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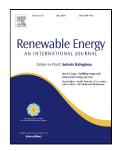
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Platforms planning and process optimization for biofuels supply chain

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Abstract

Sustainable biofuel supply chain is a key to sustainable manufacturing and the future of production. Greener production is now becoming an order qualifier for the global competition. Modeling biofuel supply chains that achieve economic, social, and environmental feasibility is a challenge. This article develops biofuel platform planning and optimization that unifies biofuel product, production process and networks design into an umbrella of sustainable supply chain planning. A design of biofuel supply chain networks under various production paths is considered. The modeling results show that an optimum region of composition ratio between rice straws and waste cooking oils can be set within the range from 0% to 50%. Bio-diesel is favored over ethanol by occupying over 40% of the total biofuel outputs. However, ethanol yield is 99.1% and therefore it is sufficient to be directly mixed with gasoline at final depots. In terms of social contribution, it is estimated that the supply chain contribution to the case country GDP is about 0.17%. Looking at the above statistics, future research on global economic impacts and competitiveness of biofuel production is suggested.

Keywords: biofuel; optimization; rice straws; used cooking oil; supply chains

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4 Abstract

1 2 3

5

Sustainable biofuel supply chain is a key to sustainable manufacturing and the future of 6 7 production. Greener production is now becoming an order qualifier for the global 8 competition. Modeling biofuel supply chains that achieve economic, social, and environmental feasibility is a challenge. This article develops biofuel platform planning and 9 optimization that unifies biofuel product, production process and networks design into an 10 umbrella of sustainable supply chain planning. A design of biofuel supply chain networks 11 12 under various production paths is considered. The modeling results show that an optimum region of composition ratio between rice straws and waste cooking oils can be set within the 13 range from 0% to 50%. Bio-diesel is favored over ethanol by occupying over 40% of the 14 total biofuel outputs. However, ethanol yield is 99.1% and therefore it is sufficient to be 15 directly mixed with gasoline at final depots. In terms of social contribution, it is estimated 16 that the supply chain contribution to the case country GDP is about 0.17%. Looking at the 17 above statistics, future research on global economic impacts and competitiveness of biofuel 18 production is suggested. 19

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21 22

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23 **1 Introduction**

This article aims to address the challenge of finding a sustainable solution of biofuel 24 supply chain design from possible sources of domestic used cooking oil and rice agriculture. 25 Without losing the generality of the proposed solution, Indonesia is taken as a case country 26 that has abundant resources of used cooking oil and rice field biomass. The reason is that 27 28 nowadays Indonesia has been steadily increasing internal oil consumption coupled with a 1/3 29 drop in domestic production, turning Indonesia into a net oil importer just 12 years after its peak of production. Indonesia has withdrawn from OPEC, because they have no more 30 exportable oil to offer the world market. Therefore, the biofuel production might transfer 31 Indonesian capability to return its position as an oil exporter. 32

Recently Indonesian policy is to mix 20% of biodiesel from palm oil with 80% of 33 petroleum diesel. Further increase of biodiesel content to 30% in future is also under way. 34 However, using fresh palm oil is less sustainable, since the supply chain has to compete with 35 36 household demand. Furthermore, this article would like to generate the circular economy to 37 convert wastes into more renewable energy. Recently, rice straws are less utilized and mostly burned or converted into fertilizer, which generates additional carbon emissions. 38 39 Most end users recycle palm oil that can deteriorate food consumers, which creates further 40 health care cost for the country. Therefore, we transform those by-products into energy.

For Indonesia as one of the largest palm oil exporters, oil palm waste could be an attractive option of biomass. However, we exclude the possibility due to several reasons.

43 First, even though Indonesia is a net paddy importer during the last 10 years, the country always increases its paddy production by average 3.5% per year [1]. As a result, the 44 increased capacity of paddy production also increases raw material supply for biofuel. 45 Second, unlike oil palm industry that is mostly situated in Sumatra (65%) and Kalimantan 46 (26%), rice fields in Indonesia spread across the archipelago, from Sumatra, Java, and 47 Sulawesi. Rice production data from Statistics Central Bureau (BPS) shows that rice 48 plantations are available in 34 provinces, which is more beneficial in distributing the 49 biomass and biofuel and therefore lower supply chain costs [2]. Third, from environmental 50 issues, in places such as Sumatra, in order to enable palm oil plantations, a hectare of 51 52 rainforest is destroyed and 174 tons of carbon emissions are released into the atmosphere, which destructs the ecosystems and violates our main objective of protecting the nature [3]. 53 Fourth, fermentation yield of oil palm waste such as empty fruit bunches is less than that of 54 rice straws [4]. In addition, Lahijani and Zainal [5] shows that H₂/CO ratio of empty fruit 55 56 bunches gasification is between 0.4 and 0.6, which is less than rice straws gasification (> 90%), which makes rice straws more appropriate than oil palm waste to produce liquid 57 biofuel. All of those reasons support our decision to use rice straws as a potential raw 58 materials of biofuel. 59

The choice between used cooking oil and rice straws as sources of biofuel are based on 60 the following reasons. Used cooking oils are available widely across the country with 61 regards to the consumption of the oils for daily cooking activities. In addition, according to 62 the National Academy of Sciences Proceedings, the potential of rice straw as a raw material 63 64 is that it may reduce the combine-climate-change and health costs from \$469 million to \$208 million [6]. Thus, the potential applications are vast, since the products can complement and 65 even substitute crude oil based fuels. For farmers, the opportunity of supplying biofuel plant 66 increases economic value of farmland by diversifying the outputs from land utilization to 67 fuels production. 68

While fuel production from biomass is promising, due to its technology complexity and 69 capital investment, biomass conversion to biofuel cannot directly be sold as transportation 70 fuel. It does not meet Euro-4 specifications, nor does it comply with any of the fuel 71 categories in the World-wide Fuel Charter. In academia, very few researchers have access to 72 unrefined Fischer-Tropsch (FT) products in sufficient quantities to do meaningful research 73 on Fischer-Tropsch refining. Studies in refining should ideally have both academic and 74 industrial significance. Furthermore, the naphtha, which is in the motor-gasoline boiling 75 76 range, has to be sold as paraffin's in the chemicals market, or as cracker feedstock, due to its 77 poor transportation fuel properties.

Some contributions on the modeling of biomass to biofuel production address the above challenge by increasing the quality of process. De Clerk [7] highlighted FT refinery design to optimize the production of on-specification motor-gasoline, jet fuel and diesel fuel from biomass. The FT receives input from biomass gasification of biomass. Other contributors assessed both technical and economic aspects of gasification in order to measure its environmental impacts [8]. You and Wang [9] did a techno-economic optimization in order to trade off among capital, operating, transportation, and storage costs of distributed

processing networks. The contribution highlights the importance of operational costs sharing 85 that considers not only biomass to liquids production but also liquids supply chain. Zhang et 86 al. [10] develop a simulation model of a biomass feedstock supply chain for a biofuel facility 87 in order to monitor the quality and moisture content, and to evaluate supply chain economic 88 performance and environmental impacts. Zhang et al. [11] developed a facility location 89 optimization model of biofuel facilities. The objective is to minimize inventory, travel 90 distance, energy consumption, and GHG emissions. The authors combine optimization and 91 simulation model in order to update costs and distance parameters. The solution of biofuel 92 93 supply chain design needs to consider both process and networks design.

94 For the country under study, the design of biofuel supply chain has another challenge in terms of the unreliability of supply chains infrastructure and suppliers. The first instance, 95 Indonesian farmers often use rice straws for fertilizer, feeding cattle, or even electricity 96 97 production [12]. Therefore, no commercial rice straws to biodiesel conversion but sugar cane 98 in Indonesia and even worldwide, can be used as references [13,14]. The second instance, while used cooking oils are mostly used for producing detergent or other forms of soaps, 99 most of them are re-used for cooking that leads to cancer disease. Those practices contribute 100 to air pollution in terms of releasing carbon dioxide to the atmosphere and non- safety food 101 102 distribution to the society. Therefore we could then generalize the challenge to raise a question on how can a bio-fuel supply chain give positive impacts on economic growth, 103 carbon emissions reduction and social development of local community. 104

105 To address those challenges, we propose a supply chain design for biofuel supply chains that accommodate flexible biofuel synthesis from two different sources of feedstock, 106 domestic used cooking oil, and rice agriculture. The supply chain includes 1) paddy 107 108 plantation and transportation, 2) used cooking oil collection and transportation, 3) woody biomass transportation, biomass processing, biofuel distribution. Supply chain optimization 109 is a way to realize long term vision of an organization towards sustainable production that 110 emphasizes on the environmental, societal and economic aspects of a firm's actions [15]. At 111 a glance, the inclusion of impact assessment leads to what is called circular supply chain 112 (CSC) and furthermore circular economy. In circular economy, any contributors to the 113 economic system must be able to return any disposed product into something recyclable. For 114 instances, 1) process waste must be able to be reused by the process, while the process must 115 be able to suffice its own energy needs taken from their by-products, 3) any process must be 116 able to be assessed in terms of their carbon footprint and energy consumption, and 4) the 117 118 supply chain must be able to generate sustainable economy in the area where the facilities 119 are established. Therefore, biodiesel supply chain must benefit to farmers, factory as well as employment and incomes in the country. 120

The remainder of this study is organized as follows: A discussion of the literature related to biodiesel conversion is presented in the beginning, after which the proposed CSC model is presented. Optimal control is used to optimize producer profit. Afterwards, the simulation result is presented, followed by the highlights of the managerial implications. Finally, this study presents a summary of the findings of the method and recommendations for its further development and practical application. 127

128 **2. Research methods**

A preliminary study of biofuel production from rice straws and used cooking oils in Indonesia is developed to assess supply chain sustainability. The reasons are provided as follows: 1) Consumption on cooking oils in Indonesia are ever increasing, 2) Rice straws are mostly burned after paddy harvesting and , 3) the country use less biomass than any other countries in the region, 4) None of biomass consumptions are used for generating liquid bio-fuels, which have a better economic value. Considering those reasons, Indonesia biomass assessment may results in fruitful implementation.

This article proposes unified product, process and supply chain planning to obtain 136 optimum configuration of biofuel supply chain. For alcohol platform, we follow the design 137 of rice-straws based ethanol from Kristianto and Zhu [16]. For biofuel from rice straws 138 platform, the scope of the study includes rice plantation and harvests, bio-fuel synthesis, and 139 logistics activities to deliver the product from farm lands to export terminals. For used 140 cooking oil supply chains, the scope of the study includes collecting activity, residues 141 transportation to the nearest biofuel plants, biofuel delivery storage facility and 142 143 transportation to export terminals, and shipping to customers depots.

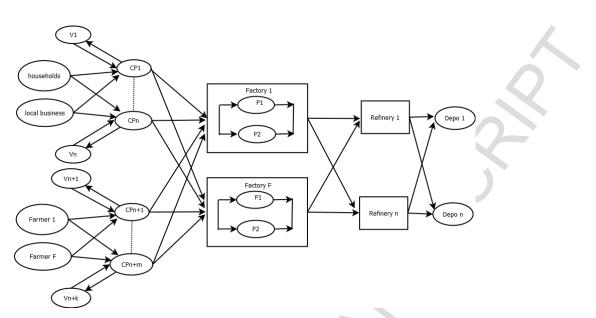
The supply chain process planning is solved by combining process synthesis simulation and optimization. Due to the nature of the rice fields, households consumption and biodiesel plant environments are changing over time, stochastic model of the supply chain planning is formulated to give a realistic representation about the system under studied.

148 The given information includes

149 1. Raw materials locations and availability ((mass and types)
---	------------------

- 150 2. Biofuel (and other byproducts) demand, specifications, and prices
- 151 3. Utility and other raw materials (e.g., hydrogen, acid, water, etc.) availability and
 152 prices
- 153 4. Delivery time windows of transporter, volumes and crude types of their loads
- 154 5. Configuration details (numbers of biofuel factory, crude distillation units (CDUs),
 155 storage tanks, jetties and their interconnections) of the supply chain
- 1566. Holdup in the pipeline and limits on flow rates from the biofuel station and jetties to157tanks and from tanks to CDUs
- 158 7. Limits on CDU processing rates
- 159 8. Storage tank capacities, their initial inventory levels and initial volume fractions of160 crudes in tanks
- 161 9. Information about modes of crude segregation in storage and processing
- 162 10. Information about impurities limits during storage and processing
- 163 11. Economic data such as sea waiting costs, unit transportation costs, operating costs,
 164 etc.
- 165 12. Production demands during the scheduling horizon. These are normally available166 from the monthly production plan of the refinery.
- 167 Determine:
- 168 1. A detailed routings schedule for each transporters

- 169 2. Inventory and composition profiles of storage tanks
- 170 3. Technical performances (yield, conversion, biofuel distribution).
- 171 4. Logistic networks with multi-modal transportation (ship, train, pipe, etc.).
- 172 5. Benefit to costs ratio of each platforms
- 173





175 Fig.1 System boundary of biofuel synthesis from used cooking oil and rice straws

176

Figure 1 shows how the supply chains works. Households, local food business, and farmers f $\in \{1,F\}$ are suppliers of biomass materials. A set of transporters collect the biomass from each collecting point CP_n $n \in \{1,N\}$ for farmland biomass, $m \in \{1,M\}$, and distributed them to several available processing factories F_F that has several technology options $p \in$ $\{1,P\}$, before finally sent to depots $n \in \{1,D\}$.

182

183 **2.1 Goal and scope definition**

Figure 1 shows the system boundary of the fuel synthesis from used oil and rice straws. The goal of this study is to assess the feasibility of global biofuel supply chain from biomass and used cooking oil. The assessment includes economic and environment impacts based on CO₂ and energy performance of production process from rice plantation or and from cooking oils collection to biodiesel transfer to user machines. The functional unit is one unit mass of raw materials. The scope of the study includes raw materials transportation, storage, production, crude fuels transportation, purification, final liquid fuels transportation and distribution.

191

192 2.1.1 Technology options of biodiesel synthesis

There are several options of synthesizing biodiesel, which offers several advantages and disadvantages in points of view of economy, environment and society. The first path is transesterification of palm oils that react with alcohol in the presence of potassium hydroxide (KOH) or sodium hydroxide (NaOH) as a catalyst that breaks down the oils into alkyl ester and releases glycerol [17]. The second path is the hydrogenation of oil palms that yield biodiesel through Ni, Mo or zeolite catalysts [18]. The third path is to use woody biomass or

farmland biomass as Fischer Tropsch (F-T) synthesis process raw materials, and hydrogenate
 the heavier hydrocarbons to produce lighter fractions such as biodiesel and gasoline [19].

This article constructs decision making models to choose at least one among those three alternatives. However, having more than one platform is also possible as long as economically feasible. Since sulfur content (19 % to 20 %) of rice straws might be harmful for the catalyst of syngas process, biomass based biodiesel process synthesis needs sulphur removal prior to FT synthesis [20].

206

207 2.1.2 Technology description of hydrocracking and Fischer Tropsch of biodiesel

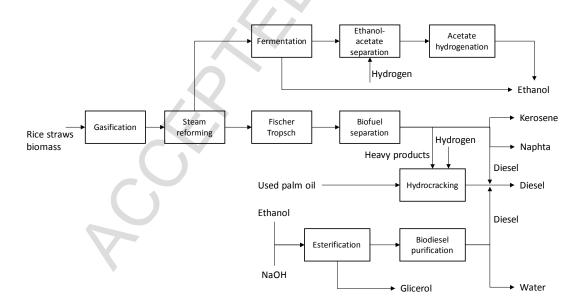
According to Figure 2, the first path is the transesterification of palm oils, converting the used palm oil into diesel directly. The byproduct of the process is glycerol and water that can be used as secondary products. There is no need to have raw material pretreatments that can reduce raw material size and clean it, as required by Fischer Tropsch (FT) process in the third path. The FT process is, however, not necessarily needed to convert cellulose and hemicellulose into simpler monomers, since all compounds will be converted into syngas.

The second and third paths convert biomass and waste palm separately. If the supply chain chooses both paths, heavy products from FT process enter (sulfide NiMo/Al₂O₃) at based catalyst hydrocracker at 237-357 °C [21]. Raw vegetable oil enters hydrocracker at 370 – 390 °C over conventional hydrotreating catalysts (sulfide NiMo/Al₂O₃), and has operating temperature 350 – 390 °C, depending on the products [18]. Therefore, each feedstock (rice straws and used palm oil) has its own hydrocracking facility, and thus they are not mixed during the conversion process.

The outputs of HC and FT are hydrocarbons of diesel, gasoline, and kerosene. However, prior to FT gasification is needed to produce syngas, and it was finally hydrogenated to crack

heavier hydrocarbons into smaller and shorter chain products. On the other hand, HC can be

- directly hydrocracked at a mild temperature and pressure to produce mostly the biodiesel.
- 225



226 227

Fig 2. Process flow diagram of ethanol synthesis from rice straw under sugar and syngas fermentation platforms.

230

231 **2.2 Biofuel supply chain model**

232

The supply chain is modeled to minimize total operating costs, from farmers to final biofuel blending operations.

235

236 2.2.1 Raw materials collection

Vehicle routing to pick up the raw materials from sources i to destination j. Transportation 237 costs are constrained by using a set of equations (1-7). Such a route from i to j can be only 238 passed once for each trucks of total available m trucks from a biofuel factory (1,2). Eqs. (3) 239 constraints the amount of BET transported by each ship from depot k to k', after observing 240 the demands at source DEM_k and destination $DEM_{k'}$ as well as ship capacity CAP. Eq. (4) 241 does not permit a vehicle backs to its original source without finishing the trip. Therefore at 242 minimum v(S) number of transporters must be used to visit all vertices S except the source 243 vertices $S \subset V' \setminus \{1\}$. Thus the trip is started by visiting vertices other than source $|S| \ge 2$ 244 (Eq. 5). The availability of transporter depends on the availability of production Y_{it} (Eqs. 245 6,7). The objective is to minimize total distance *Tot_col_cost*_{ii} as accumulation of individual 246 collecting cost, $ColCost_{ii}$ at a distance $Dist_{ii}$ (8) from i to j, where i,j are members of 247 vertice V. 248

$$\Sigma_{i=1} x_{jk} = m \tag{1}$$

(2)

(7)

$$250 \qquad \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} x_{kj} = m$$

$$251 \qquad Q_j = q_{jk} + \sum_k q_{kk'} \tag{3}$$

252
$$q_{kk'} = (q_{jk} + DEM_{k'} - CAP) + CAPx_{kk'} + (CAP - DEM_k + DEM_{k'})x_{k'k}$$
(4)

253
$$\sum_{i,i \in S} x_{ij} \le |S| - v(S)$$
 $S \subset V' \setminus \{1\}; |S| \ge 2,$ (5)

254
$$x_{ij} \in \{0,1\}$$
 $i,j = 1,..,n; i \neq j$ (3)

$$255 \qquad x_{ij} \le Y_{it}$$

256
$$Tot_col_cost_{ij} = \sum_{i,i \in V} Dist_{ij} ColCost_{ij} x_{ij}$$
 (8)

257

258 2.2.2 Biofuel factory decision

There are several options of biofuel process synthesis from biomass (Figure 2). The pathways include several stages of pre-treatment, that is followed by a sequence of Fischer Tropsch process and hydrocracking (FT process) and or hydrocracking process (HC). This article focuses on Fischer Tropsch process and hydrocracker modeling and optimization.

263 A. Syngas production for FT synthesis

For biodiesel production from rice straws, syngas is the main component of biofuel that is obtained from heating the biomass with hot streams of steam and air. The process includes pretreatment that reduce the size of biomass to be easier to transport and treat in a gasification reactor. The following steps include a gasification process that is followed by water shift gas (WGS) and steam reforming. The entire process from pretreatment to steam reforming can convert essentially all of the biomass, including lignin, to syngas.

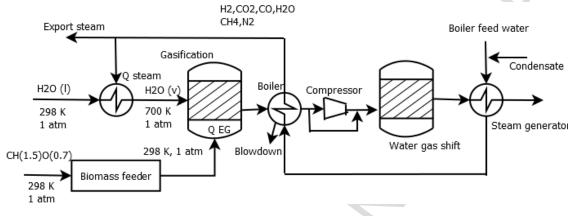
biomass + heat steam/air $H_2 + CO + CO_2 + CH_4 + C_nH_m + tars$

271 In specific biomass can be formulated as follows:

272
$$CH_{1.5}O_{0.7} + \beta H_2O + \gamma(O_2 + 3.76N_2) \rightarrow n_{CH4}CH_4 + n_{CO}CO + n_{CO2}CO_2 + n_{H2}H_2 + n_{H2O}H_2$$

273 $O + n_{N2}N_2$ (9)

- 274 The formula $CH_{1.53}O_{0.66}$ is obtained from C,H,O composition of rice straws [15]. We
- 275 consider only syngas components H_2 , CO, CO_2 , CH_4 to determine utilities demands (β , the
- 276 mole of steam per mole biomass, γ is mole oxygen and therefore $\frac{100}{21}\gamma$ moles of air per
- 277 mole biomass. Tars include many aromatic hydrocarbon but their quantity are significantly
- smaller than those main components. Therefore we exclude those from the calculation.



280 Fig 3. Syngas from biomass production

279

Prior to entering steam reformer, a steam generator produces steam by mixing boiler feed water (BFW) and condensate F from the water gas shift (WGS) reactor (Eq.10). The mixing temperature of both streams T_{mix} is further increased further to T_{int} after passing the mixture into a preheater so that additional heat from WGS reactor, $Q_{preheater}$ increases the temperature (Eq.11).

While some of boiler feed water is used in steam reforming, 5% blowdown is suggested to 286 keep the content of salt in the water not exceed the allowable limit (Eq.12). In addition, a 287 ratio of 2:1 for steam-methane inside WGS is considered to eliminate carbon deposit on 288 catalyst and therefore boiler feed water mass can be determined according to Eq. (13). Figure 289 290 3 of Mahishi and Goswani [21] is used to compose Eqs.(14-18). Eq. (19) calculates water fraction in the gasification outlet. Considering steam separator efficiency for process and 291 reformer, J_{SS} , condensate mass flows F_{cond} must equal to the water content of WGS stream 292 (Eq.20). The outputs of WGS, $F_{WGS,out}$, will be the input of solid separator, 293 $F_{Solid separator.in}$ (Eq.21). Steam separation efficiency *ESS* depends on separator temperature 294 T_{SS} and its steam partial pressure $P_{SS}y_{H_2O,WGSout}$ (Eq.22). Mixing temperature between 295 BFW and condensate, T_{mix}, is approximated from BFW temperature at 383 °C and 296 condensate temperature T_{SS} (Eq.23). Eqs.(24-26) bound operating temperatures in 297 industrial units [22]. 298

$$(F_{BFW} + F_{cond})Cp_{BFW}(T_{int} - T_{mix}) = Q_{preheater}$$
(10)

$$300 \quad Q_{preheater} = F_{WGS,out}C_p(T_{WGSout} - T_{SS}) \tag{11}$$

301
$$F_{BFW} = 1.05(F_{stm} + 2 \times 18(n_{CH_4, WGSin} + \beta_{WGSin}))$$
 (12)

$$302 \quad n_{H_20} = \beta_{H_20} - n_{C0} \tag{13}$$

$$303 n_{N2} = 0.79 \gamma_{O_2 + 3.76N_2} (14)$$

Produced steam is used in gasification that is followed by steam reforming or partial oxidation to eliminate hydrocarbons. This article uses steam reforming by considering that oxygen from air will also have nitrogen that needs more treatment during hydro-treating (HT) process as follows:

320 Steam reforming (SMR):

321
$$C_n H_m + n H_2 O \rightarrow n CO + \left(\frac{m}{2} + n\right) H_2$$
(27)

322 The energy balance across steam reformer can be formulated as follows:

323
$$(F_{BFW} + F_{cond})Cp_{BFW}(516 - T_{int}) + \left(\frac{F_{BFW}}{1.05} + F_{cond}\right)\lambda_{BFW} = Q_{Boiler}$$
 (28)

$$324 \qquad Q_{Boiler} = F_{GAS,out}C_p(T_{GASout} - T_{WGS,in})$$

Since the gas stream contains CO₂ and carbon, the stream is cleaned by using three different ways, hot cleaning, cold cleaning or partial swing absorber (PSA). In our simulation model, hot cleaning at 94 °C is used to remove also suspended solid.

(29)

328 The objective function of syngas plant-i is then formulated as follows:

$$Syngas_cost_i = \left(\frac{1}{Q_{Boiler}} + \frac{1}{n_{CO}} + \frac{1}{n_{H_2}}\right)_i$$

330

B. Syngas fermentation

332 Syngas gas fermentation is used to convert syngas into ethanol. The detail of the process 333 synthesis and heat-energy balances have been detailed in [16].

- 334
- 335 C. Fischer Tropsch model

336 During FT reactions, syngas is converted into hydrocarbons and their chains n growth at different rates r_n that depends on CO conversion rate, $-r_{CO}$, and probability of growth 337 α_n from chain length k to n [23] : 338

$$\begin{array}{l} 339 \quad -r_{C0} = 0.01 \times T - 2.01 \\ 340 \quad \alpha_n = \begin{cases} 0.292 & n = 1 \\ -0.0317n + 1.0362 & 2 \le n \le 7 \\ 0.8 & n \ge 8 \end{cases}$$

$$\begin{array}{l} 341 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{l} 300 \quad (30) \quad (31) \quad (31) \quad (32) \quad (32) \quad (32) \quad (33) \quad$$

(31)

342
$$-r_{CO} = \frac{r_1}{1-\alpha_1} \left(\sum_{i=1}^{N} \left(\prod_{j=1}^{i} \alpha_j \right) \right)$$

343
$$r_1 = \frac{0.001059P_{C0}^{-0.06}P_{H_2}^{1.32}}{\left(1 + 0.46^{P_H}2/P_{C0}\right)}$$

_ (1

344 While the above reaction rates has CO as a limiting reactant, by assuming constant volume reaction, FT reaction rate $-r_{FT}$ is linear correlated to r_{CO} and is calculated based on CO 345 and H₂ consumption, C_{H_2} , C_{CO} and absorption and reaction rates K,k as follows [24]: 346

$$347 - r_{FT} = \frac{kC_{H_2}C_{CO}}{(1 + KC_{CO})^2}$$

$$348 \quad k = 0.4 \exp\left(\frac{-37400}{RT}\right) \left[\frac{m^6}{kg_{cat}mols}\right]$$

$$349 \quad K = 5.10^{-9} \exp\left(\frac{68500}{RT}\right) \left[\frac{m^3}{mol}\right]$$

$$(32)$$

$$(33)$$

$$(34)$$

By the end of growth cycle, hydrocarbons mass fraction distribution can be calculated 350 according to the most well-known and simplest product distribution model is the 351 Anderson-Schulz-Flory (ASF) distribution given below 352

353
$$m_n = (1 - \overline{\alpha})\overline{\alpha}^{n-1}$$
 (35)
354 For $\overline{\alpha} = \left(0.233 \left(\frac{y_{CO}}{y_{CO} + y_{H_2}}\right) + 0.633\right) (1 - 0.0039(T - 533))$

Thus for methane, paraffin, gasoline, diesel, and wax have the following mass fractions: 355

356
$$m_{CH_4} = (1 - \overline{\alpha})$$
 (Methane)
357 $m_{C2-C4} = \sum_{n=2}^{n=4} (1 - \overline{\alpha}) \overline{\alpha}^{n-1}$ (paraffin's)
358 $m_{C5-C10} = \sum_{n=5}^{n=10} (1 - \overline{\alpha}) \overline{\alpha}^{n-1}$ (Gasoline)
359 $m_{C11-C17} = \sum_{n=11}^{n=17} (1 - \overline{\alpha}) \overline{\alpha}^{n-1}$ (Kerosene)

360
$$m_{C18-C24} = \sum_{n=18}^{n=24} (1-\overline{\alpha})\overline{\alpha}^{n-1}$$
 (Diesel)

361
$$m_{C25-C34} = \sum_{n=25}^{n=34} (1-\overline{\alpha})\overline{\alpha}^{n-1}$$
 (Wax)
362 (36)

Due to the fact that paraffin's and wax are not the main products, they must be cracked into 363 lighter products such as gasoline, kerosene and diesel. 364

The objective function of syngas plant-i is then formulated as follows: 365

$$FT_cost_i = \left(\frac{1}{Q_{Boiler}} + \frac{1}{n_{CO}} + \frac{1}{n_{H_2}}\right)_i$$

367

368 D. Hydrocracking for both FT synthesis and cooking oil hydro-treating

- Hydrocracking of FT synthesis and cooking oil hydro-treating products occur in different
 hydrocrackers. Furthermore, the outputs of both hydrocrackers enter refinery process to get
 diesel, kerosene, and naphtha.
- We use experimental data of Martin and Grossmann [19] for the conversion and selectivity of FT process into liquids as a function of the temperature. From the regression analysis, this article formulates products conversion from rice straws material as follows:

375
$$Conversion(\%) = \frac{1}{((-15.99418699 \times \ln T_{hydrocracker}) + 96.69166996)}$$
 (37)
376 $Diesel_{select(\%)} = -5.333545685.10^{-3}T_{discel} + 2.840289671$ (38)

$$\binom{-4196.195605}{T_{kerosene}}$$

377
$$Kerosene_{select(\%)} = 16877.53081e^{(7.1 kerosene)}$$
 (39)

$$378 \quad Naphta_{select(\%)} = 5173904.255e^{(1)} \qquad (40)$$

We use experimental data of Bezergianni et al. [18] for the conversion and selectivity of used cooking oil into diesel as a function of the temperature. The authors did a hydrocracking experiment that were performed at P = 2000 psig (13789.5 kPa), 350 K \leq T_{reaktor} \leq 390 K, LHSV = 1.5 h1 and H₂/oil ratio = 6000 scfb (1068 nm³/m³). From the experiment data regression analysis, this article formulates products conversion from rice straws material as follows:

385
$$Conversion(\%) = 1.795596872 \cdot 10^{-1} \ln(T_{hydrocracker} - 293.178567)$$
 (41)

386
$$Diesel_{select(\%)} = 3.023415023 \cdot 10^{-1} e^{398.7415509} / T_{hydrocracker}$$
 (42)

$$387 \quad Kerosene_{select(\%)} = -472.7896012 / T_{hydrocracker} + 1.402337459 \tag{43}$$

$$Naphta_{select(\%)} = -218.0836957 / T_{hydrocracker} + 0.6796343336$$
(44)

For each raw materials (rice straws and used cooking oil), the mass fraction of HC reactor products m_i are obtained by multiplying conversion% of mix products and specific product selectivity and input syngas M_{HC} . For 1 unit mass of oil, oil products $i \in$ (*Gasoline, kerosene, diesel, wax*) mass fraction can be determined as follows:

393
$$m_i = Conversion(\%)_i \times i_{select(\%)} \sum_{i \in HC} M_{HC}$$
(45)

394
$$M_{HC} = nCO \times MW_{CO} + \left(\frac{m}{2} + n\right)H_2 \times MW_{H_2}$$
(46)

Considering raw material composition between used cooking oil and rice straws, Eqs.(45-46)
 can be modified as follows:

397
$$m_{i} = \sum_{ricestraws, cooking oil \in RM} (Conversion(\%)_{i} \times i_{select(\%)} \sum_{i \in HC} M_{HC}) RM\%$$
398
$$M_{HC} = \sum_{ricestraws, cooking oil \in RM} \left(nCO \times MW_{CO} + \left(\frac{m}{2} + n\right) H_{2} \times MW_{H_{2}} \right) RM\%$$

- 399
- 400 While H₂ is the main compound to control reactor temperature and product yields, H/C ratio

401 1.9 is implemented to determine hydrogen consumption. Mohanty et al. [25] formulated H_2 402 consumption rate per unit mass of component j to be cracked into lighter component i as 403 follows:

$$(H_{2}/HC)_{j} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{i=j-2} \frac{m_{j}}{1 + (C/H ratio)_{i}} - \frac{1}{(C/H ratio)_{j}} \sum_{i=1}^{i=j-2} \frac{m_{j}(C/H ratio)_{i}}{1 + (C/H ratio)_{i}}}{\sum_{i=1}^{i=j-2} \frac{m_{j}(C/H ratio}{1 + (C/H ratio)_{j}} (1 + (1/(C/H ratio)_{j})))} j = kerosene, diesel, FT output$$
(47)

405

404

Since HC reaction is exothermic, temperature rise across HC reactor must be controlled in such a way that not exceed the upper limit of catalyst active temperature. Thus hydrocracking heat of reaction $\sum_{j \in J} \Delta H_{Rj}$ is calculated from reactants that is involved into cracking $j \in J$. The reaction heat is equal to heat of reactions of cracking products $i \in I$ that rises the temperature as a function of catalyst weight, W, at dT/dW.

411 The ΔH_{Rj} components are standard heat of reaction of heavier oils j that are cracked into 412 lighter oils I, and heat of reaction at reaction temperature ΔH_{Rj}^T . ΔH_{Rj}^T is composed from 413 product enthalpy plus hydrogen enthalpy minus lighter oil products enthalpy.

414
$$\sum_{j \in J} \Delta H_{Rj} = \Delta H_{Rj}^0 + \left(\sum_{i=1}^{j-2} \Delta H_i m_i - \Delta H_j (m_C + m_H) - \Delta H_{H_2} (H_2/HC)_j \right)$$
 (48)

415
$$(m_C)_i = Conversion(\%)_i \times i_{select(\%)} \frac{G_i}{G_i+1}$$

416
$$(m_H)_i = Conversion(\%)_i \times i_{select(\%)} \frac{1}{C_i + 1}$$

Hydrogen enthalpy at standard condition (25 C and 1 atm) and reaction temperature ΔH_{H_2} $= H_{H_2}^T - H_{H_2}^0$ are calculated from the available heat capacity data and regression data of heat capacity as a function of temperature. Heavier and lighter products enthalpy at reaction temperature and pressure is calculated from Peng-Robinson equation of state (EOS) and Lee and Kassler Table. Standard enthalpy is calculated from heat capacity data The specific heat of kerosene is 2.01 kJ/kg.K, diesel is 1.9 kJ/kg.K, naphta is assumed equal to gasoline at 2.1 kJ/kg.K, and hydrogen is 8.7 kJ/kg.K.

424 Thus temperature change dT per mass of catalyst dW, dT/dW is calculated as follows [20]:

$$425 \qquad dT/dW = -\sum_{j \in J} \sum_{\Sigma_{j \in J} m_j} \Delta H_{Rj} k_{Rj} / \sum_{i \in J-2} m_i C p_i$$
(49)

426
$$k_{Rj} = 10^7 \exp(21000/RT_{reactor})$$

- 427 $(0.494 + 0.0052T_{BPi} 0.00002185T_{BPi}^2 + 0.000000321T_{BPi}^3)$
- 428

For R = 8.314 J/mol.K, $T_{reactor}, T_{BPi}$ are reactor and boiling temperature of lighter product i (K). Since HC occurs in a plug flow reactor, catalyst weight is related to its geometry (volume, weight, porosity, etc).

(50)

432

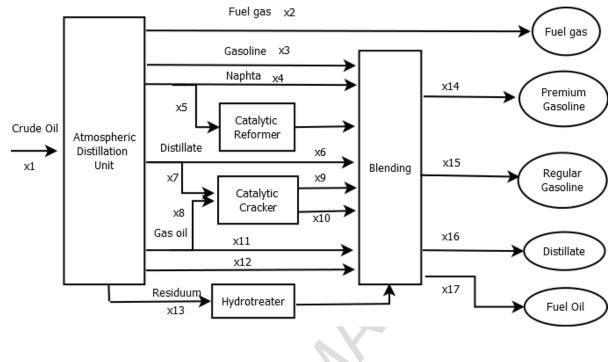
433 E. Product upgrading

Product upgrading is an effort to get a higher purity of biofuel. The process includes crude
oil distillation and hydrogen treatment to get a higher product purity. From Crude
Distillation Unit simulation by DWSim simulation software, it is obtained that condenser

- 437 and reboiler duties are 285 kW/kg and -225.44 kW/kg respectively and optimal HC product
- 438 compositions is obtained from 15 stages atmospheric distillation.

439 In addition to reboiler and condenser duties, hydrogen consumption for product upgrading,

440 FT synthesis, and hydro-cracking can be modeled according to the flows shown in Figure 4.



443 Fig 4. Process flow of oil refinery [21]

444

441 442

In our problem, processing units are $U \in \{ADU, CR, CC, HT, BL, FG, PG, RG, D, FO\}$, where 445 ADU= atmospheric distillation unit, CC = catalytic cracker, CR = Catalytic reformer, HT 446 =Hydro-treater, BL = Blending, are used to process crude oil $S \in (S_1, S_2)$, S_1 = rice straws, S_2 447 = used cooking oil, that contains compounds $C \in (FG = Fuel gas, PG = Premium gasoline,$ 448 RG=Regular gasoline, D= Distillate, FO = Fuel oil) according to process $P \in (AD =$ 449 Atmospheric distillation, CCR = Catalytic cracking, CRF = Catalytic reforming, HTR = 450 Hydro-treating, CCG = Catalytic cracking of gas oil, BLD = Blending). The final product as 451 $FP \in (FGP = Fuel gas, PGP = Premium gasoline, RGP = Regular gasoline, DP = Distillate,$ 452 FOP = Fuel oil).453

454 Mass balance constraints can be used for replacing g(x). Mass balance constraints are 455 obtained from [26], in terms of composing matrix elements, $A_{C,S,p}$, that represents yields of 456 product C, either from crude oil S or intermediate products C', that enter process p [21].

457
$$x_{C/C'} = A_{C,S,p} x_{S/C'}$$
 (50)

458

In addition, logical constraints are assigned (i.e., $Y_i = 1$) only if unit u_S is operated and capable of doing specific process p. with an input-output coefficient matrix. Variable u_S is the total incoming mass of component c within crude oil S, and $PROD_{p,S}$ is the production capacity of component of crude oil S in a process p. The following equation (51) can be associated to logical constraint [21].

464
$$\sum_{p} A_{C,S,p} PROD_{p,S} + u_{S} \ge 0$$

(51)

(53)

Similarly, the intermediate products C' from crude oil S are mixed to produce final products 465 C a level *BLENDING*_{C'SC}, with other intermediates has the following material balances 466 before entering blending process [21]. 467

468
$$\sum_{p} A_{C',S,p} PROD_{p,S} + u_{S.} - \sum_{p} A_{C',S,p} BLENDING_{C'SC} \ge 0$$
(52)

Thus transportation capacity of final products are equal to blending capacity [21]. 469

470
$$TRANSPORT_{C} = \sum_{S} \sum_{p} A_{C,S,p} BLENDING_{S,CI,FP}$$

471

In addition to material balance, quality balance is also considered to achieve quality standard 472 of final products, in terms of quality attribute based on crude oil source and intermediate 473 product, $\alpha_{CI.S.O}$. Thus the quality balance can be written as follows [21]: 474

475
$$\sum_{C} \sum_{S} \alpha_{C.S.Q} \times \frac{\sum_{S} \sum_{p} A_{C',S,p} BLENDING_{C'SC}}{TRANSPORT_{C}} \ge Quality_{FP.Q}^{LB}$$
476 (54)

476

Since not all processes p ($p \in P$) can be utilized by each processing unit U ($u \in U$), total 477 processing capacity of the unit u, K_u is the summation of its individual processing capacity 478 at certain crude oil S, Z_{pS} , in a condition that the unit is capable of doing process p, Y_{pU} 479 480 = 1.

$$481 \qquad \sum_{p} Y_{pU} \sum_{S} Z_{pS} \le K_u \tag{55}$$

It is also noted that shipping of crude oil from crude oil synthesis plant cannot exceed 482 transportation capacity, u_{S}^{UB} . 483

$$484 u_S \le u_S^{UB} (56)$$

Thus the profit function of crude oil refining plant can be formulated as the selling price of 485 the final product C, p_C , minus purchasing of crude oil and intermediate products, $p_{S'}p_{C'}$, 486 and processing cost at processing unit u, Cp_p [21]. 487

488
$$\pi_{BLENDING} = \sum_{C} p_{C} x_{C} - \sum_{S} p_{S} u_{S} - \sum_{C'} \sum_{S} p_{C'} u_{C'S} - \sum_{p} C p_{p} \sum_{S} Z_{pS}$$
489 (57)

48

Processing cost depends on steam to reforming process and hydrogen consumption that are 490 used to upgrade the quality of final products. Steam reforming needs steam to be reacted 491 with biomass to produce hydrogen. The detail of steam reforming is modeled by using 492 DWSIM 4.0 by taking methane (CH₄) as a hydrogen source. Methane is obtained from top 493 product of crude oil distillation. Hydrogen is produced by producer units (PU) in 1) 494 Hydrogen plant (H₂) and 2) catalytic reformer (CR), and consumed by Hydrocracker (HC), 495 diesel hydrotreater (DHT), kerosene hydrotreater (KHT), cracked naphtha hydrotreater 496 (CNHT), naphtha hydrotreater (NHT), and Hydrodealkylation (HDA). Thus consumer units 497 (CU) are HC, DHT, KHT, CNHT, NHT, and HAD. There is about 5 percent weight (5 % wt) 498 of hydrogen needed by the overall hydro-treating (HT) process. 499

F. Hydrogen management 500

Hydrogen is used in three phase of hydro-treating, 1) Feed and hydrogen mixing, 2) Reaction
(hydrotreating or hydrocracking), and 3) Flash separation. Reaction in the reactor removes
sulphur, nitrogen and metals content and meanwhile saturates olefins and some aromatics.

During the reaction, C1-C4 compounds are also formed within a range 1 - 4 % wt. Hydrogen 504 consumption for each consumer units are based on Lambert et al. [27] and the results of flash 505 506 calculation (how much to go to gas stream and liquid stream). K-values are necessary to be found prior to the calculation of hydrogen and hydrocarbons (i = Naphtha, diesel, kerosene, 507 and wax) vapor-liquid equilibrium across refinery networks. This article uses Wilson 508 509 formulation that requires critical temperature (Tc_i) and pressure (Pc_i) and compressibility factor (ω_i) . By considering computational complexity and negligible influence of 510 hydrocarbon compositions, K-values can be assumed to be constant. The composition of 511 512 liquid x_i and vapor y_i are therefore:

513
$$\sum_{i} x_i K_i = 1, \quad \sum_{i} y_i / K_i = 1$$

For each production unit u, crude oil from rice straws is assumed contains 0.5 - 0.8% of Nitrogen and 0.05 - 0.1% of Sulphur. In addition, crude oil from used cooking oil is assumed contains 0.003% of Nitrogen and 0.01% of Sulphur. For simplicity, used cooking oil Nitrogen and Sulphur contents are ignored. By assuming that Nitrogen and Sulphur are distributed evenly into hydrocarbon products, the composition of those compounds do not change in each streams.

In 1 unit mass of hydrocarbon products, there are 0.5 - 0.8 unit mass of Nitrogen and 0.05 - 0.1 unit mass of Sulphur. Each 1 mole of Sulphur (MW = 32) and Nitrogen (MW = 14) requires 1 mole of H₂ (MW = 2). Thus for 1 unit mass of hydrocarbon products, hydrogen demand for hydrodesulphurization and hydrodenitrogenation is $\left(\frac{0.05}{32} + \frac{0.5}{14}\right) \times 2 \le H_2 \le$

- 524 $\left(\frac{0.1}{32} + \frac{0.8}{14}\right) \times 2$ that is about 14.876 % of the total hydrogen consumption. Thus there is
- 525 572% more consumption for other processes (hydrocracking, and saturation) [22].
- In addition, the reactors produce C1-C4 occurs during hydrogen injection within a range 1 4 % wt of oil feed F_u . If the composition of F originally is z_{iu} , then for each 1 unit mass of hydrocarbon i, hydrogen is produced as much as %*wt*.*H*₂ [27], the vapor mass V_u and liquid mass L_u at each producer unit u, together with its compounds vapor-liquid composition ($y_{iu}x_{iu}$) can be formulated as follows:

531
$$F_u z_{iu} = x_{iu} L_u + y_{iu} V_u$$

532
533

$$V_u = ((C1 - C4)\% + \%wt.H_2) \times F_u + \sum_i y_{iu}F_u$$

 $L_u = F_u - V_u$

534 The hydrogen purity at producer unit u, q_u is therefore as follows:

535
$$q_u = \frac{\% wt.H_2 \times F_u}{V_u}$$

536

537 Considering that hydrogen production from catalytic cracker cannot meet hydrogen demand, 538 another source of hydrogen from biomass is provided which produce 99,99% pure H_2 539 through header h. The gas is mixed with hydrogen from production units PU (i.e., catalytic 540 cracking, vacuum gas oil flash) (Eq.60). The amount of hydrogen supplied to process unit

(58)

(61)

(62)

541 U \in {PU,CU}, Q_u^{UB} , Q_u^{LB} and its purity q_u^{UB} , q_u^{LB} is however are limited at a certain level of 542 upper and lower bounds (Eqs.58 & 59).

543
$$Q_u^{LB} \le Q_u \le Q_u^{UB}$$

544
$$q_u^{LB} \le q_u \le q_u^{UB}$$
(59)
545
$$Q_u = \sum_{u \in u} Q_{ub} + \sum_{v \in u} Q_{u'e}$$
(60)

545
$$Q_u = \sum_{h \in H} Q_{uh} + \sum_{u \in CU} Q_{u'e}$$

546 Hydrogen is supplied to hydrogen header h, Q_h by both production unit PU, Q_{uh} and 547 consumer units CU, $Q_{u'h}$.

548
$$Q_h = \sum_{u \in PU} Q_{uh} + \sum_{u' \in CU} Q_{u'h}$$

From a header h, hydrogen is delivered to production units and the excess is purged to fuel gas refinery FGR, $Q_{h.FGR}$ (Eq.62). Therefore there is no accumulation of hydrogen mass inside headers.

552
$$Q_h = \sum_{u \in PU} Q_{hu} + Q_{h.FGR}$$

The quality of hydrogen from header h, q_h is determined by the quality of hydrogen production unit u, q_u , and the quality of hydrogen that is produced by consumer units u', $q_u^{o\mu t}$. Thus the actual hydrogen mass flows at a header h, $Q_h q_h$, is the summation of the two previous streams (Eq.63).

557
$$Q_h q_h = \sum_{u \in PU} Q_{uh} q_u + \sum_{u' \in CU} Q_{u'h} q_{u'}^{out}$$
(63)

558 The total supply of hydrogen Q_u^{in} , is the accumulation of hydrogen supply from production

unit *u* to consumer unit *u*' and vice versa, $Q_{uu'}$ and $Q_{u'u}$, from header to both consumer unit *u*' and producer unit *u*, Q_{hu} .

561
$$Q_{u}^{in} = \sum_{h \in H} Q_{hu} + \sum_{u' \in PU} Q_{u'u} + \sum_{u' \in CU} Q_{u'u}$$
(64)

562 If the quality of the product is included, the actual mass flows of hydrogen supply can be 563 formulated as follows:

564
$$Q_{u}^{in}q_{u}^{in} = \sum_{h \in H} Q_{hu}q_{h} + \sum_{u' \in PU} Q_{u'u}q_{u'} + \sum_{u' \in CU} Q_{u'u}q_{u'}^{out}$$
(65)

565 Similarly, the excess hydrogen and its quality, is formulated as follows:

566
$$Q_u^{out} = \sum_{h \in H} Q_{uh} + \sum_{u' \in CU} Q_{uu'} + Q_{u.FGR}$$
 (66)

567
$$Q_{u}^{out}q_{u}^{out} = \sum_{h \in H} Q_{uh}q_{u} + \sum_{u' \in CU} Q_{uu'}q_{u'}^{out} + Q_{u.FGR}q_{u}$$
(67)

For each consumer units CU, H_2 /Oil ratio $Ratio_u$ is determined in advance based on input oil at each consumer unit x_U [27], and the following equation holds.

570
$$Q_u^{in} q_u^{in} \ge Ratio_u x_U \tag{68}$$

571 In order to get better product quality, the quality of hydrogen input to consumer units must 572 be higher than the output quality of the units.

573
$$q_u^{in} \ge q_u$$
 for $u \in CU$ (69)

574 Finally, the objective of hydrogen management is to minimize costs of quality as well as 575 production.

576
$$C_{H2} = \sum_{u \in U} OC_{Q_u} + OC_{P_u}$$
 (70)

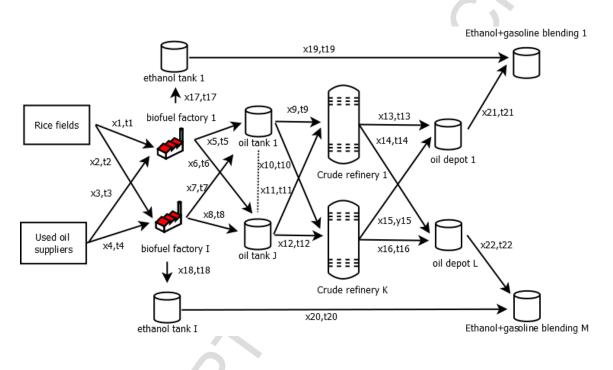
577 Eqs.(58-70) are used to manage the use and production of hydrogen in a hydrocarbon 578 refinery.

579

580 2.2.5 Supply chain design

The SC design include transportation planning, inventory planning, product planning, 581 production and delivery planning. Transportation planning determines raw materials and 582 products routings as well as the amount of delivery vehicle used by the supply chain, 583 inventory planning determines safety stock allocation for each products, product planning 584 determines how much to produce biofuel (diesel, gasoline, jet fuel), production planning 585 determines how much to produce biofuel and orders raw materials, and delivery planning 586 determines timing and directions of biofuel delivery. The inventory planning can be 587 optimized with regards to minimum. 588







591

592 Fig 5. Supply chain networks of biofuel from biomass and used cooking oil

593 We follow supply chain design formulation by Kristianto and Gunasekaran [28]. Figure 5 594 is the superstructure of biofuel supply chain. There are two options of transportation mode, 595 ship and train. We follow a model of ship and train scheduling [28].

Suppose we have a set of feasible vehicle routings Ω that consists of location vertices V^r 596 and transportation arcs A^r at a specific route r, to compose a directed graph $G^r = (V^r, A^r)$. 597 For each G^r , there are two possible decisions. The graph can be chosen as a route to transport 598 biofuel by vehicle $v \in V$ from source τ to destination τ ', that arrives at destination τ ' after 599 taking a journey at known lead times T_{rv} (therefore binary variable $\phi_{vr} = 1$ and $\phi_{vr} = 0$ 600 for otherwise) at transportation cost $tcost_{vr}$, by allowing backorders are allowed between τ 601 and τ ' as many as $BO_{\tau\tau'}$. The transportation time T_{rv} cannot exceed the maximum allowable 602 arrival time b_{ν} . In addition to direct routes, transshipped routes that pass intermediate 603 destination $\tau 1$ are allowed and indexed within feasible set of extreme points p of $\forall p \in \rho_{\tau\tau'}^r$ 604 for direct routes and $\forall p \in \rho_{\tau\tau 1\tau'}^r$ for transshipped routes. By combining feasible routes and 605

- vehicle, at period t, the feasible route can be rewritten as $Z_{\tau\tau'\nu t}^r$. Finally, due to working hours regulation, the number of visited port is limited to φ_{τ} .
- 608 Kristianto and Gunasekaran [28] establishes the following set of constraints for ships 609 scheduling and transportation mode choice.

$$\begin{array}{ll} 610 & \sum_{v \in V} \sum_{r \in \rho_{rr}^{r}} \sum_{t \in T} VH_{vr} \geq \sum_{r(\tau, \tau')} \rho_{\tau\tau'}^{r} & (71) \\ \\ 611 & \sum_{v \in V} \sum_{L \in \rho_{rr}^{r}} \sum_{t \in T} VH_{\tau L} \leq VMAX_{\tau} & (72) \\ \\ 612 & \sum_{r first_{rr'} \in \rho_{rr}^{r}} \sum_{v \in V} VH_{vr} = \sum_{rlast_{rr'} \in \rho_{rr}^{r}} \sum_{v \in V} VH_{vr} & (73) \\ \\ 613 & \sum_{v \in V} \sum_{r \in \rho_{rr}^{r}} \sum_{t \in T} T_{rv} \phi_{vr} \geq a_{\tau'} & (74) \\ \\ 614 & \sum_{v \in V} \sum_{r \in \rho_{rr}^{r}} \sum_{t \in T} T_{rv} \phi_{vr} \leq b_{\tau'} & (75) \\ \\ 615 & \sum_{r \in \rho_{rr}^{r}} \text{DIRECT}_{r(\tau, \tau')} + \sum_{r \in \rho_{rr1}^{r}} \text{TRANSSHIP}_{r(\tau \tau 1 \tau')} + BO_{\tau\tau'} = DEM_{\tau't} & (76) \\ \\ 616 & \sum_{r \in \rho_{r0}^{r}} \text{TRANSSHIP}_{r(t0\tau t1)} = \sum_{r \in \rho_{r1}^{r}} \text{TRANSSHIP}_{r(\tau \tau 1 \tau')} = \sum_{r \in \rho_{r1\tau}^{r}} \text{DIRECT}_{r(t, \tau')} & (77) \\ \\ 617 & \sum_{r \in \rho_{r0}^{r}} \text{DIRECT}_{r(\tau, 0, \tau)} + \sum_{s \in 1} prob(s) DEM_{\tau 1t} + \sum_{r \in \rho_{r0}^{r}} \text{TRANSSHIP}_{r(t0\tau \tau 1)} = \\ \\ \\ 618 & \sum_{v \in V} PAYLOAD_{v} VEHICLE_{vrt} - Z_{r\tau} & (78) \\ \\ 619 & \sum_{r \in \rho_{r0}^{r}} \text{DIRECT}_{r(\tau, \tau')} + \sum_{r \in \rho_{r1\tau}^{r}} \text{TRANSSHIP}_{r(\tau 1 \tau')} + \sum_{r \in \rho_{r1\tau}^{r}} \text{DIRECT}_{r(\tau, \tau')} - \sum_{r \in \rho_{r1\tau}^{r}} \text{DIRECT}_{r(\tau, 1, \tau)} - \\ \\ \\ 619 & \sum_{r \in \rho_{r0}^{r}} \text{DIRECT}_{r(\tau, \tau')} + \sum_{r \in \rho_{r1\tau}^{r}} \text{TRANSSHIP}_{r(\tau 1 \tau')} + \sum_{r \in \rho_{r1\tau}^{r}} \text{DIRECT}_{r(\tau, \tau)} - \\ \\ \\ \\ 619 & \sum_{r \in \rho_{r1\tau}^{r}} \text{DIRECT}_{r(\tau, \tau')} + \sum_{r \in \rho_{r1\tau}^{r}} \text{TRANSSHIP}_{r(\tau 1 \tau \tau)} + \sum_{r \in \rho_{r1\tau}^{r}} \text{DIRECT}_{r(\tau, \tau)} - \\ \\ \\ \\ \\ \end{array}$$

Eq.(71) states that the number of ships or trains in use to deliver from τ to τ' at period t, *VH_{vr}*, cannot less than the number of feasible routes $\rho_{\tau\tau'}^r$ but cannot higher than the amount of available vehicle, *VMAX_{τt}* (Eq.72). At any location τ and route r, the number of vehicle must be equal between arrival and departure (Eq.73). For any vehicle that passes through a certain route r, the vehicle cannot deliver product before the earliest arrival time at location τ' , $a_{\tau'}$ (Eq.74) and the latest arrival $b_{\tau'}$ (Eq.75).

The demands at destination τ 'and period t, $DEM_{\tau't}$, can be met from direct delivery from 629 source τ , DIRECT_{r(τ,τ')}, transshipped delivery TRANSSHIP_{r($\tau\tau 1\tau'$)}, through location $\tau 1$, or from 630 previous period backorder from source τ , $BO_{\tau\tau'}$ (Eq.76). All products delivered to a 631 certain transshipment point $\tau 1$ must be delivered directly to final destination τ ' (Eq.77). 632 The amount of products that are moving in the supply chain networks must not exceed the 633 capacity or payload of the vehicle after being compensate by its allowance $Z_{r\tau}$ (Eq.78). The 634 unused capacity of a vehicle that gives service to both direct and transshipped routes must be 635 available to negate backorders (Eq.78). Eq.(79) states that backup capacity must be available 636 to cover possible future backorders. Eq.(80) decides on safety stock of total product at 637 location τ to cover demand variations at destination τ ' through route r. towards destination 638 639 τ ' at a certain delivery lead times, T_{rv} .

640 The supply chain objective is formulated as follows:

642

643

$$SC_{cost} = \sum_{r \in Rv} \sum_{v \in Vt \in T} shipcost_{v} shiptime_{rv} VH_{vrt} + Y_{r(n_1,n_2)} \sum_{r \in \Omega} \sum_{\rho_{\tau\tau}^r \in \Omega} DIRECT_{r(\tau,\tau')} + S_{r(\tau,\tau')} * q + (1 - \phi_{r((\tau,\tau'))}) \sum_{r \in \Omega} \sum_{\rho_{\tau\tau}^r \in \Omega} TRANSSHIP_{r(\tau,\tau1,\tau')}.q$$
(81)

Finally optimization model of biofuel supply chain is formulated as follows:
$$\min Tot_col_cost_{ij} + Syngas_cost_iFT_cost_i + SC_{cost} + C_{H2} - \pi_{BLENDING}$$

(82)

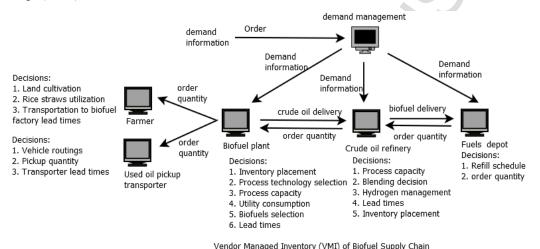
644 645

646 Subject to : Eqs.(1) - (81).

647

648 2.3 Information exchange and decision making process in the supply chain

- 649 The following flowchart describes the solution process of biofuel supply chain modeled by
- 650 Eqs.(1-74).



651

Fig 6. Supply chain information and decisions flows

The supply chain demand information can be distributed so that each location can make their own decision based on the information. In that way, each location can decide by itself various local decisions that would not impacts the entire supply chain. There are two types of variables, integer that are related to supply chain, transportation and biofuel production networks design, and continuous that are related to process variables, order quantity, inventory placements, hydrogen management and lead times decisions. The details of the algorithm is exhibited in Appendix A.

660

2.3 Model data

Various sources of data for raw materials for instances Samuel [29] presented the
 mechanism of rice straws collection from farmers to collecting points. In addition Statistical
 Central Bureau of Indonesia provides data of used cooking oil suppliers, rice straws price.

In distributing the refined oil, this article uses logistics data of five main PERTAMINA depots, Plumpang, Semarang, Surabaya, Manggis, and Tanjung Gerem (Tables 1 to 4), oil refinery location is listed in Table 5 [30].

668

669 Table 1. Location indexes [30]

Location	Location number	Location	Location number
Indramayu	1	Tj. Gerem	6
Bojonegoro	2	Pengapon	7
Cilacap	3	Surabaya	8
Balongan	4	T.T Manggis	9
Tuban	5	IJG	10

670

Table 2. Distances from Biofuel Refinery Points to Destination Depots (Ranked) [30]

	TgGerem	Jakarta	Semarang	Surabaya	TTManggis
Cilacap	1	2	3	4	2
Balongan	3	1	2	4	5
Tuban	5	4	2	1	3

Table 3. Distances from Biofuel Plants to Refinery Plants (Ranked) [30]

	Cilacap	Balongan	Tuban	
Indramayu	2	1	3	
Bojonegoro	2	3	1	

673

Table 4. Vessel Capacity and Costs [30]

Depot	Kl	Transportation cost/kL (Rp)
MR1	34000	130
MR2	34000	130
MR3	34000	130
MR4	34000	150
pipeline	18000	100

675

Table 5. Supply Lead Time Uncertainty Calculation Summary [30]

Depot	Average Lead Time (Loading & Voyage in days), d _i	σL	a _i	b _i
Tj. Gerem	4		0	76.125
Pengapon	4		0	76.125
Surabaya	4		0	76.125
T.T Manggis	4		0	76.125
IJG	4	Uniform(1;2)	0	76.125
Cilacap	4		0	72.125
Balongan	4		0	72.125
Tuban	4		0	72.125
Indramayu	4		0	4
Bojonegoro	4		0	4

677 In Table 5, the supply chain considers delivery lead times uncertainty as a parameter of

678 delivery time windows.

679 **3. Results and Discussion**

The objective of this section is to exhibit the performance of supply chain networks with regards to the following performance measures:

- 1. Technical analysis with regards to the available references
- 683 2. Economic analysis of each platforms
- 684 3. Logistics cost and carbon emissions
- 4. Supply chain impacts to gross domestic product (GDP)
- Therefore raw materials supply, biofuel synthesis, and supply chain are three major areas that are concerned. The following three sub-sections analyze those three areas according to their performance measures.
- 689

690 **3.1 Raw materials supply**

691 Optimization model Eqs.(82) is solved with regards to Eqs.(1-81) by changing the 692 percentage of used cooking oil as a raw material. The results are fitted to get an equation as 693 follows:

$$\frac{logistics + RM costs}{ton raw material} = -2979 \times \ln (\% cooking oil in raw materials) + 19007$$

(83)

695

The data fitting has coefficient of determination 98,98 % and that's means waste cooking oils content in raw materials is meaningful to be analyzed since the variable has a strong correlation with both logistics and raw materials costs. The value implies that the use of cooking oil in addition to other raw materials (i.e., straws) could reduce the total costs of the biofuel supply chain.

However, Figure 7 reveals the fact that if the materials composition rice straws and waste 701 cooking oils is over 1:1, logistics and raw material costs of the supply chain would be 702 reduced significantly. Thus, an optimum region of composition ratio between rice straws and 703 waste cooking oils can be set within the range from 0% to 50%. The supply chain can use 704 the composition range as a decision variable in order to cope with supply uncertainty. For 705 instance, whenever the rice straws supply decreases due to some reasons such as seasonal 706 supply, the supply chain can add more percentage of used cooking oil into the composition 707 of raw materials, and vice versa. 708

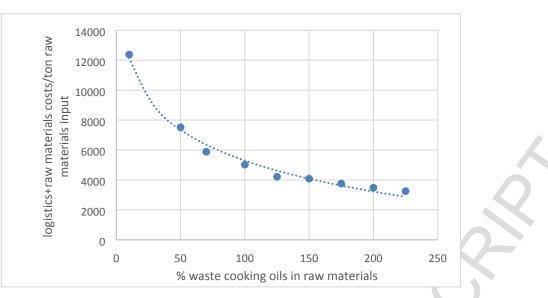


Fig 7. Raw material logistics and procurement costs at different used cooking oil-rice strawsratio

712

709

713 **3.2 Biofuel synthesis plant**

714 In a processing facility the following operations variables for syngas, FT synthesis HC 715 reactor, and distillation towers are suggested.

- 716
- 717
- 718
- Table 6. Operations variables of the syngas of oils from 1 mole rice straws (Gasificationplatform)

Variables	Value
variables	Value
T gasifier (K)	1375
T mix (K)	561.6
CO ₂ in syngas (mol)	0.72
H ₂ in syngas (mol)	0.21
CO in syngas (mol)	0.29
H ₂ O in syngas (mol)	0
CH ₄ in syngas (mol)	0.05

- 721
- Table 7. Optimum operating condition of Fischer-Tropsch reactor of oils from rice straws(Gasification platform)

Fischer Tropsch Reactor	Calculation	Martin and Grossmann [14]
Reactor outlet	533	493.15
CH ₄ (% mass)	4	0
Parrafin (% mass)	9.9	0
Gasoline (% mass)	26.8	50

Diesel (% mass)	34.8	50
Wax (% mass)	24.5	0
Selectivity to diesel (%)	74	83
H_2/CO ratio	1.8	1.7
Probability of chain growth	0.879	0.91

724

Table 8. Optimum operating condition of hydrocracker of oils from rice straws (Gasification 725

platform) 726

Hydrocracker reactor	Calculation	Mohanty et al [20]	Plant Data
Hydrogen feed mass flow	0.015	0.015368	0.017815
Reactor outlet	668.15	693	714
Gasoline (% mass)	16.5	16.17	15.8
Diesel (% mass)	62.8	48.7	50.5
Kerosene (% mass)	24.6	30.53	29.4
lighter products (% mass)	1.00E-05	4.51	4

727

728

Table 6 lists operating condition required to produce syngas at maximum hydrogen and CO vields. In addition the formation of methane is reduced since the gas does not have any 729 benefit to syngas yield. Similarly Table 7 and 8 exhibit suggested optimum conditions of 730 Fischer Tropsch and hydrocracker that slightly different to literatures [19,25] and plant data. 731 The discrepancies are due to the differences of raw materials (switchgrass, vs rice straws), 732 catalysts, and hydrogen consumptions. Nevertheless, the differences are still within the 733

allowable ranges, for instances FT reactor temperature range (623 - 668 K), and 734 hydrocracker reactor H₂ consumption. The output composition depends on the value of $\overline{\alpha}$, as 735 well as H₂ and CO mole ratio. Therefore, raw material H,C and O composition are the main 736 737 factors in determining the operating conditions of FT synthesis.

In addition to gasification and used oil hydrocracking platforms, the following fermentation 738 platform is used to produce ethanol as an alternative clean energy source (see Figure 5). 739 Gasification is used to produce syngas that can be converted into ethanol by fermentation 740 [16]. Table 9 shows standard operating conditions to synthesize ethanol by syngas platform. 741 The conditions are simulated by using DWSIM software to obtain technically acceptable 742 outcomes. While ethanol yield is 99,1%, it is sufficient to be directly mixed with gasoline at 743 final depots. Therefore the next section of product upgrading is only implemented for 744 non-ethanol biofuel. 745

746

Table 9. Operations variables of the syngas fermentation platform 747

Variables	Value
T gasifier (K)	1375
T mix (K)	561.6
CO2 in syngas (mol)	0.724
H2 in syngas (mol)	0.211
CO in syngas (mol)	0.288

H2O in syngas (mol)	0
CH4 in syngas (mol)	0.049
CO uptaking rate mmol/gr enzyme.h)	0.376
Ethanol yields mM/h)	1.121
Acetic acid yields (mM/h)	18.814
Clostridium Ljunhdahlii bacteria growth rate (h ⁻¹)	0.87
Ethyl acetate conversion to ethanol	0.991

748

749 **3.3 Product upgrading**

750 In addition to oils synthesis operating conditions, the following product upgrading is

necessary to produce higher purity of biofuel. The data of flash calculation [31] and the
 following composition of product blending is obtained.

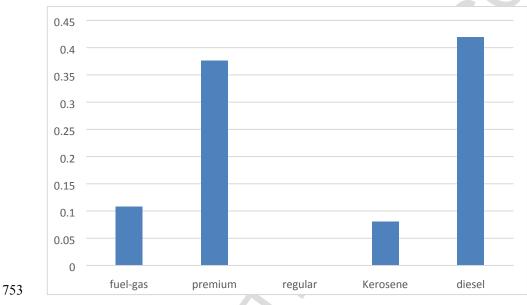
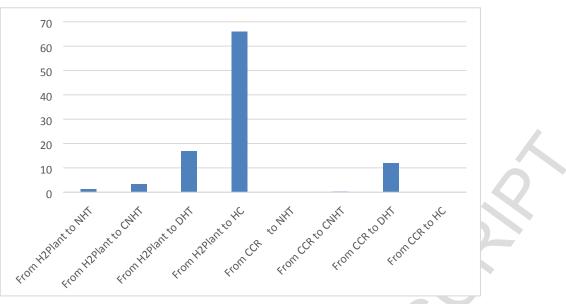


Fig 8. Blending composition of refinery outputs

755



756

Fig 9. Hydrogen allocation (in percentage) of refinery

Table 10. Utility consumptions from alcohol and hydrocarbons platforms

	Ethanol, Kayleen et al. [32]	Hydrocarbons, Wang et al. [33]
Steam (kJ/kg)	6.80E+00	6.49E+02
Electricity (kJ)	4.47E+02	1.07E+02
Process water (gallons/ton rice straws)	3.24E+02	0.00

- Table 10 shows that ethanol has less energy demands from steam. However, the platform has
- also less fuel market share than hydrocarbons.

761 **3.4 Product distribution**

- 762 From logistics point of view, transportation routings cluster delivery of ethanol across the
- country according to Table 9 and Table 10 to minimize both transportation costs and carbonemissions. Both results warrant the availability of fuel at minimum inventory levels and
- 765 transportation costs.
- Table 11. Transportation routings from biofuel plant to fuel depots

Transportation	1st stop	2nd stop	3rd stop
planning	location	location	location
Transport itinerary 1	1	5	4
Transport itinerary 2	2	3	4
Transport itinerary 3	3	10	4
Transport itinerary 4	3	7	6
Transport itinerary 5	4	6	9
Transport itinerary 6	4	6	10
Transport itinerary 7	4	7	10
Transport itinerary 8	6	5	6
Transport itinerary 9	6	8	7
Transport itinerary 10	7	6	9
Transport itinerary 11	9	5	3
Transport itinerary 12	10	4	2

768 **3.5 Summary of economic and social perspectives**

Table 10 shows that the operations benefit to costs ratio of ethanol surpasses hydrocarbons. However, if economic competitiveness is taken into consideration, the result would be the reverse. Moreover, diesel has a competitive advantage over ethanol in terms of environmental benefit. A question on how to manage both products needs an explanation from game theory model that explain firms actions to satisfy sustainability aspects of sustainable production [15].

Let suppose that ethanol needs to be mixed with gasoline with a ratio 0.1. Figure 7 shows that only 27 % of raw materials (from rice straws only) can be converted into ethanol. In addition Table 10 exhibits that gasoline account for 37.6 % of total outputs. By assuming that ethanol is only supplied to biofuel depots, this implies that at maximum 3.76 % of biomass can be converted into ethanol and 96.24 % into hydrocarbons. In this case, ethanol is diesel competitor but a complementary product of gasoline.

781 While ethanol price is slightly cheaper than diesel but higher than gasoline, it plays a crucial 782 role in determining the selling prices of diesel and gasoline. For an example, the following 783 Cournot game when ethanol plant has a cost advantage over hydrocarbons, where c1 < c2784 and so that firm profits are

 $\pi 1 = aq1 - bq12 - bq1q2 - c1q1$

786
$$\pi 2 = aq2 - bq2 2 - bq1q2 - c2q2$$

Cournot game is adopted due to the fact that both diesel and ethanol are substitutes. The decision is determined based on the availability of products, rather than price level. Thus by solving the first-order conditions (FOC) of profit maximization simultaneously, then the Cournot equilibrium can be obtained as follows:

791
$$q1 = \frac{a - 2c1 + c2}{3b}, q2 = \frac{a - 2c2 + c1}{3b}, p = \frac{a + c1 + c2}{3}$$

792
$$\pi 1 = \frac{(a - 2c1 + c2)^2}{9b}, \ \pi 2 = \frac{(a - 2c2 + c1)^2}{9b}$$

793

In economic perspective, the above equations mean that 1) equilibrium price is achieved by considering both products prices, 2) and production levels and profits are determined by operating costs difference between diesel and ethanol.

Considering operating costs, utility consumptions of hydrocarbons is less than ethanol (Table 10). The fuel required for steam and electricity generation is derived mainly from process wastes which include: refinery gas, residual fuel oils (fuel oil, vacuum wastes and asphalt wastes) and FCC coke [33]. This implies that operating costs of diesel is less than ethanol and therefore should be produced more over ethanol. Therefore, the biofuel production might return Indonesia position as an oil exporter.

Another determinant of choosing platform is that carbon emission level. In crude oil refinery the yield of CO_2 is 0.33 kg/kg crude oil [34]. On the other side, CO_2 yield is between 3 Kg CO_2 /liter ethanol and 3.24 Kg CO_2 /liter ethanol. By considering ethanol density is 789

kg/m³, the yield is between 3.8 Kg CO₂/Kg ethanol and 4.1 Kg CO₂/Kg ethanol [35]. From logistics cost, in one hand, oceangoing chemical tankers range from 5,000 tonnes deadweight (DWT) to 35,000 DWT in size. On the other hand, crude oil can be shipped at capacity 80,000 to 550,000 DWT. This implies that transport capacity of oil tanker is much larger than ethanol carrier. In conclusion ethanol global shipping might be considered carefully prior to execution due to the above factors and therefore hydrocarbons from biomass is a more attractive option.

The social contribution analysis measures the impact of the biofuel supply chain on the 813 country national development. From social responsibility perspective, the ethanol supply 814 chain contributes to job creation. Solecki et al [36] estimated per gallon basis, a million 815 gallons of production capacity generates 2.24 permanent jobs, 10.29 construction jobs, and 816 nearly 15 indirect jobs and nationally contribute to 0.09 % of GDP to chemical industry 817 sector. On the other hand, crude oil refinery, based on a study of South Africa oil refinery 818 data, employs 0.98 employee/barrel or 31394.7 jobs per million gallons. The information 819 signifies that by taking average salary of employee is 700 US\$ and total income of oil 820 821 industry, then the supply chain contribution to the country GDP from oil industry is about 0.17 %. 822

In concluding this section, hydrocarbons from mix materials of used oil and biomass is more promising economically and gives the supply chain a higher level of sustainability.

825

826 **4.** Conclusions

The proposed modeling is capable of providing an alternative solution of unified product and 827 platforms planning within an umbrella of supply chain management. The solution considers 828 economic, environmental and social impacts of the supply chain that brings some 829 implications to management decision making. One of them is that the model guides 830 831 management to control biofuel production process at a certain level of operational standard and utility consumptions (Tables 6 - 10). The implementation of the control yields product 832 quality and blending (Figure 8) by consuming optimum utilities, which minimize the level of 833 carbon emissions. The operational control also benefits to both supply chain and society by 834 835 adding more employment that contributes to GDP.

The present contribution highlights the following results. 1) Biofuel platform planning and 836 products distribution give positive impacts on economic growth, carbon emissions reduction 837 and social development of local community. 2) Hydrocarbon biofuel are favored over 838 ethanol in minimizing overall carbon emissions and utility consumptions, 3) The 839 contribution of biofuel supply chain to the country GDP may increase the biofuel supply 840 chain sustainability. In concluding our discussion, we proposes recommendation for future 841 research that might enhance and generalize the results of this article. For instance, the 842 development of decision support tools that embeds the sustainable biofuel supply chain on 843 energy grid in such a way that supports sustainable industry. 844

In terms of scientific contributions, we develop a new algorithm that can solve the complexity of platform planning and process optimization (see Appendix A). Our simulation

shows that the model can calculate Fischer-Tropsch reactor and hydrocracker optimum operating conditions close enough to the experimental results (Tables 7 and 8). Furthermore, combining process platform and supply chain planning is necessary to consider problem complexity and complicacy, which is formulated in such a way that computational tool can address the challenge. In conclusion, our generic model could be a starting point to unify product, process and supply chain design for biofuels.

Further research may investigate a number of remaining issues. The supply chain should involve biomass supply networks to mitigate supply disruptions and biofuel price fluctuations. In addition, the extension to global operations of biofuel supply chain may be useful to be investigated as well.

857

858 Appendix A: Mixed integer nonlinear programming (MINLP) model

The solution method can be summarized by following model of mixed integer nonlinear programming (MINLP):

861
$$\max_{x,y} f(x) + f(y) + f(x,y)$$

862 s.t: $g(x) + g(y) + g(x,y) \le 0$

863
$$h(x) + h(y) + h(x,y) = 0$$

The objective function (A1) represents either profit maximization or cost minimization. 864 For most of cases, inequality constraint (A2) is used to represent quality bounds (lower or 865 upper) and equality constraint (A2) for material balance along the process flows. In each 866 objective (1a) and constraints (A2,3), the first two terms stand for integer variables f(y), g867 (y),h(y) (i.e., choice of machines, production sequence, etc) and continuous variables f(x)868 g(x)h(x) (i.e., flow rates, temperatures, pressures, mixing ratio, etc). The last terms, f 869 (x,y),g(x,y),h(x,y) are complicating variables and may be correlated and therefore 870 non-convex. There are many efficient methods for solving the first two terms but not the 871 non-convex and correlated terms. The following subsections propose solution strategies for 872 handling non-convex variables and solving the formulation. 873

874 2.3.1 Model of variables f(x,y), g(x,y), h(x,y) convexification

The nonconvex variables can exists in forms of polynomial and/or signomial variables in the objective functions and constraints.

While the polynomial and/or signomial variables is exists in Eq.(A1), it should be transformed according to the results of convex analysis. The nonlinear transformation constraints for the geometric variables are first rewritten based on formulation in [37]:

Property 1: the system of
$$ae^{(r_1x_1 + ... + r_nx_n)}$$
 is convex for R_n^+ , $a \ge 0$, and $r_n \in R$

$$x_1^{-1}x_2^{-1}...x_n^{-n}$$

- Property 3: the system of $ax_1^{s_1}x_2^{s_2}...x_n^{s_n}$ is convex for R_n^+ , $a \le 0, s \ge 0$, and $\sum_n s_n \le 1$
- 884
- Proofs: $ax_1^{s_1}x_2^{s_2}...x_n^{s_n}$ can be rewritten as $ae^{(s_1\ln x_1) + ... + (s_n\ln x_n)}$. The ln function is concave

(A1)

(A3)

(A2)

886 on R_n^+ . It is therefore the value of *a* must be negative to change it to convex function 887 (Property 3). While any exponential function is always convex and increasing on R (Property 888 1), the division of two convex functions is another convex function (Property 2).

Based on three properties of signomial terms [37], a signomial part of $Z_{ij} = x_i^a x_j^b$ requires variables transformation to replace each non-convex terms from x_i^a to X_i^1 and from x_j^b to X_j^1 in the objective function and constraint in with a convexunderestimation of it and then finding the solution of the convex relaxation (Properties 4 and 5) based on formulation in [37]. The relaxation will not interfere convex part of the objective function and constraints in Eqs.(2a,2b).Therefore the gaps between original and relaxed problems cannot exceed the allowable error ε (Property 6).

Property 4: $h^{CONV}(x_i,Z)$, $g^{CONV}(x_i,Z)$ be convex $\forall x \in \{x^L, x^U\}$. Property 5: $h^{CONV}(x_i,Z) \le h(x_i)$, $g^{CONV}(x_i,Z) \le g(x_i)$ Property 6: $\forall x \in \{x^L, x^U\}$ for $\varepsilon \ge 0$, $\exists \{x^L, x^U\} \subseteq \{x^L, x^U\}$ with $\delta(\varepsilon) = ||x^u - x^l||_2^2 > 0$ such that $h^{CONV}(x_i,Z) - h(x_i) \le \varepsilon$.

The underestimation of original problem (1) by transformation according to properties 1 to 3 is followed by property 4 to 6 to get piecewise linear approximation of the original problem. The discretization needs variable bounds as follows:

(A4)

906
$$e^{\sum_{i \in I} r_{ij} \ln (x_i)^L} < e^{\sum_{i \in I} r_{ij} \ln (x_i)} < e^{\sum_{i \in I} r_{ij} \ln (x_i)}$$

While $e^{\sum_{i \in I} r_{ij}.\ln(x_i)}$ is nonlinear, the understimation of $e^{\sum_{i \in I} r_{ij}.\ln(x_i)}$ can be formulated by replacing $\sum_{i \in I} r_{ij}.\ln(x_i) = Y_j$ and $e^{Y_j} = Z_j$ and finding linear interpolations (LI) of $e^{a.\ln(x_i)}$, as follows:

910
$$e^{Y_j} \ge Y_j^L + \frac{Y_j - Y_j^L}{Y_j^U - Y_j^L} (e^{Y_j^U} - e^{Y_j^L})$$
 (A5)

The right hand side (RHS) is is the under-estimator and linear relaxation $Rel(e^{\sum_{i \in I} r_{ij}.\ln(x_i)})$ of the original signomial equation $e^{\sum_{i \in I} r_{ij}.\ln(x_i)}$, which has difference value to its original. The difference between left hand side (LHS) and RHS of Eq.(LI-1) reachs maximum at Y_j $= \sum_{i \in I} r_{ij} \ln x_i^{diff^{max}}$, where the maximum distance between RHS and LHS of Eq. LI-1 can be formulated as follows:

916
$$diff_{i}^{max} = e^{Y_{j}} - Y_{j}^{L} - \frac{Y_{j} - Y_{j}^{L}}{Y_{j}^{U} - Y_{j}^{L}} \left(e^{Y_{j}^{U}} - e^{Y_{j}^{L}} \right)$$
(A6)

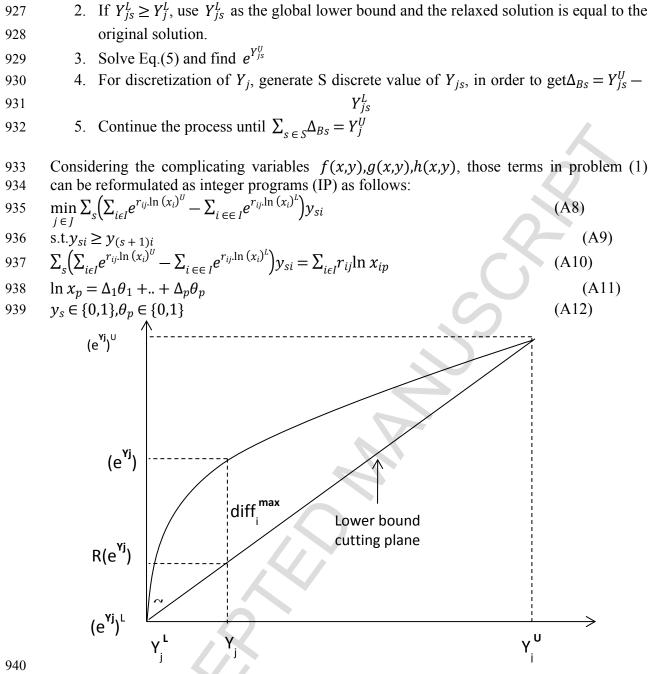
While Y_j^L and $e^{Y_j^L}$ are known, Y_j^U and $e^{Y_j^O}$ can be obtained iteratively by setting $diff_i^{max}$ as the allowable error between original and relaxed solution.

919 The values of $Y_j^U - Y_j^L$ is equal to incremental steps s = 1 to S are employed to get local 920 upper bound at step s, $Y_{ijs}^U = \sum_{i \in I} r_{ij} \ln (x_{is})^U$. Each step s has length $\Delta_{Bs} = \sum_{i \in I} r_{ij} \ln (x_{is})^U$ 921 $-\sum_{i \in I} r_{ij} \ln (x_{is})^L$ and at the next iterations s+1, the upper bound at step s to be the lower 922 bound, $Y_{ijs}^U = Y_{i(s+1)}^L$. Eq.(4) can be reformulated as follows:

923
$$diff_{is}^{max} = e^{Y_{js}} - Y_{js}^{L} - \frac{Y_{js} - Y_{js}^{L}}{Y_{js}^{U} - Y_{js}^{L}} \left(e^{Y_{js}^{U}} - e^{Y_{js}^{L}}\right)$$
(A7)

- 924 The discretization steps can be summarized as follows:
- 925 1. Set the allowance $diff_{is1}^{max}$ and find Δ_{Bs} and $e^{Y_{js}^{U}}$ by solving

926
$$diff_{is}^{max} = e^{Y_{js}} - Y_{js}^{L} - \frac{Y_{js} - Y_{js}^{L}}{Y_{js}^{U} - Y_{js}^{L}} \left(e^{Y_{js}^{U}} - e^{Y_{js}^{L}}\right)$$



940 941

Fig A1. A construction of piecewise linear approximation based on $dif f_i^{max}$

Three incremental variables from pre-processing steps are used as decision parameters. If incremental step s+1 is chosen to be positive $(y_{(s+1)i} = 1)$, incremental steps s and the following steps before s are also chosen to be positive $(y_{si}, y_{(s-1)i}, ..., y_{s1} = 1)$ (Eq.A9).

946

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Highlights

1. Biofuels platform planning and optimization was developed.

2. A case study of biofuels supply chain under various production paths was conducted.

3. The combined raw materials increase the supply flexibility and supply chain responsiveness.

4. Hydrocarbon biofuels are favored over ethanol in minimizing overall carbon emissions.