34] and exergetic efficiency [35].

However, with reference to okra being highly perishable due to its high moisture or water content [3], several researchers have investigated its drying characteristics at varying temperatures [1-3, 13, 36, 37], sample size or thickness [1, 37], and varying velocities [2] using hot-air dryer. Afolabi and Agarry [1] and Olajire et al. [37] have respectively investigated the effects of temperature and sample thickness on the drying kinetics, effective moisture diffusivity and activation energy of okra using open sun, solar, and oven drying. Kumar et al. [2] utilizing a convective microwave oven evaluated the effects of temperature, air velocity, and microwave power on specific energy consumption and quality of okra. Nwakuba et al. [13] evaluated the effects of temperature, air velocity, and sample size on the specific energy consumption by okra under convective tray drying. Ouedraogo et al. [38] used an indirect solar dryer to determine the effect of different types of cuts or shapes on the mass transfer coefficient of okra. Nevertheless, this detailed literature review in this current study has revealed that there is very limited information on the effects of drying process conditions on effective moisture diffusivity, mass transfer coefficients, and energy consumption of okra drying; while to the best of our knowledge there are no literature data on the effects of temperature, air velocity, and relative humidity on heat transfer coefficient and exergy parameters of cabinet-tray drying of okra. Moreover, the range of relative humidity that has mostly been studied as a drying condition in the drying of food products as observed from literature lies between 10 and 60% [29, 31, 32, 39-41]. In this study, the authors would investigate the effect of higher values of relative humidity that ranges from 60 to 75% at a fixed high drying air temperature and air velocity which have seldom been studied.

Therefore, due to these available research gaps observed from the detailed literature review, the objectives of this study are to: (1) determine the transport phenomena parameters (i.e. drying coefficients, lag factor, effective moisture diffusivity, heat and mass transfer coefficients) for cabinet-tray drying of okra; (2) provide the thermodynamic (energy and exergy) analyses of convective cabinet-tray drying of okra; (3) evaluate the effects of drying air temperature, air velocity, and relative humidity on the transport phenomena and thermodynamic parameters in (1) and (2) above; and (4) provide mathematical models for the transport phenomena and thermodynamic parameters as functions of drying process conditions (drying air temperature, air velocity, and relative humidity).

## 2. Materials and methods

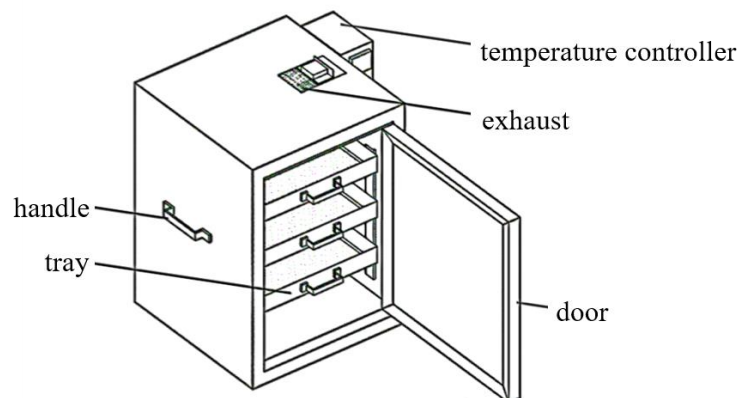
### 2.1 Materials

Fresh okra samples used for this study were purchased from a local market at Idi-Oro (6.5219° N, 3.3565° E), Lagos State of South-West Nigeria. The samples were sorted out and those of similar size, shape and color were selected and kept in a refrigerator at 4°C prior to drying. The okra samples were brought out from the refrigerator and stored in the ambient temperature of the laboratory for some hours to achieve equilibrium temperature with the environment before drying was performed.

### 2.2 Methods

#### 2.2.1 Okra drying procedure

The fresh okra samples with an average moisture content of 86.05% were sliced into a 2 mm thickness. Sliced okra samples of 1 kg were weighed using a digital precision analytical weighing balance (Sartorius Secura 1103-1Sar, Germany) and loaded into a clean tray of the cabinet dryer. The cabinet-tray dryer (Figure 1) has a dimension of 65 cm x 55 cm x 90 cm.



**Figure 1** A cabinet-tray dryer for the drying of okra slices

The dryer is made up of three sections, the energy source (electricity), air blower, and the drying tray sections. The energy source is located behind the dryer while the blower with a power rating of 0.5 horse power is located in the middle of the drying chamber. The blower helps in circulating heat for an effective and efficient heat flow rate within the drying chamber. Humidification of the air entering into the drying chamber was manually done using a water aerosol (i.e. 1 L water trigger sprayer (Sprayon Model SO-075)) [42] operated behind the air-blower until the desired relative air humidity was attained. A dual-testing instrument (PCE- 555 Model, Southampton, United Kingdom) that measures both relative humidity and temperature was used for both the relative humidity and temperature measurement. The velocity of the air in meters per second (m/s) delivered by the air-blower was measured with the use of a hot-wire anemometer (PCE-009 Model, Southampton, United Kingdom) linked to the air-blower. The inside and outside temperature

of the dryer was checked using a mercury thermometer. After the okra loading, the dryer was heated to the required drying temperature before the tray was placed into the dryer chamber. The okra drying was carried out (using one factor-at a-time (OFAT) procedure) at a temperature range of 40-70 °C, air velocity range of 0.5-2 m/s, and a relative humidity of 60-75%, respectively. At intervals of 30 min, the samples were withdrawn to measure the weight until a constant weight was achieved. The proximate analysis (i.e. moisture, protein, carbohydrate, fat, fiber, and ash contents) was performed according to standard method [43]. The experimental procedures and measurements were carried out in triplicates and the mean or average measured values were applied. The composition of okra was found to be as follows: moisture content (86.05%), protein (2.51%), carbohydrate (7.39%), fat (0.46%), ash (1.17%), and fiber (2.41%).

### 2.2.2 Determination of moisture ratio and effective moisture diffusivity

Moisture diffusion in agricultural-food products during drying is a complex dynamic transport process that may involve surface diffusion, molecular diffusion, capillary flow, and Knudsen flow [44]. However, when all these diffusion phenomena are combined into one, then the effective moisture diffusivity is obtained ( $D_{eff}$ ) which can be utilized instead of moisture diffusivity [44]. Thus the effective moisture diffusivity ( $D_{eff}$ ) is generally accepted as an important kinetics parameter that can describe moisture transport or transfer from the material to the surrounding environment in the falling rate period. In determining the effective moisture diffusivity, the okra slices were considered as an infinite slab or rectangular and the following assumptions were made: (1) the thermo-physical properties of the drying air medium and sample are constant, (2) effect of the transfer of heat on the mass or moisture transfer is negligible, (3) there are both internal and external resistances to the moisture diffusion within the sample (i.e.  $0 < Bi < 100$ ), and (4) moisture diffusivity occurs in a unidirectional form along the thickness of the slab. With the above stated conditions, a one-dimensional rectangular coordinates of the time-dependent moisture diffusivity equation can be written as follows:

$$\frac{\partial M}{\partial z} = \frac{1}{D_{eff}} \frac{\partial M}{\partial t} \quad (1)$$

Where  $M = M_t - M_{eq}$  having an initial and a boundary conditions of:

$$M(z, 0) = M_0 = \text{Cons} \tan t$$

$$\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial z} M(0, t)\right) = 0 \text{ at } z = 0$$

$$-D_{eff} \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial z} M(L, t)\right) = K(M(L, t) - M_0) \text{ at } z = L$$

The solution to the moisture transfer governing Eq. (1) is given as follows [45]:

$$MR = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n B_n \text{ For } 0 < Bi < 100 \text{ and } Bi > 100 \quad (2)$$

Where  $MR$  is the normalized moisture content or dimensionless moisture ratio and is expressed as given in Eq. (3):

$$MR = \frac{M_t - M_{eq}}{M_0 - M_{eq}} \quad (3)$$

Where  $M_0$ ,  $M_t$  and  $M_{eq}$  are the moisture content in kg/kg at time  $t = 0$ ,  $t = t$  and equilibrium moisture content, respectively. Eq. (2) can be simplified when the values of the Fourier number is very small and thus negligible (i.e.  $Fo < 0.2$ ). That means the period of constant rate is neglected and therefore the first term in Eq. (2) is used to approximate the infinite sum and expressed as follows [45]:

$$MR = A_1 B_1 \quad (4)$$

$$\text{Where } A_1 = \exp\left(\frac{0.2533Bi}{1.3+Bi}\right) \quad (5)$$

$$B_1 = \exp(-\mu_1^2 Fo) \quad (6)$$

The dimensionless moisture ratio in Eq. (4) can be written in exponential form in terms of drying coefficient ( $S$ ) and lag factor ( $G$ ) as given in Eq. (7) [31, 45]:

$$MR = G \exp(-St) \quad (7)$$

The drying coefficient ( $S$ ) and lag factor ( $G$ ) can be obtained from the non-linear regression of moisture ratio and time using the least-square curve fitting method [31]. Equations (4) and (7) are in the same form and can therefore be equated to each other with  $G=A_1$  and  $\exp(-St) = B_1$ .

$$\text{Where } A_1 = \exp\left(\frac{0.2533Bi}{1.3+Bi}\right) \quad (8)$$

Therefore Eq. (4) becomes:

$$MR = \exp\left(\frac{0.2533Bi}{1.3+Bi}\right) * \exp(-St) \quad (9)$$

Where  $B_i$  is Biot number (dimensionless).

The effective moisture diffusivity ( $D_{eff}$ ) in  $m^2/s$  can be deduced using Eq. (10) [31]:

$$D_{eff} = \frac{SL^2}{\mu_1^2} \quad (10)$$

Where  $S$  the drying coefficient ( $s^{-1}$ ) is,  $L$  is the half-thickness or diameter of sample (m), and  $\mu_1$  is the characteristic root or coefficient that depends on the sample geometry (dimensionless). For a slab geometry,  $\mu_1$  can be calculated using Eq. (11) [31]:

$$\mu_1 = -419.24G^4 + 210.38G^3 - 3615.58G^2 + 288.03G - 858.94 \quad (11)$$

### 2.2.3 Determination of convective heat and mass transfer coefficients

To determine the heat and mass transfer of agricultural-food products based on the transport phenomena theory of diffusion, the following assumptions were made [24]: (1) the drying air temperature and the initial moisture content of the agricultural-food product is uniform, (2) the heat and mass transfer coefficients are isentropic, homogeneous, and constant, and (3) the interaction effect between the heat and moisture transport is negligible. The convective heat and mass transfer coefficients are correlated by the dimensionless Lewis number ( $Le$ ) as expressed in Eq. (12) [27]:

$$\frac{h_c}{K_m} = \rho_{da} C_{pda} Le^{1-n} = \rho_{da} C_{pda} \left( \frac{Sc}{Pr} \right)^{1-n} \quad (12)$$

Where  $h_c$  is the heat transfer coefficient ( $W/m^2 K$ ),  $K_m$  is the mass transfer coefficient (m/s),  $\rho_{da}$  is the air density ( $kg/m^3$ ),  $C_{pda}$  is the specific heat capacity of air ( $kJ/kgK$ ),  $Sc$  is Schmidt number (dimensionless), and  $Pr$  is Prandtl number (dimensionless). Eq. (12) is utilized to characterize the flow of fluid when heat and mass transfer occurs throughout the period of convection. It can be used for both laminar and turbulent flow and for most applications the value of  $n$  is taken as 0.33.

The convective mass transfer coefficient,  $K_m$  (m/s) was calculated from the correlation between the effective moisture diffusivity and dimensionless Biot number ( $Bi$ ) (Eq. (13)) as presented by Ju et al. [31].

$$K_m = \frac{Bi D_{eff}}{L} \quad (13)$$

The Biot number can be obtained from the correlation between Biot number and the lag factor,  $G$  given in Eq. (14) [46]:

$$Bi = 0.0576G^{26.7} \quad (14)$$

The Lewis number is obtained using Eq. (15) [25]:

$$Le = \frac{Sc}{Pr} = \frac{\phi}{D_{eff}} \quad (15)$$

Where ( $\phi$ ) ( $m^2/s$ ) is the thermal diffusivity that can be obtained using Eq. (16) [25]:

$$\phi = \frac{k_{Tm}}{\rho_{da} C_{pm}} \quad (16)$$

Where  $k_{Tm}$  is thermal conductivity ( $W/mK$ ) and  $C_{pm}$  is the specific heat of wet food material.

The specific heat for okra was determined using the equations proposed by Choi and Okos [47] with the specific heat of pure components expressed as given in Eq. (17) [46]:

$$C_{pm} = \sum (C_{pwater}X_w + C_{pprotein}X_p + C_{pcarb}X_c + C_{pfat}X_f + C_{pash}X_a + C_{pfiber}X_{fi}) \quad (17)$$

Where,  $C_p$  is the specific heat for the pure components of okra and  $X$  is the mass fraction of the components.

The thermal conductivity,  $k_{Tm}$  was deduced from the equations developed by Choi and Okos [47] with the thermal conductivity of pure components given as:

$$k_{Tm} = \sum (k_{Twater}X_w + k_{Tprotein}X_p + k_{Tcarb}X_c + k_{Tfat}X_f + k_{Tash}X_a + k_{Tfiber}X_{fi}) \quad (18)$$

$\rho_{da}$  varies with temperature and hence can be determined using Eq. (19) [48]:

$$\rho_{da} = \frac{101.325}{0.287T_{abs}} \quad (19)$$

Where,  $T_{abs}$  = absolute temperature (K).

The specific heat capacity of inlet air was estimated based on the specific humidity of air using Eq. (20) [49]:

$$C_{pda} = 1.004 + 1.88w \quad (20)$$

The specific humidity ( $w$ ) was calculated utilizing Eq. (21) [17]:

$$w = 0.622 \left( \frac{RH \times P_{sv}}{P - (RH \times P_{sv})} \right) \quad (21)$$

Where,  $RH$  = relative humidity (%),  $P_{sv}$  = saturated vapor pressure (kPa), and,  $P$  = ambient atmospheric pressure (kPa).

The saturated vapor pressure was estimated using Eq. (22) [17]:

$$P_{sv} = 0.1 \exp \left( 27.014 - \frac{6887}{T_{abs}} - 5.31 \ln \left( \frac{T_{abs}}{273.16} \right) \right) \quad (22)$$

#### 2.2.4 First law of thermodynamics: energy consumption and efficiency

Estimation of the energy utilization ( $EU$ ) in kilojoule per second (kJ/s) can be deduced from Eq. (23) based on the first law of thermodynamics [16, 17]:

$$EU = \dot{m}_{da}(h_{dai} - h_{dao}) \quad (23)$$

Where,  $\dot{m}_{da}$  mass flow rate of the drying air,  $h_{dai}$  is enthalpy of the inflow air and,  $h_{dao}$  is enthalpy of the outflow air.

The mass flow rate of the drying air can be obtained using Eq. (24) [16]:

$$\dot{m}_{da} = \rho_{da} \times V \times A_{CS} \quad (24)$$

Where,  $\rho_{da}$  = air density (kg/m<sup>3</sup>);  $V$  = air velocity (m/s); and  $A_{CS}$  = tray cross-sectional area (m<sup>2</sup>).

The enthalpy of the drying moist air can be deduced using Eq. (25) [17]:

$$h = C_{pda}[T_{da} - T_{\infty}] + wh_{Lv} \quad (25)$$

Where,  $C_{pda}$  is the specific heat capacity of air (kJ/kgK),  $T_{da}$  is the temperature of the drying air (K),  $T_{\infty}$  is the reference or surrounding temperature,  $w$  is the specific humidity (absolute humidity or humidity ratio) of drying air (kg water/kg dry air), and  $h_{Lv}$  is the latent heat of vaporization (kJ/kg).

Therefore, the total energy consumption ( $E_{Total}$ ) in MJ is obtained using Eq. (26):

$$E_{Total} = EU \times t \quad (26)$$

The specific energy consumption ( $E_{Specific}$ ) for evaporating a unit mass (1 kg) of moisture from the okra sample was obtained using Eq. (27) [18]:

$$E_{Specific} = \frac{E_{Total}}{m_w} \quad (27)$$

Where,  $E_{Specific}$  = specific energy consumption (MJ/kg) and  $m_w$  = mass of moisture evaporated (kg).

Energy efficiency ( $\eta_E$ ) being the ratio of the energy utilized for moisture evaporation from the sample to the total energy consumption by the sample was calculated using Eq. (28) [48]:

$$\eta_E = \frac{Q_{mw}}{E_{Total}} \quad (28)$$

Where  $Q_{mw}$  is the energy consumption for moisture evaporation (kJ). This can be calculated using Eq. (29) [48]:

$$Q_{mw} = h_{Lv} \times m_w \quad (29)$$

Where  $h_{Lv}$  is the latent heat of vaporization (kJ/kg) and  $m_w$  is the mass of moisture evaporated (kg).

Drying efficiency ( $\eta_D$ ) being the ratio of the sum of energy consumed for heating the sample and energy consumed for moisture evaporation, to the total energy consumption for drying the sample. This can be determined using Eq. (30) [48]:

$$\eta_D = \frac{Q_{sp} + Q_{mw}}{E_{Total}} \quad (30)$$

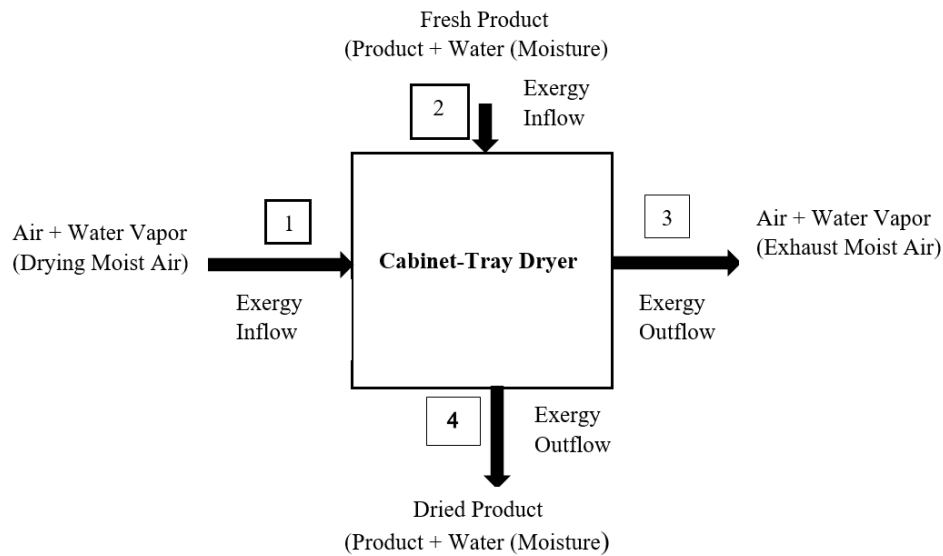
Where  $Q_{sp}$ , the energy utilized for heating the sample (kJ) and can be calculated using Eq. (31):

$$Q_{sp} = W_p C_{pm}(T_o - T_i) \quad (31)$$

$W_p$  is the weight of the dried product (kg), and  $T_i$  and  $T_o$  are the inlet and outlet temperature of food material (K), respectively.

2.2.5 Second law of thermodynamics: exergy analysis

There are variations of exergy equations. The equation terms can be developed from the use of internal energy, entropy, work, kinetic energy, potential energy, chemical energy, mechanical energy, electrical energy, radiation, magnetic fields, mass diffusion and, heat energy [50]. Figure 2 illustrates the schematic diagram of the convective hot air drying process that occurs in the drying chamber, indicating inlet and outlet terms.



**Figure 2** Schematic diagram of the convective hot air drying process with inlet and outlet terms

To write the exergy balance equations for the cabinet-tray dryer shown in Figure 2, three components such as the drying moist air, product, and moisture or water which exits with the drying air (exhaust moist air) and product were considered. In writing the exergy equation for the above cabinet-tray drying system, the following assumptions were made:

- (1) The mass flow rate of drying air entering into the drying chamber is equal to the mass flow rate of exhaust air exiting from the drying chamber.
- (2) The thermal or heat energy distribution is uniform throughout the drying chamber.
- (3) The moisture gradient that occurs due to moisture evaporation is negligible.
- (4) The drying air exiting from the drying chamber is in thermal equilibrium with the okra.
- (5) The effects of kinetic and potential energies of the system or flow of materials are negligible with no chemical and nuclear reactions of the material.
- (6) The change in the pressure of drying air entering the drying chamber and the pressure of exhaust air leaving the drying chamber is negligible.

The specific exergy for steady flow systems based on the Figure 2 was expressed as follows [35]:

$$ex = C_{pda}(T - T_{\infty}) - T_{\infty} \left\{ C_{pda} \ln \left( \frac{T}{T_{\infty}} \right) \right\} \tag{32a}$$

Where,  $ex$  = specific exergy (kJ/kg),  $C_{pda}$  is the specific heat capacity of the air (kJ/kg K), and  $T_{\infty}$  is the reference or surrounding temperature.

The rate of exergy ( $\dot{E}x$ ) (kJ/s or kW) was expressed as given in Eq. (32b):

$$\dot{E}x = \dot{m} \times ex \tag{32b}$$

Where  $\dot{m}$  = mass flow rate (kg/s).

Therefore, the exergy inflow and exergy outflow rates based on Figure 2 can be expressed as follows:

$$\dot{E}x_{in} = \dot{m}_{da}ex_1 + \dot{m}_{mp}(ex_{mp})_2 + (\dot{m}_{wc})_2(ex_{wc})_2 \tag{33a}$$

$$\dot{E}x_{out} = \dot{m}_{da}ex_3 + \dot{m}_{mp}(ex_{mp})_4 + (\dot{m}_{wc})_4(ex_{wc})_4 \tag{33b}$$

Employing Eq. (33b), and taking into account the moisture associated with the drying air (i.e. moist air), moist or wet product, and the water content, the exergy inflow and exergy outflow can be obtained depending on the inlet and outlet temperatures and levels of relative humidity (or humidity ratios) of the drying chamber. The specific exergy for the drying air (moist air), okra (fresh and dried), and moisture content can be obtained utilizing Eq. (34a), Eq. (34b), Eq. (34(c)-(e)), and Eq. (34f), respectively.

$$ex_1 = ex_{dci} = (C_{pda} + w_1 C_{pww})(T_1 - T_\infty) - T_\infty (C_{pda} + w_1 C_{pww}) \ln \left( \frac{T_1}{T_\infty} \right) + T_\infty \left\{ (R_{da} + w_1 R_{wv}) \ln \left( \frac{1+1.6078w_1^\infty}{1+1.6078w_1} \right) + 1.6978w_1 R_{da} \ln \left( \frac{w_1}{w_1^\infty} \right) \right\} \quad (34a)$$

The specific exergy associated with exhaust moist air or humid air exiting from the drying chamber is given as:

$$ex_3 = ex_{dco} = (C_{pda} + w_3 C_{pww})(T_3 - T_\infty) - T_\infty (C_{pda} + w_3 C_{pww}) \ln \left( \frac{T_3}{T_\infty} \right) + T_\infty \left\{ (R_{da} + w_3 R_{wv}) \ln \left( \frac{1+1.6078w_3^\infty}{1+1.6078w_3} \right) + 1.6078w_3 R_{da} \ln \left( \frac{w_3}{w_3^\infty} \right) \right\} \quad (34b)$$

Specific exergy for the moist fresh and dried okra product is given as:

$$ex_{mp} = [(H - H^o) - T(S - S^o)] = [\hat{H}_p(T, P) - \hat{H}_p(T_\infty, P_\infty)] - T_\infty [S_p(T, P) - S_p(T_\infty, P_\infty)] \quad (34c)$$

$$\text{Where } (H - H^o) = \int_{T_\infty}^T C_{pm} dT = C_{pm}(T - T_\infty) \quad (34d)$$

$$\text{and } (S - S^o) = \int_{T_\infty}^T \frac{C_{pm}}{T} dT = C_{pm} \ln \left( \frac{T}{T_\infty} \right) \quad (34e)$$

Specific exergy for moisture content is presented in Eq. (34f):

$$ex_{wc} = \left[ [h_f(T) - h_g(T_\infty)] - [T_\infty (S_f(T) - S_g(T_\infty))] \right] + T_\infty R_{wv} \ln \left( \frac{T_\infty}{x_{wv}^o} \right) \quad (34f)$$

Where  $h_f$  and  $h_g$  is the enthalpy of saturated water and vapor, respectively;  $S_f$  and  $S_g$  is the entropy for saturated water and vapor, respectively;  $x_{wv}^o$  is the mole fraction of water vapor in air;  $R_{da}$  and  $R_{wv}$  is the gas law constant for drying air and water vapour (kJ/kgK), respectively.

Exergy loss represents the irreversible exergy transfer from a system to its external surroundings or it is the non-useable energy flow that is discharged into the environment. The exergy losses in the drying chamber can be calculated using Eq. (35) [50]:

Exergy Loss = Exergy Inflow – Exergy Outflow

$$\sum \dot{Ex}_{Loss} = \sum \dot{Ex}_{inflow} - \sum \dot{Ex}_{outflow} \quad (35)$$

Where  $\dot{Ex}_{inflow}$ ,  $\dot{Ex}_{outflow}$  and  $\dot{Ex}_{Loss}$  are the exergy inflow rate (kJ/s or kW), exergy outflow rate (kJ/s or kW), and rate of exergy loss (kJ/s or kW), respectively.

The exergy efficiency ( $\eta_{Ex}$ ) is defined as the ratio of the exergy losses (i.e. used exergy in the product drying) and the exergy inflow or input (i.e. drying air exergy supplied to the system) [50].

$$\eta_{Ex} = \frac{\sum \dot{Ex}_{in} - \sum \dot{Ex}_{out}}{\sum \dot{Ex}_{in}} = \left( \frac{\sum \dot{Ex}_{Loss}}{\sum \dot{Ex}_{in}} \right) \times 100 \quad (36)$$

Different processes or economic sectors can be analyzed using the concept of exergetic improvement potential (EIP). The EIP can be obtained by using Eq. (37) [11]:

$$EIP = (1 - \eta_{Ex}) \dot{Ex}_{Loss} \quad (37)$$

Exergetic sustainability index (ESI) is an important exergy evaluation parameter [11]. It is a function of the relationship between residual exergy and exergy efficiency [51]. This index allows for information to be obtained about the influence or impact of the process on the environment. The ESI was calculated utilizing Eq. (38) [11]:

$$ESI = \frac{1}{1 - \eta_{Ex}} \quad (38)$$

The environmental impact factor decreases if the exergetic sustainability index increases [11, 51]. The reference-dead state conditions were determined as  $T_\infty = 30$  °C,  $w = 0.0153\%$ ,  $C_{pww} = 1.872$  kJ/kg.K,  $R_{da} = 0.287$  kJ/kg.K,  $R_{wv} = 0.4615$  kJ/kg.K, and  $x_{wv}^o = 0.024$  were assumed as constant in all calculations. The thermodynamic properties of air and water were obtained from the steam tables.

### 2.2.6 Multiple linear regression model

Multiple linear regression model (MLR) was adopted to establish a mathematical relationship between the transport phenomena, thermodynamic analysis parameters and the drying process conditions (drying air temperature, drying air velocity, and relative humidity) as expressed in Eq. (39):

$$Y = b_0 + b_1 X_1 + b_2 X_2 + b_3 X_3 + \mu \quad (39)$$



Where  $Y$  = response variable,  $b_0$  = regression constant,  $b_1, b_2$  and  $b_3$  are coefficients of the parameters,  $X_1, X_2$  and  $X_3$  are independent variables representing drying air temperature, drying air velocity, and relative humidity, respectively.

2.2.7 Experimental uncertainty determination

Uncertainties and errors in the experiments can come from the selection and condition of the measuring instrument, calibration, readings or measurement, observations, and environment [17]. Uncertainty analysis was performed to prove the accuracy and reproducibility of the data obtained during the okra drying experiments. Drying air temperature, relative humidity, drying air velocity, and mass of samples, was measured with the necessary and appropriate testing instruments and the values recorded. The mean or average of the recorded values, obtained from the measurements and their standard deviations were determined. Mondal et al. [17] and Sarker et al. [52] methods were employed to determine the uncertainty of a value or variable  $X_i$ .

$$X_i = X_{mean} \pm \partial X_i \tag{40}$$

where  $X_i$  = the actual value of the variable,  $X_{mean}$  = mean or average of the measurements, and  $\partial X_i$  = uncertainty in the measurement. The uncertainty percentage was calculated as follows:

$$\%Uncertainty = \frac{\partial X_i}{X_{mean}} \times 100 \tag{41}$$

The estimated percent uncertainties for the instruments used in this study are provided in Table 1. Uncertainty value that is lower than 5% is considered to be acceptable for the reproducibility of an experiment [17]. It is seen from Table 1 that the estimated percentage uncertainty is in the range of 0.06 and 4.23, and thus these obtained values are within the acceptable range.

**Table 1** Measuring instruments and the uncertainties of measured parameters

Instrument	Specifications	Accuracy	Parameter	Standard deviation	Uncertainty (%)
Thermometer	PCE-555 Model, UK.	±0.5 °C	Temperature	0.83	2.70
Anemometer	PCE-009 Model, UK.	±5%	Air Velocity	0.12	4.23
Hygrometer	PCE-555 Model, UK	±2%	Relative Humidity	1.99	3.56
Digital Balance	Sartorius Secura1103-1Sar, Germany	±0.001 mg	Mass or Weight	0.07	0.06

2.2.8 Analysis of data

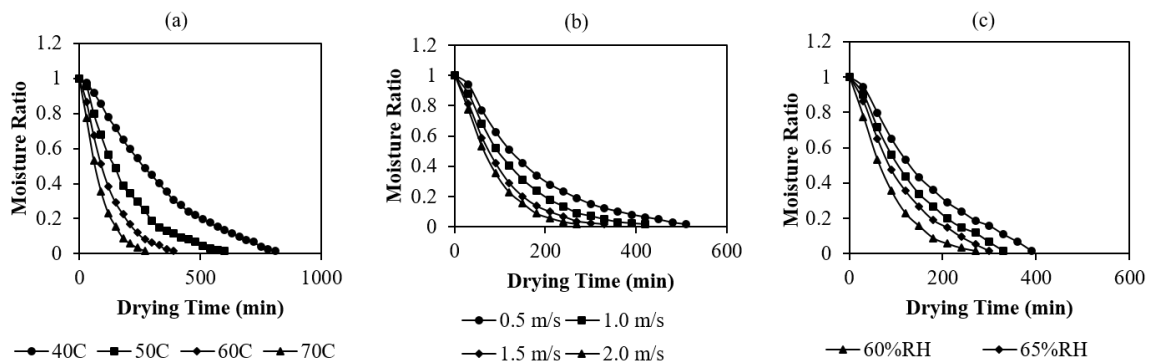
SPSS Statistics 15.0 (SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL, USA) software was utilized to fit the data to the multivariate linear regression model and to perform a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) in analyzing the effects of the drying process conditions on the studied parameters. Duncan’s multiple range test at  $p < 0.05$  significance level and least significance difference (LSD) was employed to examine the differences among mean or average values.

3. Results and discussion

3.1 Transport phenomena

3.1.1 Drying kinetics of okra

The kinetics of okra convective cabinet-tray drying are illustrated in Figure 3 as plots of moisture ratio versus drying times at varying drying air temperatures, velocities, and levels of relative humidity.



**Figure 3** The drying kinetics of cabinet-tray drying of okra at different: (a) drying air temperature (b) air velocity (c) relative humidity

Figure 3 shows that with increasing drying time at varying drying air temperatures (Figure 3(a)), air velocities (Figure 3(b)), and relative humidity (Figure 3(c)), the moisture ratio significantly ( $P < 0.05$ ) decreased. It can be observed that the drying time to obtain a dried okra of 9.91% moisture content (wet basis) at the different drying air temperatures (40-70 °C), air velocities (0.5-2.0 m/s), and levels of relative humidity (60-75%) was found to be 810, 660, 390, and 270 min; 510, 420, 330, and 270 min; and 270, 300, 330, and

390 min, respectively. These observations indicate that drying time reduces as the respective drying air temperature and drying air velocity increases, and the relative humidity decreases. Declining trend of drying time for food products (such as apple, tomato, savory leaves, basil leaves, and kiwi) due to increasing drying air temperature, velocity, and a decreasing relative humidity has been reported [29, 53, 54]. The values of the drying parameters (drying coefficient,  $S$  and lag factor,  $G$ ) obtained from the application of the moisture ratio equation (Eq. (7)) are provided in Table 2.

As it can be seen in Table 2, the drying coefficient,  $S$  increased with increasing velocity and temperature of the drying air medium. However, they decreased with increasing relative humidity. The lag factor,  $G$  increases with increasing velocity, relative humidity and temperature of the drying air medium. The estimated values of the lag factor were found to be greater than 1 and they ranged from 1.122 to 1.186 under all the varying drying process conditions, thus indicating the occurrence of an increased drying rate period [31]. A multivariate linear regression model equation was fitted to the experimental  $S$  and  $G$  data, respectively. The model fit was found to be highly significant ( $P < 0.05$ ) with a high  $R^2$  values of 0.980 for  $S$  and 0.996 for  $G$ . The empirical equations obtained from the fittings are expressed as follows:

$$S = 13.1 \times 10^{-5} + 5.91 \times 10^{-6}T + 7.21 \times 10^{-5}V - 7.8 \times 10^{-4}RH \quad R^2 = 0.980 \quad (42a)$$

$$G = 0.99 + 0.00191T + 0.0181V + 0.0329RH \quad R^2 = 0.996 \quad (42b)$$

**Table 2** Experimental conditions, drying parameters, experimental and predicted heat and mass transfer parameters obtained for the okra products

Drying conditions			Experimental heat and mass transfer parameters						Predicted heat and mass transfer parameters					% Difference			
T (°C)	V (m/s)	RH (%)	G	$S \times 10^{-4}$ (s <sup>-1</sup> )	Bi	$D_{eff} \times 10^{-10}$ (m <sup>2</sup> /s)	$K_m \times 10^{-7}$ (m/s)	$h_c$ (W/m <sup>2</sup> .K)	G	$S \times 10^{-4}$ (s <sup>-1</sup> )	Bi	$D_{eff} \times 10^{-10}$ (m <sup>2</sup> /s)	$K_m \times 10^{-7}$ (m/s)	$h_c$ (W/m <sup>2</sup> .K)	A*	B**	C***
40	2.0	60	1.122	0.529	1.245	2.59	1.61	1.24	1.122	0.436	1.245	2.13	1.33	1.17	21.60	21.1	5.98
50	2.0	60	1.145	0.977	2.141	4.09	4.38	2.55	1.141	1.03	1.950	4.42	4.31	2.38	-7.46	1.62	7.14
60	2.0	60	1.163	1.55	3.246	5.75	9.33	4.54	1.161	1.62	3.101	6.10	9.45	4.42	-5.74	-1.27	2.71
70	2.0	60	1.181	2.28	4.892	7.50	18.3	8.07	1.180	2.21	4.783	7.32	17.5	7.85	2.46	4.57	2.80
70	0.5	60	1.155	1.13	2.700	4.42	5.97	3.75	1.153	1.13	2.578	4.48	5.78	3.60	-1.34	3.29	4.17
70	1.0	60	1.162	1.49	3.173	5.57	8.84	4.76	1.162	1.49	3.173	5.57	8.84	4.76	0.00	0.00	0.00
70	1.5	60	1.170	1.95	3.811	6.92	13.2	6.15	1.171	1.85	3.898	6.51	12.7	6.16	6.30	3.94	-0.16
70	2.0	60	1.181	2.28	4.892	7.50	18.3	8.07	1.180	2.21	4.783	7.32	17.5	7.85	2.46	4.57	2.80
70	2.0	60	1.181	2.28	4.892	7.50	18.3	8.07	1.180	2.21	4.783	7.32	17.5	7.85	2.46	4.57	2.80
70	2.0	65	1.183	1.67	5.118	5.42	13.9	7.80	1.181	1.82	4.892	5.98	14.6	7.67	-9.36	-4.79	1.69
70	2.0	70	1.184	1.42	5.235	4.58	12.0	7.70	1.183	1.43	5.118	4.64	11.9	7.57	-1.29	0.84	1.71
70	2.0	75	1.186	1.14	5.476	3.62	9.91	7.60	1.185	1.04	5.354	3.33	8.91	7.23	8.71	11.22	5.12

N.B: A\*, represent the percentage difference between calculated  $D_{eff}$  from experimental data and theoretical/predicted  $D_{eff}$ ; B\*\*, represent the percentage difference between calculated experimental  $K_m$  and theoretical/predicted  $K_m$ ; C\*\*\* represent the percentage difference between calculated experimental  $h_c$  and theoretical/predicted  $h_c$

Variance analysis revealed that the effects of drying air temperature, velocity, and relative humidity on the drying coefficient and lag factor were highly significant ( $P < 0.05$ ). Equations (42a) and (42b) can be used to predict the drying parameters ( $S$  and  $G$ ). However, substituting Eqs. (42a) and (42b) into Eq. (7), the moisture content distribution can be obtained as:

$$MR = (0.99 - 0.00191T + 0.0181V + 0.0329RH) * \exp[-(13.1 \times 10^{-5} + 5.91 \times 10^{-6}T + 7.21 \times 10^{-5}V - 7.8 \times 10^{-4}RH) * t] \quad (43)$$

Eq. (43) can be utilized to predict the moisture ratio and invariably the moisture content distribution.

### 3.1.2 Effective moisture diffusivity

The  $D_{eff}$  values of the okra samples varied with the varying drying process conditions. The  $D_{eff}$  values were found to range from  $4.42-7.50 \times 10^{-10}$  m<sup>2</sup>/s for air velocity range of 0.5-2.0 m/s,  $7.50-3.62 \times 10^{-10}$  m<sup>2</sup>/s for relative humidity range of 60-75%, and  $2.59-7.50 \times 10^{-10}$  m<sup>2</sup>/s for drying air temperature range of 40-70 °C, respectively. These calculated values indicate that  $D_{eff}$  increases with increasing drying air velocity and temperature while it declines with increasing relative humidity. Increasing trend of  $D_{eff}$  due to increasing drying air temperature, air velocity, and a decreasing relative humidity has been reported for agricultural food products [13, 48]. Meanwhile, Foroughi-dahr et al. [55] had reported that by changing the air velocity in the intermittent drying of rough rice in a fluidized bed dryer no remarkable and reasonable trend for the  $D_{eff}$  was observed. Ju et al. [32] reported a decreasing  $D_{eff}$  values of  $2.50-1.49 \times 10^{-10}$  m<sup>2</sup>/s for the drying of American ginseng root at a lower relative humidity range of 20 to 40% and constant drying temperature of 55 °C and air velocity of 3.0 m/s. Also, Taheri-Garavand et al. [40] reported a decreasing  $D_{eff}$  values of  $3.55-2.67 \times 10^{-9}$  for the convective hot air drying of tomato at a relative humidity range of 20-60% and constant temperature of 70 °C and air velocity of 2 m/s. On the other hand, Ju et al. [31] reported a  $D_{eff}$  values that increased from  $2.90 \times 10^{-10}$  -  $5.47 \times 10^{-9}$  m<sup>2</sup>/s for yam slices dried at a lower relative humidity range of 20 to 40% and constant drying temperature of 60 °C and air velocity of 1.5 m/s. Furthermore, Taheri-Garavand and Meda [29] observed that in the drying of savory leaves at a lower relative humidity of 20 to 40% and constant drying temperature of 60 °C and air velocity of 2 m/s, the  $D_{eff}$  values generally increased from  $4.94-5.73 \times 10^{-11}$  m<sup>2</sup>/s. Although, it is expected that at a lower relative humidity as compared to a higher relative humidity, the drying rate should be higher such that the moisture diffusion from the inner surface to the material external surface should be higher leading to higher effective moisture diffusivity, however, it is observed that the values obtained by Ju et al. [32] and Taheri-Garavand and Meda [29] at 20-40% lower relative humidity are lower than the values obtained in this study at higher relative humidity of 60-75%. The reason for this observation may probably be due to the interplay of different factors such as the difference in the material geometry, drying temperature, and air velocity utilized in conjunction with these different levels of relative humidity. It has been reported that higher temperature tends to overshadow the negative effect of higher relative humidity [56]. Meanwhile, it is also observed that the values obtained by Ju et al. [31] at 40% relative humidity as well as the values obtained by Taheri-Garavand et al. [40] at 20-60% relative humidity are higher than

the values obtained in this study at 60-75% relative humidity. The  $D_{eff}$  values obtained in this study at the different drying process conditions are within the general range of  $10^{-12}$  -  $10^{-8}$  m<sup>2</sup>/s that has been presented by various workers for the drying of food materials [19-21, 57].

### 3.1.3 Mass transfer coefficient

The values of the Biot number,  $Bi$  and mass transfer coefficient,  $K_m$  are provided in Table 2. The calculated  $Bi$  values obtained using Eq. (10) for all the drying process conditions ranged from 1.245 to 5.476. These values are generally greater than 0.1 which confirms that there are internal and external resistances to moisture diffusion in the course of okra drying. Meanwhile, if the  $Bi$  value is greater than 30, the drying process is completely diffusion-controlled [31, 58]. The results in Table 2 showed that the Biot numbers were influenced by the drying air velocity, the relative humidity, and drying air temperature. It was observed that the  $Bi$  values generally increases with increase in the drying air temperature, air velocity, and relative humidity. Similar trend of results under the drying conditions of air velocity and temperature have been reported for slab potato slices [59] while Ju et al. [31] have also reported an increasing Biot number due to increasing relative humidity using the  $Bi - D_i$  correlation.

The  $K_m$  values were found to range from  $5.97$ - $18.3 \times 10^{-7}$  m/s for air velocity range of  $0.5$ - $2.0$  m/s,  $18.3$ - $9.91 \times 10^{-7}$  m/s for relative humidity range of  $60$ - $75\%$ , and  $1.61$ - $18.3 \times 10^{-7}$  m/s for air temperature range of  $40$ - $70$  °C, respectively. The results showed that  $K_m$  generally increases with increasing drying air velocity and temperature while it declines with increasing relative humidity. A similar report of an increasing  $K_m$  due to increasing drying temperature has been presented for D. Joaquina pears [60], cocoyam slices [24], banana [27], and picralima nitida seed [25]. Meanwhile, Ju et al. [31] have reported an increasing  $K_m$  values from  $5.06 \times 10^{-9}$  to  $1.01 \times 10^{-7}$  m/s for the drying of yam slices due to increasing relative humidity from  $20$  to  $40\%$ . The reason for this observed difference in relation to the values obtained in this study may be due to the lower relative humidity utilized that allows for enhanced diffusion of moisture from the yam surface. In addition, the difference may also be as a result of the different method utilized in the  $K_m$  estimation. Akpinar and Dincer [59] have observed different  $K_m$  values for the drying of slab-shaped potato products when they applied different mass transfer models. The range of  $K_m$  values obtained in this study are higher than the values of  $1.6098 \times 10^{-8}$  m/s and  $11.84 \times 10^{-8}$  m/s obtained for cylindrically shaped sliced okra by Dincer and Hossain [61] and Ouedraogo et al. [38], respectively. The reasons for this difference may perhaps be due to the drying method, variety, and geometry (i.e. shape and size) of the okra.

### 3.1.4 Heat transfer coefficient

The convective heat transfer coefficient,  $h_c$  varied from  $1.24$ - $8.07$  W/m<sup>2</sup>K for temperature range of  $40$ - $70$  °C,  $3.75$ - $8.07$  W/m<sup>2</sup>K for air velocity range of  $0.5$ - $2.0$  m/s, and  $8.07$ - $7.60$  W/m<sup>2</sup>K for relative humidity range of  $60$ - $75\%$  (Table 2). This indicate that the  $h_c$  increased with increasing drying air temperature and air velocity while it decreased with increasing relative humidity. Increasing trend of  $h_c$  with increasing drying temperature has been observed and reported for ginger [9], cocoyam slices [24], banana [27], and picralima nitida seeds [25]. Similarly, an increasing  $h_c$  as a result of increasing drying air velocity has been reported for the convective tray drying of apple [30] and ginger [9] while a decreasing  $h_c$  due to increasing relative humidity was observed for the generation of ionic wind over a flat surface at different levels of relative humidity [62].

### 3.2 Mathematical modelling of drying time, heat and mass transfer parameters

Equations (42a) and (42b) can be used in conjunction with the  $Bi$ - $G$  correlation and then referred to as multiple linear regression-Bi- $G$  (MLR-Bi- $G$ ) model. Thus, substituting Eqs. (42a) and (42b) into Eqs. (9) - (15) respectively, the following equations are obtained:

$$Bi = 0.0576 * (0.99 + 0.00191T + 0.0181V + 0.0329RH)^{26.7} \quad (44)$$

$$MR = \exp\left(\frac{0.2533 * [0.0576 * (0.99 + 0.00191T + 0.0181V + 0.0329RH)^{26.7}]}{1.3 + 0.0576 * (0.99 + 0.00191T + 0.0181V + 0.0329RH)^{26.7}}\right) \times \exp(-[13.1 \times 10^{-5} + 5.91 \times 10^{-6}T + 7.21 \times 10^{-5}V - 7.8 \times 10^{-4}RH] * t) \quad (45)$$

$$D_{eff} = \frac{(13.1 \times 10^{-5} + 5.91 \times 10^{-6}T + 7.21 \times 10^{-5}V - 7.8 \times 10^{-4}RH) * L^2}{\mu_{1predicted}^2} \quad (46a)$$

$$\mu_{1predicted} = -419.24 * (0.99 + 0.00191T + 0.0181V + 0.0329RH)^4 + 2013.8 * (0.99 + 0.00191T + 0.0181V + 0.0329RH)^3 - 3615.8 * (0.99 + 0.00191T + 0.0181V + 0.0329RH)^2 + 2880.3 * (0.99 + 0.00191T + 0.0181V + 0.0329RH) - 858.94 \quad (46b)$$

$$K_m = 0.0576 * (0.99 + 0.00191T + 0.0181V + 0.0329RH)^{26.7} \times \frac{(13.1 \times 10^{-5} + 5.91 \times 10^{-6}T + 7.21 \times 10^{-5}V - 7.8 \times 10^{-4}RH) * L}{\mu_{1predicted}^2} \quad (47)$$

$$h_c = 0.0576 * ([0.99 + 0.00191T + 0.0181V + 0.0329RH]^{26.7}) \times \left(\frac{(13.1 \times 10^{-5} + 5.91 \times 10^{-6}T + 7.21 \times 10^{-5}V - 7.8 \times 10^{-4}RH) * L}{\mu_{1predicted}^2}\right) \times \rho_{da} C_{pda} L e^{1-n} \quad (48)$$

$$\text{Where } Le = \frac{\phi}{(13.1 \times 10^{-5} + 5.91 \times 10^{-6}T + 7.21 \times 10^{-5}V - 7.8 \times 10^{-4}RH)} \quad (49)$$

Therefore, Eqs 44-49 referred to as MLR-Bi-G model can be used to generate the predicted or theoretical moisture ratio, theoretical effective moisture diffusivity, and theoretical heat and mass transfer coefficients, respectively. The predicted or theoretical moisture ratios (i.e. normalized moisture content) obtained with the use of MLR model (Eq. (43)) and MLR-Bi-G model (Eq. (45)) at different temperature of 40-70 °C, air velocity (0.5-2.0 m/s), and relative humidity (60-75%) were compared with the experimental moisture ratio as illustrated in Figures 4 - 6.

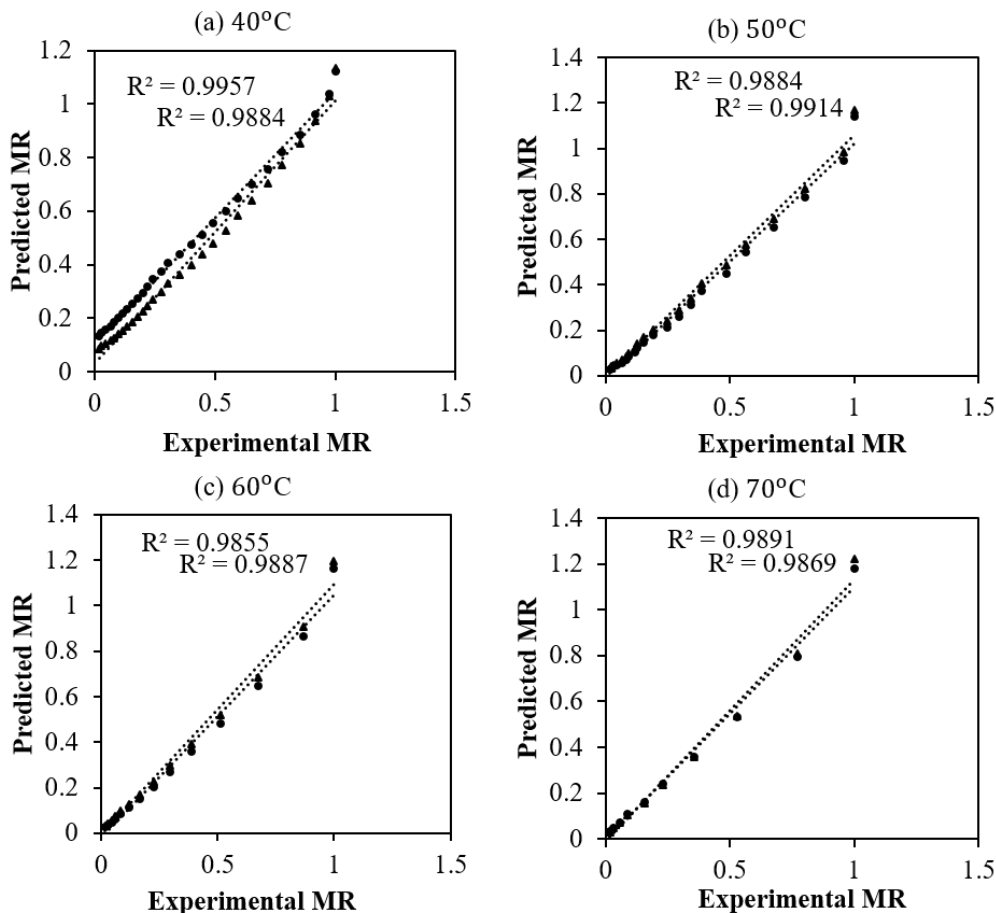
It can be seen in Figures 4 - 6 that the theoretical or predicted moisture ratios using the two separate models adequately agree well with the measured experimental moisture ratios as validated by the high  $R^2$  values greater than 0.97. Also, it can be observed from Figures 4 - 6 and Table 2 that the regression moisture ratio value at  $t = 0$  is more than 1. Nevertheless, this is expected due to the nature of moisture diffusion, giving rise to the lag factor. As seen in Table 2, the lag factors are greater than 1, revealing that there is a kind of internal resistance to the diffusion of moisture in the sample.

The values of the predicted or theoretical effective moisture diffusivity, mass transfer coefficient, and heat transfer coefficient are provided in Table 2. The differences between the experimental effective moisture diffusivity, mass transfer coefficient, and heat transfer coefficient and their corresponding predicted or theoretical effective moisture diffusivity, mass transfer coefficient, and heat transfer coefficient are also provided in Table 2. From Table 2, it is generally seen that there is a high agreement between the experimental and predicted or theoretical values. This implies that the developed multiple linear regression-Bi-G model equations can be utilized to predict moisture content distribution, effective moisture diffusivity, mass and heat transfer coefficients.

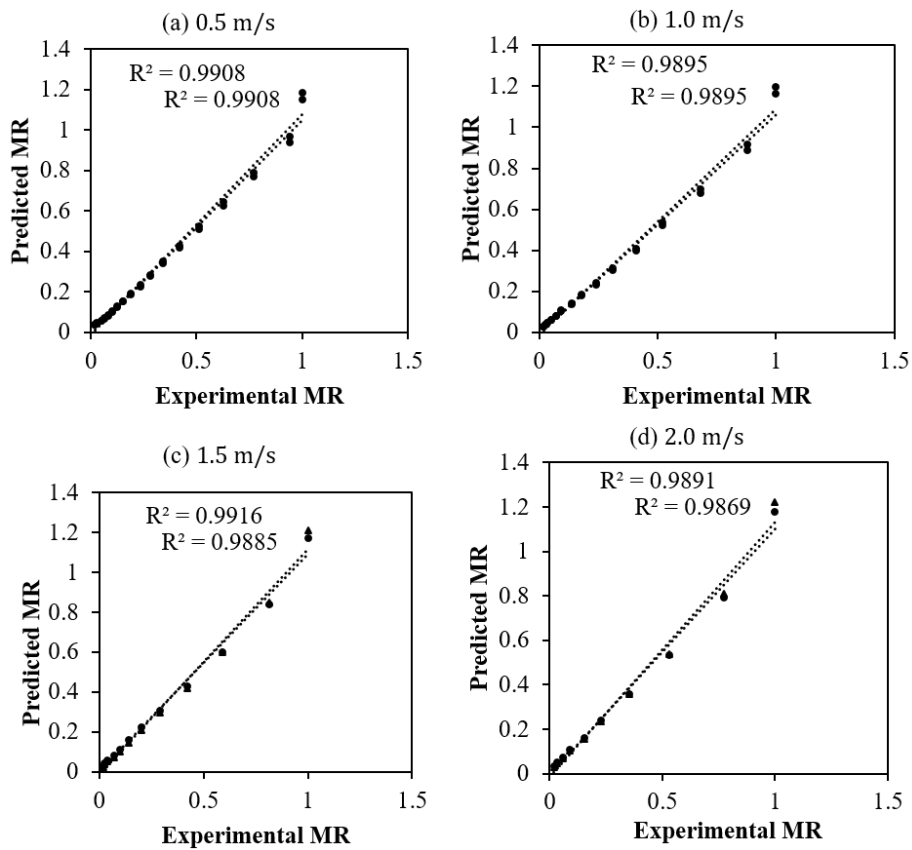
Furthermore, the predicted or theoretical half-drying times of okra were investigated. Half-drying time is defined as the time required to decrease the difference in product moisture content between the product and the drying medium by one-half. Therefore, substituting  $MR = 0.5$  into Eq. (7), the half-drying time (HDT) becomes [59]:

$$HDT = \frac{\ln 2G}{S} = \frac{\ln 2(0.99 + 0.00191T + 0.0181V + 0.0329RH)}{13.1 \times 10^{-5} + 5.91 \times 10^{-6}T + 7.21 \times 10^{-5}V - 7.8 \times 10^{-4}RH} \quad (50)$$

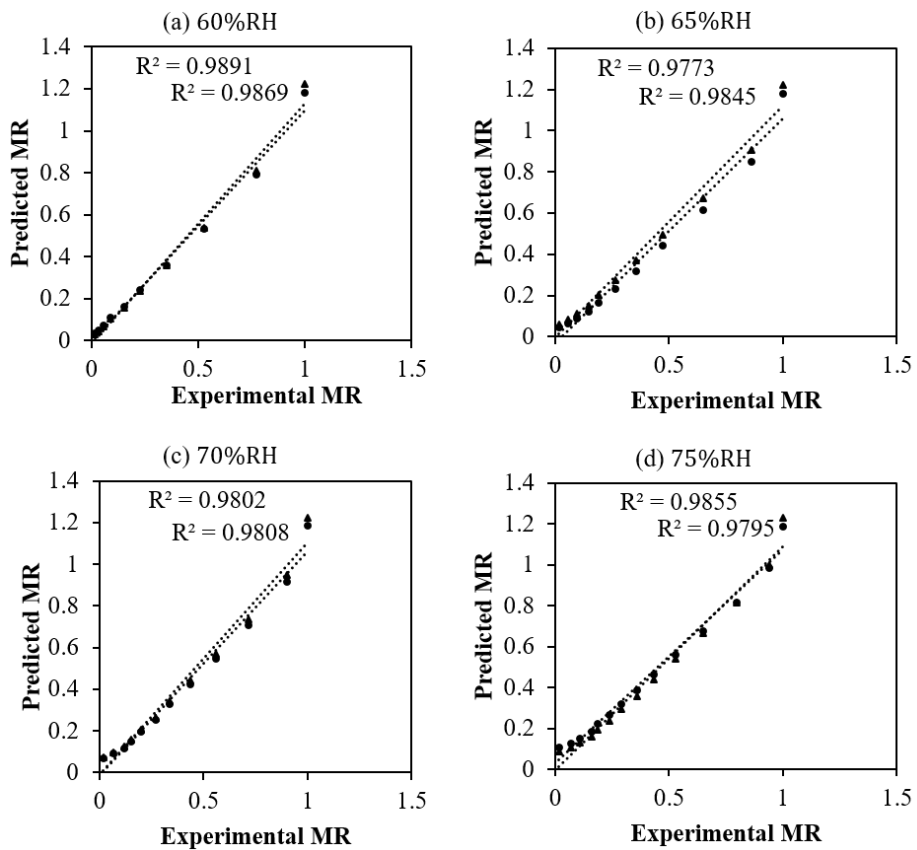
Using Eq. (50) with the predicted and measured experimental moisture content values, the determined half-drying times for okra are presented in Table 3. The differences that exists between the experimental half-drying times and the predicted or theoretical drying times are also listed in Table 3. Thus, the experimental measured half-drying times when compared with the predicted half-drying times on the basis of their percentage differences showed that in general, there is high agreement between the experimental and predicted half-drying times.



**Figure 4** Comparison of the experimental moisture ratio with the predicted moisture ratio obtained from the use of multiple linear regression model (MLR) and multiple linear regression-Bi-G model (MLR-Bi-G) considered at different drying air temperatures of (a) 40°C (b) 50°C (c) 60°C (d) 70°C



**Figure 5** Comparison of the experimental moisture ratio with the theoretical or predicted moisture ratio obtained from the multiple linear regression model (MLR) and multiple linear regression-Bi-G model considered at different drying air velocities of (a) 0.5 m/s (b) 1.0 m/s (c) 1.5 m/s (d) 2.0 m/s



**Figure 6** Comparison of the experimental moisture ratio with the theoretical or predicted moisture ratio obtained from the multiple linear regression model (MLR) and multiple linear regression-Bi-G model considered at different levels of relative humidity of (a) 60% (b) 65% (c) 70% (d) 75%

**Table 3** The experimental and predicted theoretical half-drying time and their comparison

Drying Conditions			Experimental half-drying times (secs) <sup>A</sup>	Predicted half-drying times (secs) <sup>B</sup>	%Difference between A and B
T (°C)	V (m/s)	RH (%)			
40	2.0	60	15866	18538	-14.4
50	2.0	60	8732	8034	8.69
60	2.0	60	5531	5207	6.22
70	2.0	60	3909	3887	0.57
70	0.5	60	7200	7410	-2.83
70	1.0	60	5703	5667	0.64
70	1.5	60	4555	4604	-1.06
70	2.0	60	3909	3887	0.57
70	2.0	60	3909	3887	0.57
70	2.0	65	5129	4725	8.55
70	2.0	70	5558	6027	-7.78
70	2.0	75	7748	8305	-6.71

**Table 4** Predicted moisture diffusivities, mass and heat transfer coefficients, and half-drying times for food material to be dried at drying conditions outside those used in this study

Drying conditions			G	$S \times 10^{-4}$	$B_i$	$D_{eff} \times 10^{-10}$	$K_m \times 10^{-6}$	$h_c$	HDT
T (°C)	V (m/s)	RH (%)				(m <sup>2</sup> /s)	(m/s)	(W/m <sup>2</sup> .K)	
80	2.0	60	1.199	2.80	7.326	8.04	2.95	11.02	3124
85	2.0	60	1.208	3.10	8.946	8.32	3.72	14.89	2846
90	2.0	60	1.218	3.39	11.11	8.54	4.75	21.07	2626
70	2.5	60	1.189	2.57	5.858	7.91	2.30	9.80	3371
70	3.0	60	1.198	2.93	7.165	8.71	3.10	12.37	2982
70	3.5	60	1.207	3.29	8.750	8.99	3.91	15.28	2679
70	2.0	20	1.166	5.33	3.478	19.7	3.46	7.52	1589
70	2.0	30	1.170	4.55	3.811	15.9	3.01	7.12	1868
70	2.0	40	1.173	3.77	4.080	13.2	2.70	6.82	2262

The validity of the developed model (multiple linear regression-Bi-G model (MLR-Bi-G)) in predicting  $D_{eff}$ ,  $K_m$  and  $h_c$  and HDT for a food material to be dried at a higher temperature of 80, 85, and 90 °C, air velocity of 2.5, 3.0, and 3.5 m/s, and a lower relative humidity of 20, 30, and 40%, respectively outside the drying conditions studied in this work was carried out. The predicted results are presented in Table 4.

The predicted results in Table 4 when compared with the results in Tables 2 and 3 revealed that the results followed the trend established in Tables 2 and 3, indicating that lower drying times as well as higher  $D_{eff}$ ,  $K_m$  and  $h_c$  are obtained at a higher drying temperature (90 °C), air velocity (3.5 m/s), and lower levels of relative humidity (20%), respectively. The results in Table 4 therefore implies that the developed model can be utilized to predict drying times, moisture diffusivity, mass and heat transfer coefficients at lower and higher levels of drying temperature, air velocity, and relative humidity, respectively.

### 3.3 Thermodynamics analyses

#### 3.3.1 Energy consumption and efficiency

The calculated values obtained for the energy consumption as expressed by the total and specific energy consumptions in the course of okra drying are depicted in Figure 7.

At varying drying air temperatures (40-70 °C), relative humidity (60-75%), and drying air velocities (0.5-2.0 m/s), the total energy consumption values were found to be in the range of 69.6-60.7 MJ (Figure 7(a)); 60.7-119.1 MJ (Figure 7(c)); and 30.5-60.7 MJ (Figure 7(e)), while the specific energy consumption values were obtained to be in the range of 82.3-71.8 MJ/kg (Figure 7(b)); 71.8-140.9 MJ/kg (Figure 7(d)); and 36.1-71.8 MJ/kg (Figure 7(f)), respectively. The total and specific energy consumptions significantly ( $P < 0.05$ ) decreased with increasing drying air temperature (Figure 7(a)-(b)) while they increased significantly ( $P < 0.05$ ) with increasing relative humidity (Figure 7(c)-(d)) and drying air velocity (Figure 7(e)-(f)).

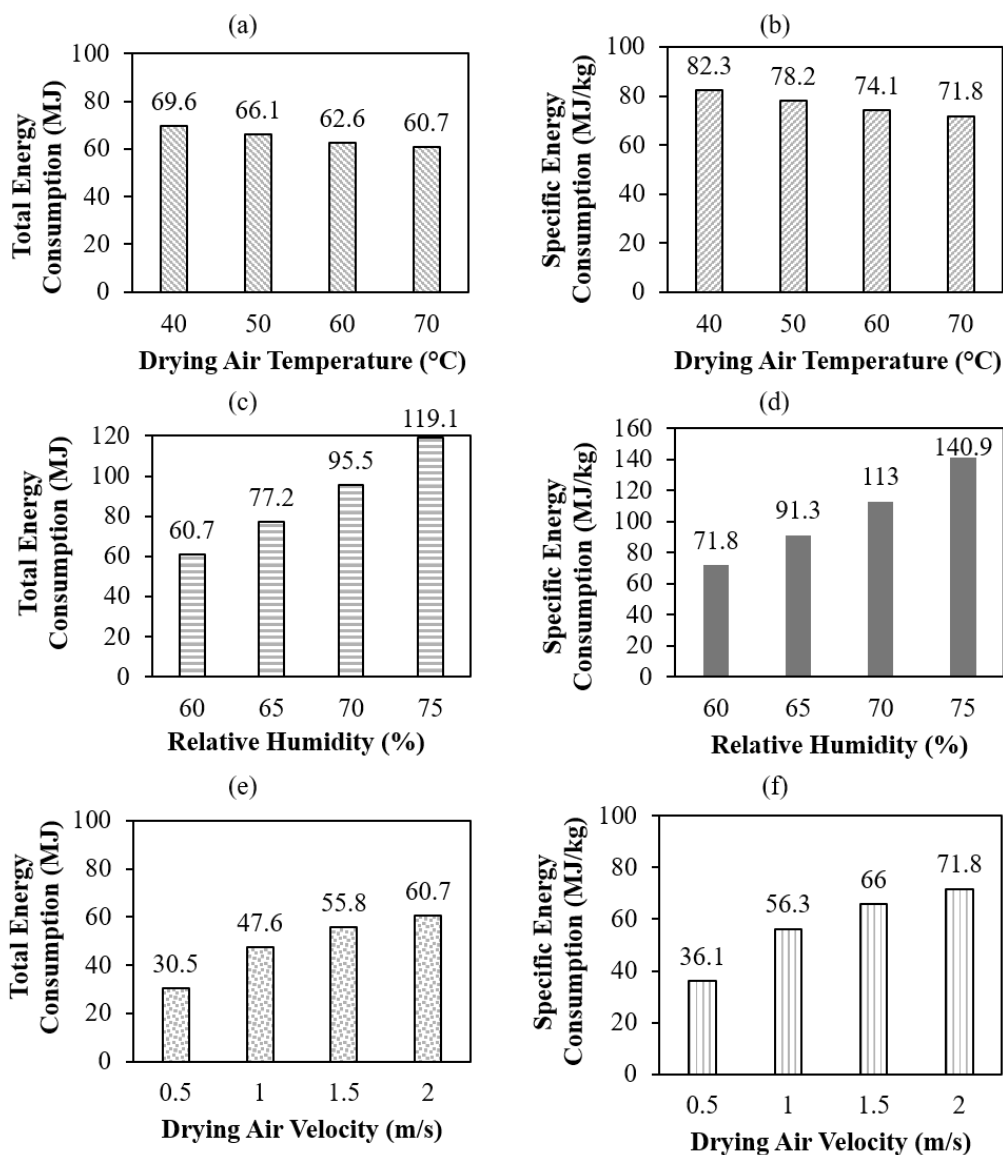
A similar observation of an increasing energy consumption (total and specific) due to an increment in drying air temperature has been reported for tomato [63], picralima nitida [25], and onion slices [64]. Also, Ju et al. [32] have similarly reported an increasing specific energy consumption due to increasing relative humidity from 20 to 40% for the drying of ginseng root. A multiple linear regression model equation fitted to the energy parameters (total and specific energy consumptions) were found to be highly significant ( $P < 0.05$ ) with a high  $R^2$  value of 0.988 and adjusted  $R^2$  of 0.984. The empirical equations obtained from the fittings are expressed as follows:

$$E_{Total} = -178 - 0.272T + 17.6V + 371.3RH \quad R^2 = 0.988; \text{Adjusted}R^2 = 0.984$$

$$E_{Specific} = -211 - 0.321T + 20.8V + 439.3RH \quad R^2 = 0.988; \text{Adjusted}R^2 = 0.984 \quad (51)$$

Variance analysis revealed that the effects of drying air temperature, velocity, and relative humidity on the energy consumption were highly significant ( $P < 0.05$ ).

The values of energy efficiency ( $\eta_E$ ) and drying efficiency ( $\eta_D$ ) for the drying of sliced okra samples are provided in Table 5.



**Figure 7** (a) Total energy consumption at different drying air temperature (b) ) Specific energy consumption at different drying air temperature (c) Total energy consumption at different relative humidity (d) Specific energy consumption at different relative humidity (e) Total energy consumption at different drying air velocity (f) Specific energy consumption at different drying air velocity

**Table 5** Energy and drying efficiencies values for okra at varying drying conditions

Drying condition	$\eta_E$ (%)	$\eta_D$ (%)
Temperature (°C)		
40	2.92	2.97
50	3.05	3.16
60	3.19	3.36
70	3.25	3.51
Air velocity (m/s)		
0.5	6.47	6.98
1.0	4.15	4.47
1.5	3.54	3.82
2.0	3.25	3.51
Relative humidity (%)		
60	3.25	3.51
65	2.56	2.76
70	2.07	2.23
75	1.66	1.79

Both the energy and drying efficiencies increased with increasing drying air temperature, declining drying air velocity, and relative humidity. At varying drying air temperatures (40-70 °C), drying air velocities (0.5-2.0 m/s), and relative humidity (60-75%),  $\eta_E$  values were found to be in the range of 2.92-3.25%, 6.47-3.25%, and 3.25-1.66%, respectively, while  $\eta_D$  values were obtained to be in the range of 2.97-3.51%, 6.98-3.51%, and 3.51-1.79%, respectively. The  $\eta_E$  values agreed well with the range of values of 1.91-10% that

have been reported in the literature [48, 65] while the  $\eta_D$  values are within the range of values of 1.6-65% that have been published in the literature [48, 65]. Increasing trend of energy and drying efficiencies with rising drying air temperature and a declining air velocity has been reported for the convective hot air drying of apple slices [48]. The multiple linear regression model equation fitted very well to the energy and drying efficiencies data which resulted in the following empirical equations expressed as follows:

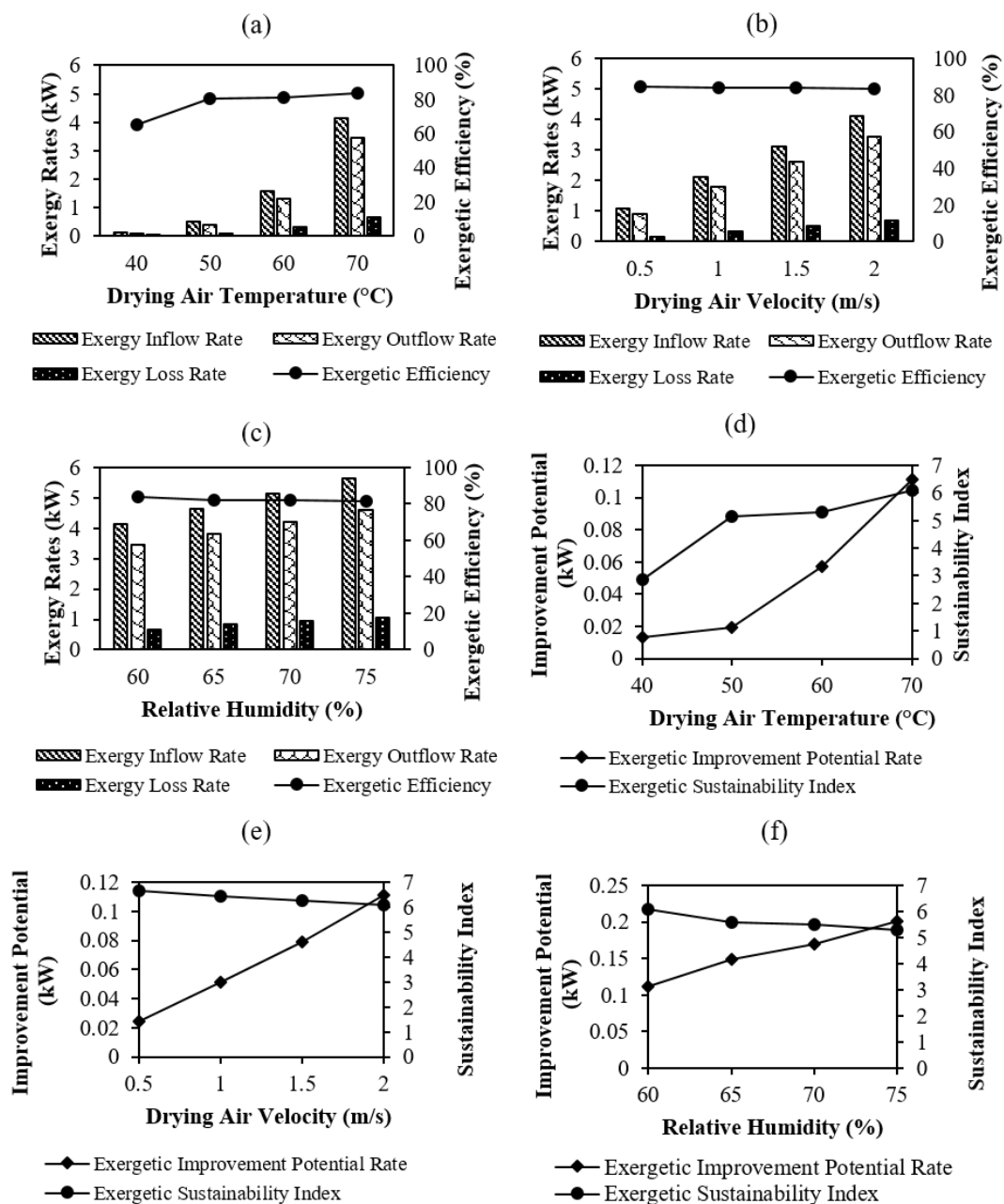
$$\eta_E = 12.4 + 0.0033T - 1.82V - 9.77RH \quad R^2 = 0.917; \text{Adjusted}R^2 = 0.885 \quad (52)$$

$$\eta_D = 12.9 + 0.0099T - 1.96V - 10.3RH \quad R^2 = 0.917; \text{Adjusted}R^2 = 0.886 \quad (53)$$

The model equations were found to be highly significant ( $P < 0.05$ ) with a high  $R^2$  values of 0.917, 0.917, and adjusted  $R^2$  values of 0.885 and 0.886, respectively. Variance analysis showed that the effects of drying air temperature, velocity, and relative humidity on the energy and drying efficiencies were highly significant ( $P < 0.05$ ).

### 3.3.2 Exergy rates and efficiency

The illustration of the effects of drying air temperature, drying air velocity, and relative humidity on the exergy rates and exergetic efficiencies of the sliced okra drying process is presented in Figure 8.



**Figure 8** (a)Variation of exergy rates and exergetic efficiency with drying air temperature (b) Variation of exergy rates and exergetic efficiency with drying air velocity (c) Variation of exergy rates and exergetic efficiency with relative humidity (d) Variation of exergetic improvement potential rate and exergetic sustainability index with drying air temperature (e) Variation of exergetic improvement potential rate and exergetic sustainability index with drying air velocity (f) Variation of exergetic improvement potential rate and exergetic sustainability index with relative humidity



Figure 8 shows that when the drying air temperature was increased from 40-70 °C at a constant drying air velocity of 2 m/s and relative humidity of 60%, the exergy rates and the exergetic efficiencies respectively increased with values ranging from 0.1101-4.132 kW (exergy inflow rates), 0.0849-3.453 kW (exergy outflow rates), 0.0252-0.6790 kW (exergy loss rates), and 65.12-83.57% (exergetic efficiencies) (Figure 8(a)). This observed trend of increasing exergy rates and exergy efficiencies due to increasing temperature is in concordance with the observation that has been reported by Mondal et al. [17], Chen et al. [18], and Icier et al. [66], for the mixed flow drying of maize grain, column drying of walnut, and convective tray drying of broccoli, respectively. In contrast, decreased exergetic efficiencies due to increasing drying temperature have been reported for the convective tray drying of olive leaves [10] and onion [11, 14], respectively.

As presented in Figure 8(b) which illustrates the variation of exergy inflow rates, exergy outflow rates, exergy loss rates and exergetic efficiencies with drying air velocities, it can be seen that as the drying air velocity changed from 0.5-2.0 m/s so also the exergy rates changed with the exergy inflow, exergy outflow, and exergy loss rates increasing from 1.078-4.132 kW, 0.9159-3.453 kW, and 0.1621-0.6790 kW, respectively, while the exergetic efficiencies slightly decreasing from 84.96-83.57%. This observation of decreasing energetic efficiencies due to increasing drying air velocity is in concordance with the report of Mondal et al. [17] for the mixed flow drying of maize grain. Concerning exergetic efficiency, Castro et al. [11] have reported a decrease in exergetic efficiency due to increasing drying air velocity in the convective tray drying of onion. For the relative humidity in the range of 60-75% (Figure 8(c)), the exergy rates varied from 4.132-5.643 kW (exergy inflow), 3.453-4.578 kW (exergy outflow), and 0.6790-1.065 kW (exergy loss), respectively, while the energetic efficiencies slightly varied from 83.57-81.13%. Thus, the results indicate that exergy rates (exergy inflow, outflow, and exergy loss) increased with increasing relative humidity, while exergetic efficiencies decreased with increasing relative humidity. Dincer and Sahin [35] have presented a similar observation for the convective hot air drying of food products.

The obtained exergetic efficiency values in this study for the convective cabinet-tray drying of okra varied from 81.13 to 84.96% over the drying air temperatures, velocities, and different levels of relative humidity. The values of exergetic efficiency that ranged from 3-100% have been presented in the literature for the drying of other agricultural food products using different types of drying equipment [10-18]. The multiple linear regression model equation (Eq. (39)) fitted well to the exergetic efficiencies data and was found to be highly significant ( $P<0.05$ ) with a high  $R^2$  value of 0.966 and adjusted  $R^2$  value of 0.953. The empirical equation obtained from the fitting is expressed as follows:

$$\eta_{Ex} = 82.0 + 0.19T - 0.99V - 16.8RH \quad R^2 = 0.966; AdjR^2 = 0.953 \quad (54)$$

Variance analysis showed that the effects of drying air temperature, drying air velocity, and relative humidity on the exergetic efficiency were highly significant ( $P<0.05$ ).

### 3.3.3 Exergetic improvement potential

To achieve the EIP of cabinet-tray dryer, EIP values at different drying air temperature, drying air velocity, and relative humidity were calculated using Eq. (37) and the results are presented in Figure 8(d)-(f). At drying air temperature range (40-70 °C), drying air velocity range (0.5-2.0 m/s), and relative humidity range (60-75%), the EIP values correspondingly varied from 0.0058-0.111 kW; 0.024-0.111 kW; and 0.111-0.201 kW. The results indicate that EIP values generally increased with increasing drying air temperature, drying air velocity, and relative humidity. Variance analysis revealed that the effects of drying air temperature, and relative humidity on the EIP were found to be highly significant ( $P<0.05$ ). The EIP increased 19.14 times as the temperature was increased from 40-70 °C indicating that the cabinet-tray drying chamber insulation should further be improved for increased or higher performance, especially at higher temperature. An observation of increasing EIP due to an increase in temperature and air velocity has been reported for the convective hot air drying of broccoli leaves [66], olive leaves [10], onion [11], and maize grain [17]. The EIP as a function of drying air temperature, drying air velocity, and relative humidity was appropriately modeled with a multiple linear regression model equation as expressed in Eq. (55):

$$EIP = -0.65 + 3.8 \times 10^{-4}T + 0.057V + 0.63RH \quad R^2 = 0.986; AdjR^2 = 0.981 \quad (55)$$

The model equation was found to be highly significant ( $P<0.05$ ) with a high  $R^2$  value of 0.986 and adjusted  $R^2$  value of 0.981. Variance analysis revealed that the effects of drying air temperature, and relative humidity on the EIP were found to be highly significant ( $P<0.05$ ).

### 3.3.4 Exergy sustainability index

The effect of drying air temperature, drying air velocity, and relative humidity on ESI of the okra drying chamber can be seen in Figure 8(d)-(f). It can be observed that the ESI varied from 4.37-6.10; 6.65-6.10; and 6.10-5.30 for corresponding drying air temperature range of 40-70 °C (Figure 8(d)); drying air velocity range of 0.5-2.0 m/s (Figure 8(e)), and relative humidity of 60-75% (Figure 8(f)). This observation shows that ESI increased with increasing drying air temperature and decreased with increasing drying air velocity and relative humidity. This observation illustrates that at higher exergetic efficiency, there is a corresponding higher ESI which consequently results in a lower environmental impact. A similar report of an increase in ESI with increasing drying air temperature and decreasing drying air velocity has been presented by Mondal et al. [17] in the convective mixed flow drying of maize grain. The multiple linear regression model equation (Eq. (39)) fitted well to the ESI data and was found to be highly significant ( $P<0.05$ ) with a high  $R^2$  value of 0.970 and adjusted  $R^2$  value of 0.960. The empirical equation obtained from the fitting is expressed as follows:

$$ESI = 6.31 + 0.054T - 0.41V - 5.35RH \quad R^2 = 0.970; AdjR^2 = 0.960 \quad (56)$$

The effects of drying air temperature, drying air velocity, and relative humidity on the ESI were found to be highly significant ( $P<0.05$ ).

#### 4. Conclusion

This study has investigated the cabinet-tray drying of okra at different drying process conditions of air temperature, air velocity, and relative humidity and the outcome of the drying process was subjected to transport phenomena and thermodynamic analyses. From the results obtained, the following conclusions can be drawn:

(1) Minimum total energy consumption and minimum specific energy consumption in the cabinet-tray drying of okra can be obtained at drying conditions of high drying air temperature (70 °C), low drying air velocity (0.5 m/s), and low relative air humidity (60%). Maximum drying, energy, and exergetic efficiencies as well as maximum exergy sustainability index can respectively be attained at high drying air temperature of 70 °C, low drying air velocity of 0.5 m/s, and low relative air humidity of 60%.

(2) The assessment of the exergetic improvement potential rates showed that the insulation of the cabinet-tray drying chamber is very critical for higher performance at high temperature.

(3) The mathematically developed multiple linear regression model as a function of drying air temperature, drying air velocity, and relative humidity was significantly appropriate and adequate to predict the energy and exergetic parameters for convective cabinet-tray drying of okra. Also, the developed (multiple linear regression-Bi-G model) examined in this study can be applied as significant tools for predicting and estimating drying parameters, moisture content profiles, mass and heat transfer parameters, since prediction of these parameters and profiles is essential for practical drying applications, system design, analysis, and optimization.

(4) Drying air temperature of 70 °C, drying air velocity of 0.5 m/s, and relative humidity of 60% are the appropriate drying process conditions for okra convective cabinet-tray drying. However, further studies will be performed to carry out an optimization study to find the optimal energy and exergy for the drying process as well as to perform an exergoeconomic analysis to facilitate the improvement of the cabinet-tray dryer performance.

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