

**A Novel Mathematical Modelling Platform for Evaluation of a Novel Biorefinery Design  
with Green Hydrogen Recovery to Produce Renewable Aviation Fuel**

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**Abstract**

A novel integrated biorefinery system consists of 1) pyrolysis of biomass into gas, bio-oil and char; 2) bio-oil hydrodeoxygenation and hydrocracking (hydroprocessing) producing renewable jet fuel and small chain alkanes; 3) alkane steam reforming and pressure swing adsorption (PSA) producing green hydrogen and carbon monoxide; 4) mixed ionic electronic conducting membrane (MIEC) splitting high pressure superheated steam (HPSS) into green hydrogen and oxygen; and 5) combined heat and power generation (CHP) using pyrolysis gas and carbon monoxide from PSA as fuel with oxygen from MIEC, to fulfil the demand for HPSS and electricity. Comprehensive mathematical models are shown for the design simulation of the integrated system: 1) kinetic model of biomass slow and fast pyrolysis at temperature 300-500°C, 2) stoichiometric chemical reaction model of hydroprocessing, 3) renewable aviation fuel property correlations from its chemical compositions for the ASTM D7566 standard, 3) mass and energy balance analyses of the integrated biorefinery system. Economic value and overall avoided environmental and social impacts have been analysed for sustainability. The ratios of mass and energy flowrates between biomass, bio-oil, renewable jet fuel, CHP-fuel, char and hydrogen are 1.33:1:0.45:0.3:0.16:0.05 and 1:0.82:0.7:0.41:0.14:0.22, respectively. For 10tph bio-oil processing, the capital cost of the plant is \$14million, the return on investment

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is 19% and the cost of production of renewable jet fuel is \$0.07/kg, which is lower than its market price, \$0.27/kg. This production can curb 108 kt CO<sub>2</sub> equivalent and 1.44 PJ fossil energy per annum. To enable the biorefinery simulation, user-friendly open-source TESARREC™ <https://tesarrec.web.app/sustainability/bio-jet-fuel> has been developed.

**Keywords:** Sustainable aviation fuel from biomass (SAF), net zero greenhouse gas emissions, renewable energy directive, green hydrogen economy, techno-economic analysis and LCA, computer-aided process design and integration

## Nomenclature

### Variables for kinetic modelling of biomass pyrolysis

$A$	Arrhenius equation parameter for $k_2 = k_0 \exp\left(-\frac{A}{RT}\right)$
$k_0$	Arrhenius equation parameter for $k_2 = k_0 \exp\left(-\frac{A}{RT}\right)$
$k_1$	rate constant producing gas from biomass pyrolysis (primary reactions)
$k_2$	rate constant for producing bio-oil from biomass pyrolysis (primary reactions)
$k_3$	rate constant for producing char from biomass pyrolysis (primary reactions)
$k_4$	rate constant for the secondary reactions converting bio-oil from the primary reactions into gas and bio-oil
$m_B(t)$	mass fraction as a function of time ( $t$ ) of biomass
$m_G(t)$	mass fraction as a function of time ( $t$ ) of gas
$m_O(t)$	mass fraction as a function of time ( $t$ ) of bio-oil
$m_C(t)$	mass fraction as a function of time ( $t$ ) of char
$m_{C,\infty}$	mass fraction of char in steady state conditions
$R$	ideal gas constant, 8.314 J mol <sup>-1</sup>
$T$	reaction temperature in K

### Variables for mass balance analyses

49	<i>Aceticacid</i>	mass flowrate of acetic acid in bio-oil
50	<i>AlkanestoReforming</i>	mass flowrate of alkanes formed in hydroprocessing
51		(hydrodeoxygenation and hydrocracking) reactions and reacted
52		in steam reforming reaction
53	<i>Bcyclohexane</i>	mass flowrate of n-butylcyclohexane in renewable jet fuel
54	<i>Bicyclohexyl</i>	mass flowrate of bicyclohexyl in renewable jet fuel
55	<i>BiooilThroughput</i>	mass flowrate of bio-oil as the basis of mass balance analyses in
56		the proposed model
57	<i>Cisdecalin</i>	mass flowrate of cis-decalin in renewable jet fuel
58	<i>COtoCHP</i>	mass flowrate of CO from PSA to CHP
59	<i>Dextrose</i>	mass flowrate of dextrose in bio-oil
60	<i>Diamantane</i>	mass flowrate of diamantane in renewable jet fuel
61	<i>Diphenyl</i>	mass flowrate of diphenyl in renewable jet fuel
62	<i>Dmebenzene</i>	mass flowrate of 1,2-dimethyl-3-ethylbenzene in renewable jet
63		fuel
64	<i>ExcessSteam</i>	mass flowrate of excess steam produced from the site to export
65	<i>Formicacid</i>	mass flowrate of formic acid in bio-oil
66	<i>Furfural</i>	mass flowrate of furfural in bio-oil
67	<i>Heptane</i>	mass flowrate of n-heptane in renewable jet fuel
68	<i>HydrogenfromReforming</i>	mass flowrate of hydrogen produced from alkane steam
69		reforming
70	<i>HydrogenfromSteam</i>	mass flowrate of hydrogen needed to be produced by MIEC
71	<i>HydrogenNeeded</i>	mass flowrate of hydrogen needed in hydroprocessing
72		(hydrodeoxygenation and hydrocracking) reactions
73	<i>Hydroxyacetone</i>	mass flowrate of hydroxyacetone in bio-oil

74	<i>Mcyclohexane</i>	mass flowrate of methylcyclohexane in bio-oil
75	<i>MIECFeed</i>	mass flowrate of steam fed to MIEC
76	<i>OxygenfromSteam</i>	mass flowrate of oxygen produced from MIEC
77	<i>Pcyclohexane</i>	mass flowrate of n-propylcyclohexane in renewable jet fuel
78	<i>Phenol</i>	mass flowrate of phenol in bio-oil
79	<i>PhenoltoTridecene1</i>	fractional reaction conversion of phenol into 1-tridecene in
80		Reaction 1 in Equation 5
81	<i>PhenoltoTridecene2</i>	fractional reaction conversion of phenol into 1-tridecene in
82		Reaction 7 in Equation 5
83	<i>Pxylene</i>	mass flowrate of p-xylene in renewable jet fuel
84	<i>SteamProduced</i>	mass flowrate of steam produced in hydroprocessing
85		(hydrodeoxygenation and hydrocracking) reactions
86	<i>Thnaphthalene</i>	mass flowrate of 1,2,3,4-tetrahydronaphthalene in renewable jet
87		fuel
88	<i>Tmbenzene</i>	mass flowrate of 1,2,3-trimethylbenzene in renewable jet fuel
89	<i>Tmcyclohexane</i>	mass flowrate of 1- <i>trans</i> -3,5-trimethylcyclohexane in renewable
90		jet fuel
91	<i>Tmheptane</i>	mass flowrate of 3,3,5-trimethylheptane in renewable jet fuel
92	<i>Tridecene</i>	mass flowrate of 1-tridecene in renewable jet fuel
93	<i>Triethylbenzene</i>	mass flowrate of 1,2,4-triethylbenzene in renewable jet fuel
94	<i>Water</i>	mass flowrate of water present in bio-oil
95	<i>Xylenol</i>	mass flowrate of 2,5-xylenol in renewable jet fuel
96		

## Introduction

The COP26 summit is aimed at accelerating actions towards the goals of the Paris Agreement and the UN Framework Convention on Climate Change to meet the net zero greenhouse gas emissions target (COP26, 2021). Biorefineries can attain net zero or even carbon negative targets by displacing fossil-carbon based economy (Sy et al., 2018; Leong et al., 2019), by the provision of food, personal and home care products, and energy and water services, while effectively responding to changing supply and demand conditions and offering economic feasibility and life cycle sustainability (Sadhukhan et al., 2018; Sadhukhan et al., 2019). Sustainable biomass is wastes, residues, and non-food cellulosic and lignocellulosic feedstocks, which can avoid conflicts with food or feed production, and land use for forestation (Popp et al., 2014; Nanda et al., 2015). These are categorised into five different groups 1) agricultural and forestry residues, 2) garden wastes: leaves, green plant materials, grass silage, empty fruit bunch, immature cereals, 3) oily residues: waste cooking oils and animal fat, 4) aquatic biomass: algae and seaweed, and 5) organic residues: municipal waste, manure and sewage (Sadhukhan et al., 2014). Amongst these, lignocellulosic biomass is the most abundant (Cai et al., 2017). Lignocellulosic biomass consisting of cellulose (38-54% by mass), hemicellulose (24-36%) and lignin (15-25%) can be found in plant cell walls (Sadhukhan et al., 2014; Sadhukhan et al., 2020) and thus in agricultural, forestry, garden, and food wastes (Ebikade et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2021).

A biorefinery must be an integrated industrial system embedding process systems engineering or process integration (Ng et al., 2015) for high-efficiency flexible conversion of biomass feedstocks into multiple added-value products (Sadhukhan et al., 2014; El-Halwagi, 2017). Process integration allows meeting all material and energy resource needs by thermodynamic matching between source and sink processes within the biorefinery system (Dimian et al., 2014; Leong et al., 2019). This makes the integrated biorefinery system robust and self-sustainable

least reliant on external supplies. The best way to design and evaluate an optimal integrated sustainable biorefinery system is by computer-aided mathematical modelling of the entire system (Ling et al., 2019; Gutiérrez-Antonio et al., 2020).

The aviation sector is in desperate need of renewable fuels for greenhouse gas negative or neutral performance (Zhang et al., 2020). For example, in the UK, in 2019, the entire energy demand of air transport is met from fossil resources (BEIS, 2021). Sustainable aviation fuel (SAF) can be produced from sustainable biomass in an integrated self-sustainable biorefinery system. The biorefinery design must be sustainable to effectively replace petroleum refineries. To date, the literature has focused on the core reactions. The recovery of green hydrogen, oxygen, heat and electricity within the biorefinery to meet or exceed their demands for producing SAF has largely been neglected. To close this gap, this research develops a novel integrated self-sustainable biorefinery system with the in-process recovery of green hydrogen, oxygen, heat and electricity etc. to meet or exceed their demands to produce SAF.

The two SAF producing technologies supported by the ASTM D7566 standard (ASTM D7566, 2020) are based on the Fischer-Tropsch liquid (FT) synthesis (Ng and Sadhukhan, 2011) and hydroprocessing technologies (Sadhukhan and Ng, 2011; Liu et al., 2017). Sustainable biomass that can be processed through these two technologies includes lignocelluloses and oily residues. FT synthesis, invented in the early 20<sup>th</sup> century, is operated at a large scale to transform gas or solid into liquid fuel (Sadhukhan et al., 2014). Compared to the FT synthesis process, the hydroprocessing technologies offer more flexibility in terms of the scale of operation and type of biomass feedstock (Zacher et al., 2014; Romero-Izquierdo et al., 2021), which are important due to the difficulty of its transport logistics over long distances and seasonality affecting its available quantity and quality (Sadhukhan et al., 2014). Self-sustainability of the hydroprocessing technologies is an intriguing challenge because of its high hydrogen demand to make SAF or renewable jet fuel. Only less than half of the total hydrogen need of

hydroprocessing can be met by steam reforming of alkanes from hydroprocessing (Sadhukhan and Ng, 2011). The remaining hydrogen requirements are met from crude oil refinery through blue or grey hydrogen sourcing (Jones et al., 2009; Zacher et al., 2014). More recent publications have considered external hydrogen import for hydroprocessing (Martinez-Hernandez et al., 2019; Romero-Izquierdo et al., 2021). These processes are inevitable to fail economically and environmentally if they are to buy (blue or grey) hydrogen (and energy) from fossil resources to fulfil their demands. This is the main bottleneck to the industrial uptake of the technology despite the legislative pull. This paper shows a compelling novel integrated biorefinery case by its inherent sustainability through in-process green hydrogen and energy integration for the industry.

This research aims to offer many distinguishing fundamental scientific contributions embedding green chemistry, process integration including intensification, and circular economy principles. The new processes added to largely hydroprocessing-focused configurations are a *combined heat and power system* (CHP) and an *intensified mixed ionic electronic conducting membrane process* (MIEC). The CHP runs on offgas containing carbon monoxide from *pressure swing adsorption* (PSA) separating hydrogen from alkane steam reforming and pyrolysis gas to generate high pressure superheated steam for the reforming and MIEC. MIEC meets the remaining hydrogen requirements of the site (greater than half) by splitting high pressure superheated steam into green hydrogen and oxygen. Oxygen is the oxidant for the boiler of the CHP. The green hydrogen sourced entirely from biomass is consumed by hydroprocessing to make the SAF. To the best of the authors' knowledge, this is the first publication on a fully integrated self-sufficient novel renewable aviation fuel-producing biorefinery system and its comprehensive mathematical models for its design simulation under different conditions.

The paper is structured as follows. The following section discusses the deduction of a robust generic kinetic model of biomass pyrolysis process based on slow and fast pyrolysis product distributions within the 300-500°C temperature. The development of the mass and energy balance equations using chemical reaction stoichiometries and renewable jet fuel property correlations from its constituent chemical compositions are then discussed. The final section of the methodology discusses a comprehensive economic value analysis methodology (Martinez-Hernandez et al., 2013; Martinez-Hernandez et al., 2014), and an overall impact assessment based on life cycle assessment (LCA) (Kolosz et al., 2020) and social life cycle assessment (SLCA) (Shemfe et al., 2018; Sadhukhan et al., 2021). There are two reasons for opting out of detailed life cycle sustainability assessment, for which readers are directed to Sadhukhan et al. (2019) and Sadhukhan et al. (2021): 1) the focus of this research is the design of the integrated biorefinery system, 2) the life cycle impacts reside with the external energy and hydrogen supplies which are eliminated by the ‘process integration’ of the biorefinery system. The final sections include results and discussions, and conclusions of this research.

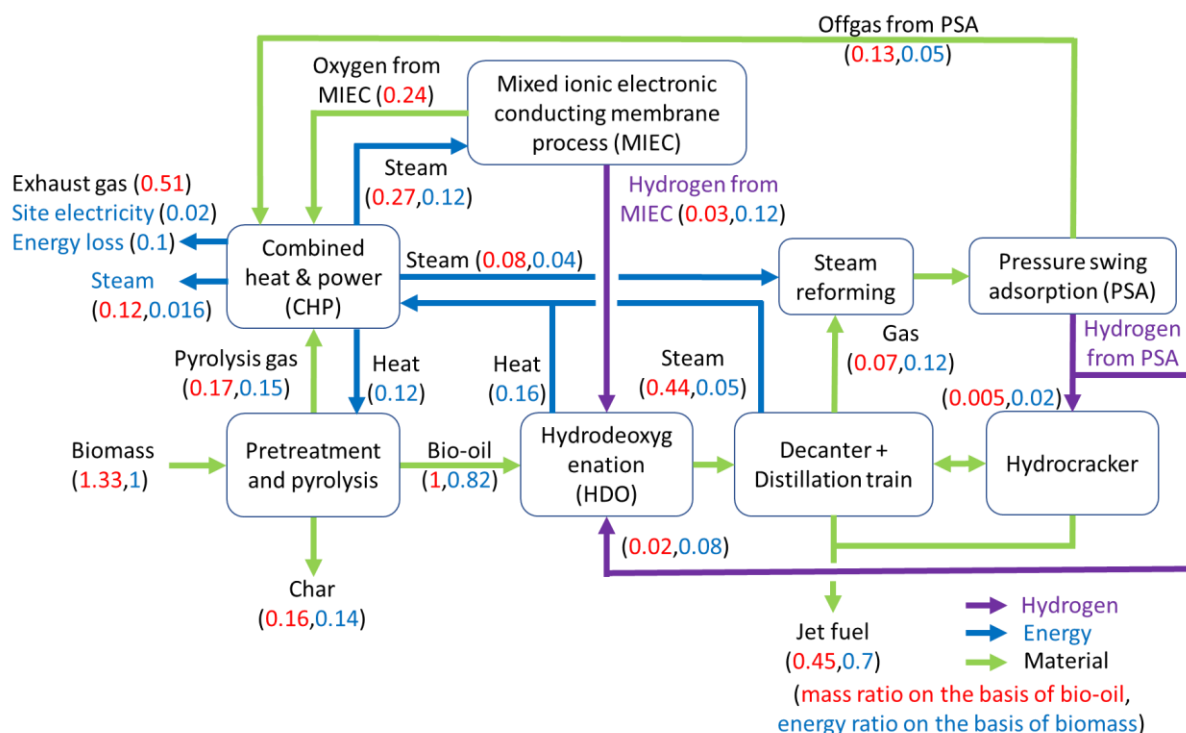
## **Methodology**

This section first discusses the novel integrated biorefinery configuration and then comprehensive models for biomass pyrolysis kinetic, hydroprocessing reaction and renewable jet fuel property models, mass and energy balance around steam reforming, PSA, CHP and MIEC, and economic value and overall sustainability analyses.

Fig. 1 shows the novel integrated biorefinery configuration developed in this research. The inset table shows the various mathematical modelling aspects at the unit process or system level. The decanter and distillation train can be noted in Fig. 1. These are to separate lighter alkanes from the final renewable jet fuel product (>C7) from hydroprocessing that occurs in two reaction series: hydrodeoxygenation and hydrocracking. Process simulation of



hydroprocessing and decanter + distillation train is detailed elsewhere (Sadhukhan and Ng, 2011) and outlined in Appendix A.



Technical modelling basis	Unit process
Kinetic modelling	Biomass pyrolysis
Reaction stoichiometry analyses	Hydroprocessing
Property correlations from composition	Renewable jet fuel for ASTM D7566
Mass and energy balance, economic value, and sustainability analyses	Integrated biorefinery system

**Fig. 1** Novel integrated biorefinery design. The inset table shows the modelling bases.

The novel biorefinery configuration consists of biomass pyrolysis into bio-oil, gas and char productions; bio-oil hydroprocessing into renewable jet fuel production; on-site hydrogen

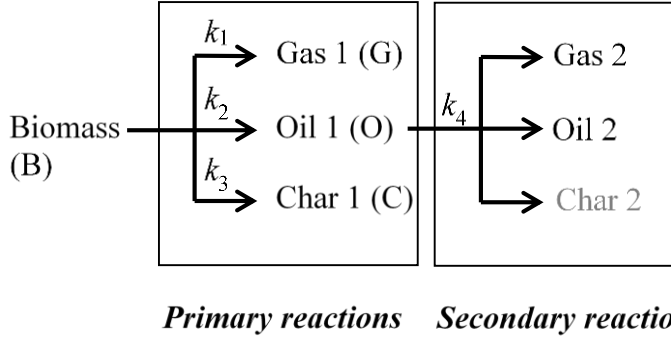
resourcing by alkane steam reforming followed by PSA and MIEC; CHP using pyrolysis gas and PSA offgas, and oxygen from MIEC, as shown in Fig. 1.

### **Kinetic modelling of biomass pyrolysis**

Pyrolysis is a thermal conversion reaction of organics into liquid in the absence of oxygen. This process occurs at a temperature of around 300-700°C. This is a thermal degradation process, where large molecules are decomposed into smaller fragments, producing bio-oil from the middle, gas from the top and char from the bottom. Bio-oil is an important platform feedstock for chemicals and fuels.

A generic and robust kinetic model of biomass pyrolysis between temperatures 300°C and 500°C is shown in this section to estimate the distributions of pyrolysis products, i.e. pyrolysis gas, bio-oil and char. The Waterloo kinetic model (Liden et al., 1988; Yang et al., 2018) parameters are estimated within the given operating range. The parameters are estimated based on the same product distributions observed at two boundary conditions, 300°C and 500°C in the literature (see, for example, Jahirul et al., 2012; Musa, 2017). The char, bio-oil and gas product distributions of biomass pyrolysis under these two conditions are shown in Table 1.

The Waterloo model is a generic pyrolysis reaction model that considers pyrolysis reactions in a two-stage mechanism (Liden et al., 1988). The primary reactions involve the formation of gas, oil, and char. The secondary reactions involve the conversion of oil into further gas, oil, and char. The secondary conversion of bio-oil into char is negligible. Fig. 2 shows the Waterloo concept, based on which, the mass transfer equations for biomass, gas, bio-oil and char are developed, as shown in Equation 1 (Sadhukhan et al., 2014).



**Fig. 2** The Waterloo concept for modelling biomass pyrolysis reaction system.

$$\frac{dm_B(t)}{dt} = -(k_1 + k_2 + k_3)m_B(t) = -km_B(t)$$

$$\frac{dm_G(t)}{dt} = k_1m_B(t) + k_4m_O(t)$$

$$\frac{dm_O(t)}{dt} = k_2m_B(t) - k_4m_O(t)$$

$$\frac{dm_C(t)}{dt} = k_3m_B(t)$$

$$\text{At } t = 0, m_B(t) = 1 \text{ and } m_G(t) = m_O(t) = m_C(t) = 0 \quad \text{Equation 1}$$

$m_B(t), m_G(t), m_O(t), m_C(t)$  are the mass fractions as a function of residence time ( $t$ ) of biomass, gas, bio-oil, and char.  $k_1$  is the rate constant producing gas from biomass.  $k_2$  is the rate constant for producing bio-oil from biomass.  $k_3$  is the rate constant for producing char from biomass. These reaction steps make up the primary reactions. The rate constant for the secondary reactions converting bio-oil from the primary reactions into gas and bio-oil from the secondary reactions is  $k_4$ . The initial condition and the mass transfer equations, shown in Equation 1, make the problem an initial value problem (IVP). The rate constant expressions,  $k_1, k_3$  and  $k_4$  are also obtained from the Waterloo model, as in Equation 2. Introduction of Equation 2 makes the equations' system an IVP differential algebraic equation (DAE) system. The expressions for  $k_1$  and  $k_4$  correspond to the Arrhenius equation.  $R$  is the ideal gas constant,

241 8.314 J mol<sup>-1</sup>.  $T$  is the reaction temperature in K.  $m_{C,\infty}$  is the mass fraction of char in steady  
 242 state conditions.

$$243 \quad k_1 = 14300 \exp\left(\frac{-106500}{RT}\right)$$

$$244 \quad k_3 = \frac{m_{C,\infty}}{1 - m_{C,\infty}} (k_1 + k_2)$$

$$245 \quad k_4 = 7900 \exp\left(\frac{-81000}{RT}\right)$$

$$246 \quad k = (k_1 + k_2 + k_3) \quad \text{Equation 2}$$

247 Furthermore, the equation system can be transformed into a boundary value problem by  
 248 introducing the concentration obtained in the reactions at the two temperatures 300°C and  
 249 500°C. Table 1 shows the steady state product concentrations (gas, oil and char) from slow and  
 250 fast pyrolysis reactions at the two temperatures, respectively (Jahirul et al., 2012; Mofijur et  
 251 al., 2019).

252 Table 1. Biomass pyrolysis product distributions at two temperatures.

300°C	$m_G = 0.35$	$m_O = 0.3$	$m_C = 0.35$
500°C	$m_G = 0.13$	$m_O = 0.75$	$m_C = 0.12$

253

254 The analytical expressions for  $m_B(t)$ ,  $m_G(t)$ ,  $m_O(t)$ ,  $m_C(t)$  were obtained by solving  
 255 Equations 1-2 in the previous work (Sadhukhan et al., 2014), as shown in Equation 3.

$$256 \quad m_B(t) = \exp(-kt)$$

$$257 \quad m_G(t) = -\frac{k - k_4}{k} [kk_1 \exp(-kt)$$

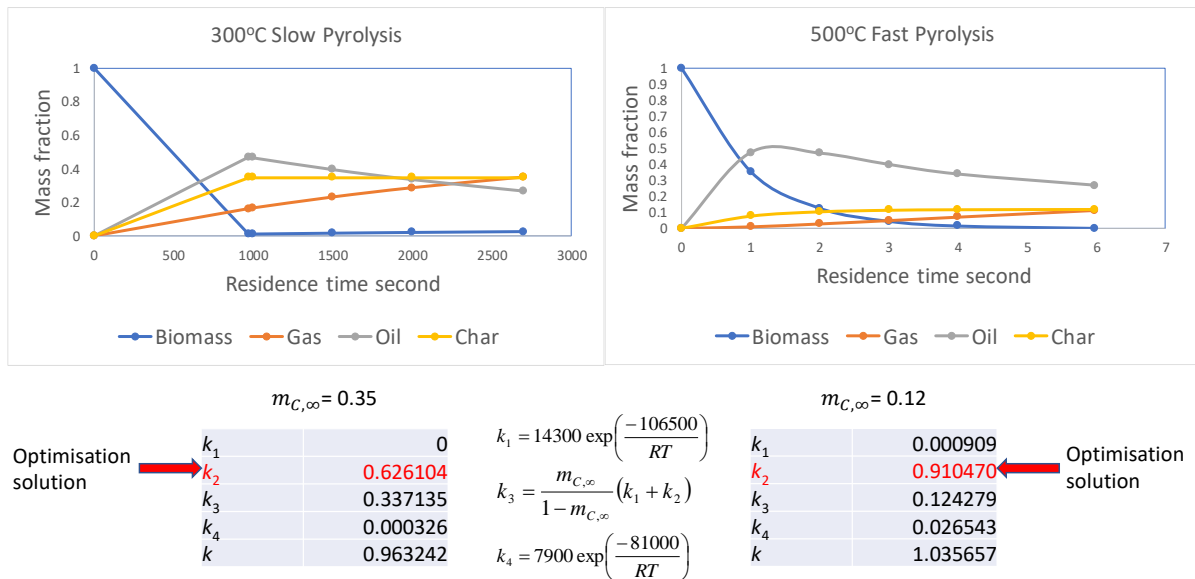
$$258 \quad -k_1k_4 \exp(-kt) - k_2k_4 \exp(-kt) + kk_2 \exp(-k_4t) - kk_1 + k_1k_4 + k_2k_4$$

$$259 \quad -kk_2$$

$$260 \quad m_O(t) = -\frac{k_2}{k - k_4} \exp(-k_4t) [\exp(-t(k - k_4)) - 1]$$

$$m_C(t) = \frac{k_3}{k} [1 - \exp(-kt)] \quad \text{Equation 3}$$

There are 8 expressions (Equations 2-3) for  $m_B(t)$ ,  $m_G(t)$ ,  $m_O(t)$ ,  $m_C(t)$ ,  $k_1$ ,  $k_3$ ,  $k_4$ ,  $k$ . There are nine variables:  $m_B(t)$ ,  $m_G(t)$ ,  $m_O(t)$ ,  $m_C(t)$ ,  $k_1$ ,  $k_2$ ,  $k_3$ ,  $k_4$ ,  $k$ . Such a problem can be solved using an optimisation method suitable for non-linear programming. The problem can be solved using the generalised reduced gradient (GRG) method. The details of the GRG method are shown elsewhere (Sadhukhan et al., 2014). Equations 2-3 are solved using the GRG method applying the boundary values shown in Table 1. Fig. 3 shows the solution in terms of unsteady state mass fractions of biomass, pyrolysis gas, bio-oil, and char. It can be seen from the unsteady state plots in Fig. 3 that after about 2500 and 6 seconds, the steady state distributions are reached in the slow and fast biomass pyrolysis, respectively. The values of  $k_2$  obtained at the two temperatures 300°C and 500°C are 0.63 and 0.91, respectively.



**Fig. 3** Biomass pyrolysis reaction kinetic modelling results and parameters (temperature: 300-500°C).

Furthermore, the Arrhenius equation parameters for  $k_2$  are obtained as shown in Equation 4. The linear correlation between  $\ln k_2$  and  $\left(-\frac{1}{T}\right)$  based on two data points ( $k_2 = 0.626$  at  $T =$

573K; and  $k_2 = 0.91$  at  $T = 773\text{K}$ ) gives the Arrhenius equation parameters for  $k_2$ ,  $k_0 = 2.6618$  and  $A = 6894.4676$ .

$$k_2 = k_0 \exp\left(-\frac{A}{RT}\right)$$

$$\ln k_2 = \ln k_0 + \frac{A}{R}\left(-\frac{1}{T}\right)$$

$$k_2 = 2.6618 \exp\left(-\frac{6894.4676}{RT}\right) \quad \text{Equation 4}$$

Thus, Equations 2-4 describe the biomass pyrolysis kinetics from which the steady state product concentrations can be determined at 300-500°C. The results are in good agreement with the literature that suggests the universal nature of biomass pyrolysis performance in terms of the proportions of the gas, bio-oil and char products depending upon the temperature (Jahirul et al., 2012; Ranzi et al., 2017). The Waterloo kinetic model described in Fig. 2 and Equations 1-3 can be applied for different temperature ranges. In this case, the model is presented only for a temperature range of 300-500°C suitable for the biorefinery system under consideration.

#### **Hydroprocessing reaction and renewable jet fuel property models**

Bio-oil produced from biomass pyrolysis needs to be stabilised by oxygen removal from 35-40% to less than 2% by mass of bio-oil. This requires hydrodeoxygenation of bio-oil into stable bio-oil. Hydrodeoxygenation reaction is the removal of oxygen by hydrogen addition in the form of water. Some decarboxylation reactions may occur, which is the removal of oxygen via carbon dioxide or carbon monoxide formation. Stable oil from hydrodeoxygenation requires hydrocracking including isomerisation. Thus, hydroprocessing occurs in two reaction series: hydrodeoxygenation and hydrocracking.

This section first shows the balanced reaction equations between bio-oil and renewable jet fuel components. These reactions occur in hydrodeoxygenation (Reactions 1-37) and hydrocracking (Reactions 38-40) reactors, shown in Equation 5. Forty reaction steps between bio-oil and renewable jet fuel chemical constituents, applying ring separation, ring opening,

cracking, saturation and isomerisation reaction mechanisms, were deduced by linear regression (Sadhukhan and Ng, 2011), to accurately match with the product profiles by Jones et al. (2009). The bio-oil components are phenol, dextrose, furfural, acetic acid, hydroxyacetone and formic acid (Jones et al., 2009). Table 2 shows the renewable jet fuel constituent chemicals and properties. The renewable jet fuel constituent chemicals in Table 2 are found in tested jet fuel or green diesel fractions from bio-oil hydroprocessing or are found to be blended to make a drop-in jet fuel (Jones et al., 2009; Harvey et al., 2015). Their significance in making up a sustainable aviation fuel can be seen from their Fourier-transform infrared spectroscopy (FTIR) in the literature in the context of renewable fuel blending (see e.g. SpectraBase™). These are thus the more realistic target chemicals in drop-in renewable jet fuel.

Equation 5 shows the specific conversions of reactants in the various reactions to meet the renewable jet fuel ASTM D7566 standard. Reaction 1 and 7 conversions strongly influence the jet fuel properties. 1-tridecene is formed from phenol in these two reactions. A higher 1-tridecene fraction in renewable jet fuel enhances its ASTM D7566 standard. 1-tridecene has been a target molecule in renewable jet fuel (Martinez, 2021). This also demands closer scrutiny of the renewable jet fuel property correlations from its constituent chemical compositions shown in this research.

The conversions of phenol, present in bio-oil, in the various reactions, are dependent on *PhenoltoTridecene1* and *PhenoltoTridecene2*, fractional conversions of phenol in Reactions 1 and 7, respectively. This is because 1-tridecene produced in Reactions 1 and 7 has superior ASTM D7566 properties and thus should be a target component in renewable jet fuel. However, at the same time, if its concentration in the renewable jet fuel product is too high, it can adversely affect the product properties. All components of renewable jet fuel thus need to be carefully controlled to meet the ASTM D7566 standards. The balance of fractional conversions of phenol ( $1 - \text{PhenoltoTridecene1} - \text{PhenoltoTridecene2}$ ) accounts for

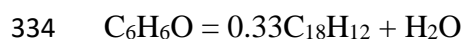
326 conversions of phenol in its all other reactions. The fractional conversions of phenol in  
 327 Reactions 2-6 and 8-15 out of a total of (1 – *PhenoltoTridecene1* – *PhenoltoTridecene2*)  
 328 are the same as in our earlier studies (Sadhukhan and Ng, 2011; Sadhukhan et al., 2014).

329 **Reactions of phenol:**

330 Reaction 1: Hydrodeoxygenation (HDO) to 1-tridecene:



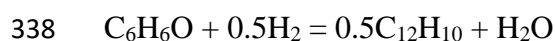
333 Reaction 2: Dehydroxygenation to chrysene:



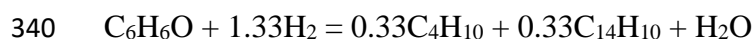
335 Reaction 3: HDO to diamantane:



337 Reaction 4: HDO to diphenyl:



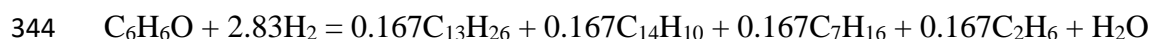
339 Reaction 5: HDO to isobutane and phenanthrene:



341 Reaction 6: HDO to 1,2,4-triethylbenzene:

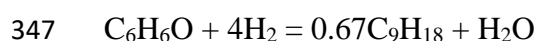


343 Reaction 7: HDO to 1-tridecene, phenanthrene, n-heptane and ethane:

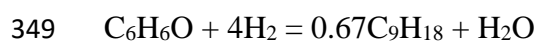


345 (Conversion: *PhenoltoTridecene2*)

346 Reaction 8: HDO to 1-*trans*-3,5-trimethylcyclohexane:



348 Reaction 9: HDO to n-propylcyclohexane:

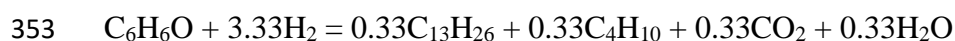


350 Reaction 10: HDO to p-xylene:





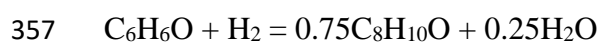
352 Reaction 11: HDO and decarboxylation (DCO) to 1-tridecene and isobutane:



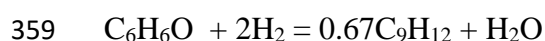
354 Reaction 12: HDO to bicyclohexyl:



356 Reaction 13: HDO to 2,5-xylenol:



358 Reaction 14: HDO to 1,2,3-trimethylbenzene:

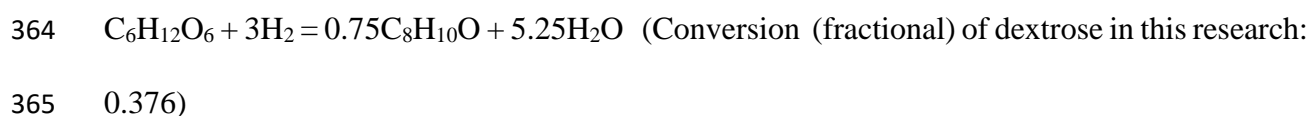


360 Reaction 15: HDO to n-heptane, isobutane and methane:

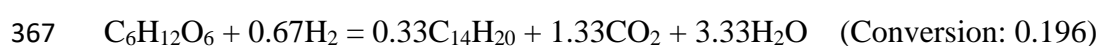


362 **Reactions of dextrose:**

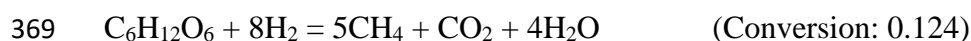
363 Reaction 16: HDO to 2,5-xylenol:



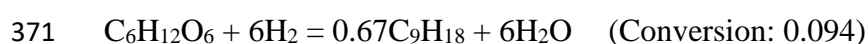
366 Reaction 17: HDO and DCO to diamantane:



368 Reaction 18: HDO and DCO and methane production:



370 Reaction 19: HDO to 1-*trans*-3,5-trimethylcyclohexane:



372 Reaction 20: HDO to n-propylcyclohexane:



374 Reaction 21: HDO and DCO to 1,2,3-trimethylbenzene:



376 Reaction 22: HDO and DCO to cis-decalin:



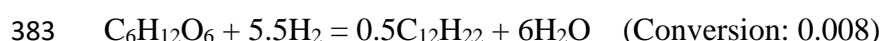
378 Reaction 23: HDO and DCO to 1-tridecene:



380 Reaction 24: HDO and DCO to n-butylcyclohexane:

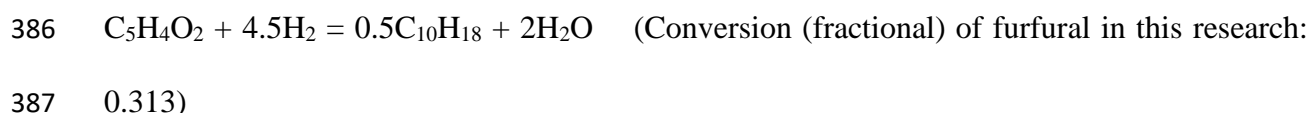


382 Reaction 25: HDO to bicyclohexyl:

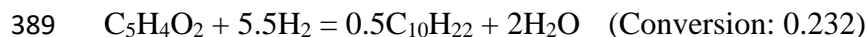


384 **Reactions of furfural:**

385 Reaction 26: HDO to cis-decalin:



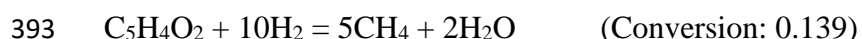
388 Reaction 27: HDO to 3,3,5-trimethylheptane:



390 Reaction 28: HDO to 1,2-dimethyl-3-ethylbenzene:



392 Reaction 29: HDO to methane:



394 Reaction 30: DCO to propane and methane:



396 Reaction 31: HDO to n-butylcyclohexane:



398 **Reactions of acetic acid:**

399 Reaction 32: HDO and DCO to ethane and methane:

400  $C_2H_4O_2 + 1.5H_2 = 0.5C_2H_6 + 0.5CH_4 + 0.5CO_2 + H_2O$  (Conversion (fractional) of acetic acid  
401 in this research: 0.616)

402 Reaction 33: HDO and DCO to alkanes and isoparaffins:

403  $C_2H_4O_2 + 2.22H_2 = 0.11C_7H_{16} + 0.11C_4H_{10} + 0.11C_3H_8 + 0.11C_2H_6 + 0.11CH_4 + 0.11CO_2 +$   
404  $1.78H_2O$  (Conversion: 0.384)

405 **Reactions of hydroxyacetone:**

406 Reaction 34: HDO and DCO to alkanes:

407  $C_3H_6O_2 + 2H_2 = 0.25C_7H_{16} + 0.25C_3H_8 + 0.25CH_4 + 0.25CO_2 + 1.5H_2O$  (Conversion  
408 (fractional) of hydroxyacetone in this research: 0.966)

409 Reaction 35: HDO to alkane:

410  $C_3H_6O_2 + 5H_2 = 3CH_4 + 2H_2O$  (Conversion: 0.034)

411 **Reactions of formic acid:**

412 Reaction 36: HDO and DCO to alkanes:

413  $CH_2O_2 + 1.75H_2 = 0.25C_2H_6 + 0.25CH_4 + 0.25CO_2 + 1.5H_2O$  (Conversion (fractional) of  
414 formic acid in this research: 0.954)

415 Reaction 37: HDO and DCO to alkane:

416  $CH_2O_2 + H_2 = 0.5CH_4 + 0.5CO_2 + H_2O$  (Conversion: 0.046)

417 **Hydrocracking including isomerisation:**

418 Reaction 38: Hydrogenation of phenanthrene to cyclohexane: methylcyclohexane:

419  $C_{14}H_{10} + 9H_2 = 2C_7H_{14}$  (100% conversion in this research)

420 Reaction 39: Hydrogenation of chrysene to cyclohexane: 1-*trans*-3,5-trimethylcyclohexane:

421  $C_{18}H_{12} + 12H_2 = 2C_9H_{18}$  (100% conversion in this research)

422 Reaction 40: Methylcyclohexane to 1,2,3,4-tetrahydronaphthalene and n-butane:

423  $2C_7H_{14} = C_{10}H_{12} + C_4H_{10} + 3H_2$  (10% conversion in this research) Equation 5

The reaction stoichiometries and conversions in Equation 5 generate the mass balance equations for chemicals, as shown in Equation 6. Molar masses of chemicals have been applied for conversions between mass and molar flows as appropriate. The chemical names in Equation 6 indicate their mass flowrates (See the Nomenclature). *JetFuel* is the total of the amounts of the renewable jet fuel chemicals derived from the various mass balance equations. *HydrogenNeeded*, *AlkanestoReforming* and *SteamProduced* are also deduced in Equation 6, based on the reaction stoichiometries and conversions in Equation 5. *HydrogenNeeded*, *AlkanestoReforming* and *SteamProduced* are further used in mass balance equations around alkane steam methane reforming, PSA, CHP and MIEC, discussed in the next section. Equation 6 is based on the steady state mass balance principle that the mass flowrate of a chemical (*Chemical*) is the difference between its productions and consumptions in the various reaction balance equations, dependent on their stoichiometries and conversions, as follows.

*Chemical*

$$\begin{aligned}
 &= \sum_{\text{all reactions}} (\text{ratio of stoichiometries between chemical product and reactant in reaction} \\
 &\quad \times \text{reactant molar mass} \times \text{chemical molar mass} \\
 &\quad \times \text{fractional conversion of the reactant in the reaction}) \\
 &- \sum_{\text{all reactions}} (\text{ratio of stoichiometries between chemical (reactant) and reactant in reaction} \\
 &\quad \times \text{reactant molar mass} \times \text{chemical molar mass} \\
 &\quad \times \text{fractional conversion of the reactant in the reaction})
 \end{aligned}$$

This generic equation is shown for the specific chemicals produced or consumed by hydroprocessing, in Equation 6. The equation for the mass flowrate of chrysene is not shown, because chrysene produced in Reaction 2 is completely reacted in Reaction 39 producing 1-

447 *trans*-3,5-trimethylcyclohexane. The equation for *Tmcyclohexane* (mass flowrate of 1-*trans*-  
448 3,5-trimethylcyclohexane) captures the formation and consumption of chrysene.

449 *PhenoltoTridecene1* and *PhenoltoTridecene2*, the fractional conversions of phenol into 1-  
450 tridecene in Reactions 1 and 7, as discussed earlier, are incorporated as independent variables  
451 (rather than fixed values) in Equation 6, because the renewable jet fuel properties are sensitive  
452 to these variables. Their feasible ranges for the acceptable renewable jet fuel properties are  
453 shown in the results and discussions.

454 As discussed earlier, the fractional conversions of phenol in Reactions 2-6 and 8-15 are

$$455 \frac{\text{fractional conversion in earlier study}}{(1 - \text{PhenoltoTridecene1} - \text{PhenoltoTridecene2})}.$$

$$456 \text{Tridecene} = ((\text{PhenoltoTridecene1} \times 0.46 + \text{PhenoltoTridecene2} \times 0.167$$

$$457 + 0.0065 \times (1 - \text{PhenoltoTridecene1}$$

$$458 - \text{PhenoltoTridecene2}) \times 0.33) \times \text{Phenol} / 94$$

$$459 + 0.02 \times 0.33 \times \text{Dextrose} / 180) \times 182$$

$$460 \text{Diamantane} = ((0.1766 \times (1 - \text{PhenoltoTridecene1}$$

$$461 - \text{PhenoltoTridecene2}) \times 0.4286) \times \text{Phenol} / 94$$

$$462 + 0.196 \times 0.3345 \times \text{Dextrose}/180) \times 188$$

$$463 \text{Diphenyl} = 0.1390 \times (1 - \text{PhenoltoTridecene1}$$

$$464 - \text{PhenoltoTridecene2}) \times 0.5 \times \text{Phenol}/94 \times 154$$

$$465 \text{Triethylbenzene}$$

$$466 = 0.0961 \times (1 - \text{PhenoltoTridecene1}$$

$$467 - \text{PhenoltoTridecene2}) \times 0.5 \times \text{Phenol}/94 \times 162$$

$$468 \text{Heptane} = ((\text{PhenoltoTridecene2} \times 0.167 + 0.0026 \times (1 - \text{PhenoltoTridecene1}$$

$$469 - \text{PhenoltoTridecene2}) \times 0.5) \times \text{Phenol}/94$$

$$470 + 0.384 \times 0.1127 \times \text{Aceticacid}/60$$

$$471 + 0.966 \times 0.25 \times \text{Hydroxyacetone}/74) \times 100$$

472 *Tmcyclohexane*  
 473  $= (0.0896 \times (1 - PhenoltoTridecene1$   
 474  $- PhenoltoTridecene2) \times 0.6666 \times Phenol/94$   
 475  $+ 0.094 \times 0.6666 \times Dextrose/180 + 0.1987 \times (1 - PhenoltoTridecene1$   
 476  $- PhenoltoTridecene2) \times 0.3333 \times Phenol/94 \times 2) \times 126$   
 477 *Pcyclohexane*  
 478  $= (0.0896 \times (1 - PhenoltoTridecene1$   
 479  $- PhenoltoTridecene2) \times 0.6666 \times Phenol/94$   
 480  $+ 0.094 \times 0.6666 \times Dextrose/180) \times 126$   
 481 *Pxylene*  $= 0.0532 \times (1 - PhenoltoTridecene1$   
 482  $- PhenoltoTridecene2) \times 0.75 \times Phenol/94 \times 106$   
 483 *Bicyclohexyl*  $= (0.0052 \times (1 - PhenoltoTridecene1$   
 484  $- PhenoltoTridecene2) \times 0.5 \times Phenol/94$   
 485  $+ 0.008 \times 0.5 \times Dextrose/180) \times 166$   
 486 *Xylenol*  $= (0.0052 \times (1 - PhenoltoTridecene1$   
 487  $- PhenoltoTridecene2) \times 0.75 \times Phenol/94$   
 488  $+ 0.376 \times 0.75 \times Dextrose/180) \times 122$   
 489 *Tmbenzene*  $= (0.0026 \times (1 - PhenoltoTridecene1$   
 490  $- PhenoltoTridecene2) \times 0.67 \times Phenol/94$   
 491  $+ 0.041 \times 0.5 \times Dextrose/180) \times 120$   
 492 *Cisdecalin*  $= (0.036 \times 0.5 \times Dextrose/180 + 0.313 \times 0.5 \times Furfural/96) \times 138$   
 493 *Bcyclohexane*  $= (0.012 \times 0.5 \times Dextrose/180 + 0.005 \times 0.5 \times Furfural/96) \times 140$   
 494 *Tmheptane*  $= (0.232 \times 0.5 \times Furfural/96) \times 142$   
 495 *Dmebenzene*  $= (0.204 \times 0.5 \times Furfural/96) \times 134$

$$\begin{aligned}
496 \quad & \text{Mycyclohexane} \\
497 \quad & = (\text{PhenoltoTridecene2} \times 0.167 + 0.1351 \times (1 - \text{PhenoltoTridecene1} \\
498 \quad & - \text{PhenoltoTridecene2}) \times 0.3344) \times \text{Phenol} \times 2/94 \times 0.9 \times 98 \\
499 \quad & \text{Thnapthalene} = \text{Mycyclohexane} \times 0.07483 \\
500 \quad & \text{JetFuel} = \text{Tridecene} + \text{Diamantane} + \text{Diphenyl} + \text{Triethylbenzene} + \text{Heptane} \\
501 \quad & + \text{Tm cyclohexane} + \text{Pcyclohexane} + \text{Pxylene} + \text{Bicyclohexyl} \\
502 \quad & + \text{Xylenol} + \text{Tm benzene} + \text{Cisdecalin} + \text{Bcyclohexane} + \text{Tmheptane} \\
503 \quad & + \text{Dmebenzene} + \text{Mycyclohexane} + \text{Thnapthalene} \\
504 \quad & \text{HydrogenNeeded} \\
505 \quad & = (\text{PhenoltoTridecene1} \times 4 + \text{PhenoltoTridecene2} \times 2.83 \\
506 \quad & + (0.1766 \times 2.29 + 0.1390 \times 0.5 + 0.1351 \times 1.33 + 0.0961 \times 2.5 \\
507 \quad & + 0.0896 \times 4 \times 2 + 0.0532 \times 1.75 + 0.0065 \times 3.33 + 0.0052 \times 3.5 \\
508 \quad & + 0.0052 + 0.0026 \times 2 + 0.0026 \times 5.5) \times (1 - \text{PhenoltoTridecene1} \\
509 \quad & - \text{PhenoltoTridecene2})) \times \text{Phenol}/94 \times 2 + (3 \times 0.376 + 0.67 \times 0.196 \\
510 \quad & + 8 \times 0.124 + 6 \times 0.094 + 6 \times 0.094 + 2 \times 0.041 + 4.5 \times 0.036 \\
511 \quad & + 2.33 \times 0.02 + 5 \times 0.012 + 5.5 \times 0.008) \times \text{Dextrose}/180 \times 2 \\
512 \quad & + (4.5 \times 0.313 + 5.5 \times 0.232 + 3.5 \times 0.204 + 10 \times 0.139 + 4 \times 0.108 \\
513 \quad & + 5 \times 0.005) \times \text{Furfural}/96 \times 2 + (1.5 \times 0.616 \\
514 \quad & + 2.22 \times 0.384) \times \text{Aceticacid}/60 \times 2 + (2 \times 0.966 \\
515 \quad & + 5 \times 0.034) \times \text{Hydroxyacetone}/74 \times 2 + (1.75 \times 0.954 \\
516 \quad & + 0.046) \times \text{Formicacid}/46 \times 2 + \text{Mycyclohexane}/98 \times 9 \times 2 \\
517 \quad & + 0.1987 \times (1 - \text{PhenoltoTridecene1} \\
518 \quad & - \text{PhenoltoTridecene2}) \times 0.3333 \times \text{Phenol}/94 \times 12 \times 2
\end{aligned}$$

519 *AlkanestoReforming*

$$\begin{aligned} 520 &= 0.1351 \times 0.33 \times (1 - \text{PhenoltoTridecene1} \\ 521 &- \text{PhenoltoTridecene2}) \times \text{Phenol}/94 \times 58 \\ 522 &+ \text{PhenoltoTridecene2} \times 0.167 \times \text{Phenol}/94 \times 30 + 0.0065 \times 0.33 \times (1 \\ 523 &- \text{PhenoltoTridecene1} - \text{PhenoltoTridecene2}) \times \text{Phenol}/94 \times 58 \\ 524 &+ 0.0026 \times 0.5 \times (1 - \text{PhenoltoTridecene1} \\ 525 &- \text{PhenoltoTridecene2}) \times \text{Phenol}/94 \times 58 + 0.0026 \times 0.5 \times (1 \\ 526 &- \text{PhenoltoTridecene1} - \text{PhenoltoTridecene2}) \times \text{Phenol}/94 \times 16 \\ 527 &+ (0.124 \times 5 + 0.041 \times 0.5 + 0.036 \times 0.5 + 0.02 \times 0.33 \\ 528 &+ 0.012 \times 0.5) \times \text{Dextrose}/180 \times 16 + (5 \times 0.139 \\ 529 &+ 0.108) \times \text{Furfural}/96 \times 16 + 0.108 \times \text{Furfural}/96 \times 44 + ((0.5 \times 30 \\ 530 &+ 0.5 \times 16) \times 0.616 + (58 + 44 + 30 \\ 531 &+ 16) \times 0.11 \times 0.384) \times \text{Aceticacid}/60 + ((44 + 16) \times 0.25 \times 0.966 \\ 532 &+ 3 \times 16 \times 0.034) \times \text{Hydroxyacetone}/74 + ((30 + 16) \times 0.25 \times 0.954 \\ 533 &+ 16 \times 0.5 \times 0.046) \times \text{Formicacid}/46 \\ 534 &+ \text{Mycyclohexane}/98/0.9 \times 0.1 \times 58/2 \end{aligned}$$


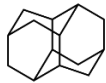
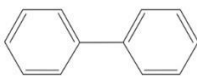
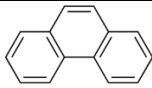
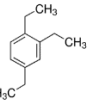

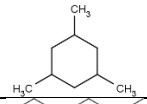
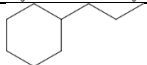
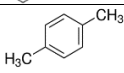
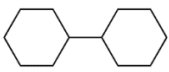
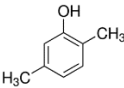
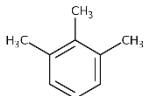


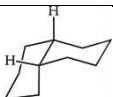
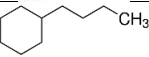
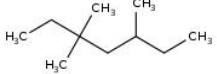
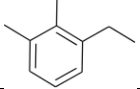


$$\begin{aligned}
& \text{SteamProduced} \\
& = (\text{PhenoltoTridecene1} + \text{PhenoltoTridecene2} + (0.1987 + 0.1766 \\
& + 0.1390 + 0.1351 + 0.0961 + 0.0896 \times 2 + 0.0532 + 0.0065 \times 0.33 \\
& + 0.0052 + 0.0052 \times 0.25 + 0.0026 + 0.0026) \times (1 \\
& - \text{PhenoltoTridecene1} - \text{PhenoltoTridecene2})) \times \text{Phenol} / 94 \times 18 \\
& + (5.25 \times 0.376 + 3.33 \times 0.196 + 4 \times 0.124 + 6 \times 0.094 + 6 \times 0.094 \\
& + 4 \times 0.041 + 5 \times 0.036 + 3.33 \times 0.02 + 5 \times 0.012 \\
& + 6 \times 0.008) \times \text{Dextrose} / 180 \times 18 + (2 \times 0.313 + 2 \times 0.232 \\
& + 2 \times 0.204 + 2 \times 0.139 + 2 \times 0.005) \times \text{Furfural} / 96 \times 18 + (0.616 \\
& + 1.78 \times 0.384) \times \text{Aceticacid} / 60 \times 18 + (1.5 \times 0.966 \\
& + 2 \times 0.034) \times \text{Hydroxyacetone} / 74 \times 18 + (1.5 \times 0.954 \\
& + 0.046) \times \text{Formicacid} / 46 \times 18
\end{aligned}$$

Equation 6

Renewable jet fuel property correlations from its constituent chemical compositions are first time developed in this research that can help to comply with the ASTM D7566 standard. Table 2 shows the renewable jet fuel components. Their properties extracted from Aspen Plus 8.8 are shown in Table 2. These properties are specific gravity, cetane number, aniline point, flash point and volumetric average boiling point (VABP). In addition, % mass of hydrogen and % volume of aromatics are also required for the ASTM D7566 standard, which can be estimated from the total amount of hydrogen present in all the renewable jet fuel chemical constituents and the total amount of aromatics present in the renewable jet fuel (diamantane, diphenyl, 1,2,4-triethylbenzene, p-xylene, 2,5-xyleneol, 1,2,3-trimethylbenzene and 1,2-dimethyl-3-ethylbenzene).

558 Table 2. Properties of renewable jet fuel chemical constituents for the ASTM D7566 standard.

Renewable jet fuel chemical constituents	Structure	Molar mass	Specific gravity	Cetane number	Aniline point °C	Flash point °C	Volumetric average boiling point (VABP) °C
1-tridecene		182	754	76	86	91	233
diamantane		188	1033	13	-75	103	256
diphenyl		154	1029	14	-65	103	255
phenanthrene		178	1137	13	-51	138	337
1,2,4-triethylbenzene		162	873	28	28	82	218
n-heptane		100	682	33	70	-5	99
1- <i>trans</i> -3,5-trimethylcyclohexane		126	775	31	44	28	141
n-propylcyclohexane		126	790	31	40	41	157
p-xylene		106	861	19	-25	27	139
bicyclohexyl		166	883	28	32	94	239
2,5-xlenol		122	1008	14	-78	78	211
1,2,3-trimethylbenzene		120	894	20	-20	54	176

cis-decalin		138	894	21	-8	68	196
n-butylcyclohexane		140	795	37	51	58	181
3,3,5-trimethylheptane		142	739	44	68	40	156
1,2-dimethyl-3-ethylbenzene		134	888	22	-4	66	194
methylcyclohexane		98	766	22	15	-3	101
1,2,3,4-tetrahydronaphthalene		132	972	15	-53	75	208

559

560

Empirical correlations in Equation 7 are derived by linear regression, for the renewable jet fuel product properties from its individual chemical constituent properties. The overall renewable jet fuel and its constituent chemical properties are extracted from Aspen Plus 8.8. Equation 7 gives an important checkpoint for meeting the specified range of specific gravity, minimum cetane number, aniline point, flash point and % mass of hydrogen and maximum VABP and % volume of aromatics for the renewable jet fuel product.

*Specific gravity*

$$= \frac{\sum((\text{Specific gravity of constituent}) \times (\text{Number of moles of constituent}))}{\text{Number of moles of bio jet fuel product}}$$

*Cetane number*

$$= \frac{\sum((\text{Cetane number of constituent})^{1.04} \times (\text{Number of moles of constituent}))}{\text{Number of moles of bio jet fuel product}}$$

*Aniline point (K)*

$$= \frac{\sum((\text{Aniline point of constituent} + 273)^{1.011} \times (\text{Number of moles of constituent}))}{\text{Number of moles of bio jet fuel product}}$$

*Flash point (K)*

$$= \frac{\sum((\text{Flash point of constituent} + 273) \times (\text{Number of moles of constituent}))}{\text{Number of moles of bio jet fuel product}}$$

$$VABP (^\circ C) = \frac{\sum((VABP \text{ of constituent}) \times (\text{Number of moles of constituent}))}{\text{Number of moles of bio jet fuel product}}$$

Equation 7

## **Mass and energy balance around steam reforming, PSA, CHP and MIEC**

Alkanes are produced from flash columns of the reboiler distillation train (Fig. 1). The previous publication discusses the integrated bio-oil hydrodeoxygenation, decanter, reboiler distillation (without condensers) train with flash columns and hydrocracking process, alongside its Aspen Plus simulation, to produce gasoline and green diesel (Sadhukhan and Ng, 2011). Appendix A gives an overview of the previous findings to complement the mathematical models for the

583 design evaluations of the integrated self-sustainable biorefinery system. This is to enable the  
584 biorefinery system evaluations without the use of proprietary process simulation packages,  
585 Aspen Plus® (Sadhukhan and Ng, 2011) and Superpro Designer® (Martinez-Hernandez et al.,  
586 2019).

587 Steam reforming of alkanes is highly endothermic completed at and above 750°C and at 15-25  
588 bar pressure (Kolios et al., 2005). Equation 8 is a generic form of steam reforming reaction of  
589 alkanes.



591 From the known quantities of alkanes (*AlkanestoReforming* in Equation 6), the amounts of  
592 steam needed and hydrogen and CO produced are determined based on the reaction  
593 stoichiometry in Equation 8. Equation 9 shows these mass balances.

594 *HydrogenfromReforming*

$$\begin{aligned} 595 &= 0.1351 \times 0.33 \times (1 - \text{PhenoltoTridecene1} \\ 596 &- \text{PhenoltoTridecene2}) \times \text{Phenol} / 94 \times 9 \times 2 \\ 597 &+ \text{PhenoltoTridecene2} \times 0.167 \times \text{Phenol} / 94 \times 5 \times 2 \\ 598 &+ 0.0065 \times 0.33 \times (1 - \text{PhenoltoTridecene1} \\ 599 &- \text{PhenoltoTridecene2}) \times \text{Phenol} / 94 \times 9 \times 2 + 0.0026 \times 0.5 \times (1 \\ 600 &- \text{PhenoltoTridecene1} - \text{PhenoltoTridecene2}) \times \text{Phenol} / 94 \times 9 \times 2 \\ 601 &+ 0.0026 \times 0.5 \times (1 - \text{PhenoltoTridecene1} \\ 602 &- \text{PhenoltoTridecene2}) \times \text{Phenol} / 94 \times 3 \times 2 + (0.124 \times 5 \\ 603 &+ 0.041 \times 0.5 + 0.036 \times 0.5 + 0.02 \times 0.33 \\ 604 &+ 0.012 \times 0.5) \times \text{Dextrose} / 180 \times 3 \times 2 + (5 \times 0.139 \\ 605 &+ 0.108) \times \text{Furfural} / 96 \times 3 \times 2 + 0.108 \times \text{Furfural} / 96 \times 7 \times 2 \\ 606 &+ ((0.5 \times 5 \times 2 + 0.5 \times 3 \times 2) \times 0.616 + (9 + 7 + 5 \\ 607 &+ 3) \times 2 \times 0.11 \times 0.384) \times \text{Aceticacid} / 60 + ((7 \\ 608 &+ 3) \times 2 \times 0.25 \times 0.966 + 3 \times 3 \times 2 \times 0.034) \times \text{Hydroxyacetone} / 74 \\ 609 &+ ((5 + 3) \times 2 \times 0.25 \times 0.954 \\ 610 &+ 3 \times 2 \times 0.5 \times 0.046) \times \text{Formicacid} / 46 \\ 611 &+ \text{Myclohexane} / 98 / 0.9 \times 0.1 \times 9 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
& \text{SteamneededReforming} \\
& = 0.1351 \times 0.33 \times (1 - \text{PhenoltoTridecene1} \\
& - \text{PhenoltoTridecene2}) \times \text{Phenol} / 94 \times 4 \times 18 \\
& + \text{PhenoltoTridecene2} \times 0.167 \times \text{Phenol} / 94 \times 2 \times 18 \\
& + 0.0065 \times 0.33 \times (1 - \text{PhenoltoTridecene1} \\
& - \text{PhenoltoTridecene2}) \times \text{Phenol} / 94 \times 4 \times 18 + 0.0026 \times 0.5 \times (1 \\
& - \text{PhenoltoTridecene1} \\
& - \text{PhenoltoTridecene2}) \times \text{Phenol} / 94 \times 4 \times 18 + 0.0026 \times 0.5 \times (1 \\
& - \text{PhenoltoTridecene1} - \text{PhenoltoTridecene2}) \times \text{Phenol} / 94 \times 18 \\
& + (0.124 \times 5 + 0.041 \times 0.5 + 0.036 \times 0.5 + 0.02 \times 0.33 \\
& + 0.012 \times 0.5) \times \text{Dextrose} / 180 \times 18 + (5 \times 0.139 \\
& + 0.108) \times \text{Furfural} / 96 \times 18 + 0.108 \times \text{Furfural} / 96 \times 3 \times 18 \\
& + ((0.5 \times 2 + 0.5) \times 18 \times 0.616 + (4 + 3 + 2 \\
& + 1) \times 18 \times 0.11 \times 0.384) \times \text{Aceticacid} / 60 + ((3 \\
& + 1) \times 18 \times 0.25 \times 0.966 + 3 \times 18 \times 0.034) \times \text{Hydroxyacetone} / 74 \\
& + ((2 + 1) \times 18 \times 0.25 \times 0.954 + 18 \times 0.5 \times 0.046) \times \text{Formicacid} / 46 \\
& \text{COtoCHP} = \text{AlkanestoReforming} - \text{HydrogenfromReforming} \\
& + \text{SteamneededReforming}
\end{aligned}$$

Equation 9

The alkane steam reforming produces a gas mixture containing hydrogen and carbon monoxide. A PSA can separate hydrogen from the CO-rich offgas (Riboldi and Bolland, 2016). PSA has been investigated for ultrapure hydrogen production in an integrated gasification combined cycle system (Riboldi and Bolland, 2016). The CO-rich offgas is routed to CHP along with the pyrolysis gas. The produced and purified hydrogen from alkane steam reforming and PSA is added to the stream of hydrogen from MIEC discussed later.

Carbon monoxide and pyrolysis gas have a heat of combustion of 10 and 23 MJ per kg, respectively, which form the basis for the CHP modelling (Sadhukhan et al., 2021). The heat output from the gas boiler is 80% of the heat of combustion of the CHP fuel. The medium pressure steam separated from the stable bio-oil in the decanter and generated by the indirect heat recovery from exothermic heat of hydroprocessing reactions can be turned into high pressure superheated steam, in the gas boiler in the CHP. Most of the high pressure superheated steam from the CHP is used in alkane steam reforming and MIEC, to produce hydrogen. The latter also produces oxygen for the CHP. Some steam generated by heat recovery in the gas boiler can be expanded through a back pressure steam turbine to generate electricity for the biorefinery use, biomass drying and size reduction (pretreatment of biomass before pyrolysis) and to drive the flows across the biorefinery. The remaining medium pressure steam from the site can be exported.

Electrochemical technologies such as MIEC offer energy efficiency and flexibility across the scale, and process intensification opportunities deploying nature-based chemical engineering solutions (Thursfield and Metcalfe, 2004; Trogadas and Coppens, 2020). However, the use of MIEC is more popularly known for oxygen reduction reaction (ORR) applied to electrochemical systems for energy storage and generation. MIEC can also be used for steam splitting or air separation. Amongst the various types of MIEC, perovskite and its derivatives have been proven to be most effective (Raja et al., 2017). Since perovskites' discovery in 1839 by Gustav Rose and naming by LA Perovski, perovskites ( $ABO_3$ ,  $A_{n+1}B_nO_{3n+1}$ ,  $AA'B_2O_6$  and  $A_2BB'O_6$ ) have been researched extensively for structural, electronic and surface characteristics and mechanisms of oxygen ion transport (Ji et al., 2020). Amongst the various mechanistic hypotheses, the most popular mechanism driving the ORR shows the B-site cations of perovskites participating in the redox reactions and the A-site cations of perovskites offering large ionic radii, thus favourable crystal and electronic structure for ionic activity. The



transition metals with incomplete 3d orbitals are the ideal candidates for the B-site cations, while the alkaline earth metals and lanthanides are the choices for the A-site cations of perovskites, such as, in the following order of preference in decreasing order of ionic radius: La > Pr > Nd > Sm > Gd > Y > Dy > Yb (Geffroy et al., 2013; Risch, 2017). Mn, Fe, Co and Ni are examples of B-site cations and La and Sr for A-site cations. Twelve and six oxygen anions attach to the A-site and B-site cations in an example study on a cubic perovskite oxide. There is already a handful of dedicated research on MIEC for hydrogen and oxygen productions (Li et al., 2017; Arratibel Plazaola et al., 2019), as shown above. However, none of them has considered MIEC in the context of hydroprocessing technologies. Inspired by existing studies, this research conducts mass and energy balances based on ideal splits around the MIEC and various interacting unit processes. MIEC is used to meet the balance of the hydrogen requirements by the hydrodeoxygenation and hydrocracking reactions. Their hydrogen demands are first met by steam reforming of the alkanes produced from flash columns in the reboiler distillation train attached to hydrodeoxygenation and hydrocracking reactors and the decanter. Then, the rest of the hydrogen demands is met by the MIEC. The mass balances around the MIEC and CHP are shown in Equation 10.

$$Hydrogen_{fromSteam} = Hydrogen_{Needed} - Hydrogen_{fromReforming}$$

$$Oxygen_{fromSteam} = (Hydrogen_{fromSteam})/2 \times 16$$

$$MIEC_{Feed} = Hydrogen_{fromSteam} + Oxygen_{fromSteam}$$

$$Excess_{Steam} = Steam_{Produced} + Water - Hydrogen_{fromSteam} -$$

$$Oxygen_{fromSteam} - Steam_{neededReforming}$$

Equation 10

### **Economic value and an overall sustainability assessment**

The economic value analysis involves estimations of the delivered cost of equipment, total capital cost, operating cost, feedstock cost and product values. The revenues are generated from

selling the marketable products. Furthermore, any credits on products are added to the revenues. Taxations, and landfill and emission charges are subtracted from the revenues. A value analysis methodology has been developed to compute value on processing and cost of production (COP) of various streams in a system (Martinez-Hernandez et al., 2013; Martinez-Hernandez et al., 2014). The COP calculation method is applied for the final products from the biorefinery system.

The evaluation of COP of a stream starts from the known market price of feedstocks, added with the costs incurred from its production, thus proceeds in the forward direction until end products' evaluations. The COP of a stream is the summation of all associated cost components (i.e. the costs of feedstocks, utilities, operating (including personnel) and annualised capital costs) that have contributed to the production of that stream up to that point. This must mean the inclusion of only those fractional costs involved with the stream's production. To compute COP, the annual capital and operating costs are computed as follows.

For the annual capital cost, the total capital and delivered cost of equipment are estimated. The delivered cost of equipment is estimated using the well know size-cost correlation in Equation 11 that captures the economy of scale and monetary depreciation (Sadhukhan et al., 2014; Sadhukhan et al., 2021).

$$NEW\ COST\ AT\ THE\ BASE\ YEAR = BASE\ COST \times \left( \frac{NEW\ SIZE}{BASE\ SIZE} \right)^{SCALE\ FACTOR}$$

$$NEW\ COST\ AT\ THE\ CURRENT\ YEAR = NEW\ COST\ AT\ THE\ BASE\ YEAR \times$$

$$\frac{CEPCI\ AT\ THE\ CURRENT\ YEAR}{CEPCI\ AT\ THE\ BASE\ YEAR} \quad \text{Equation 11}$$

CEPCI is the Chemical Engineering Plant Cost Index. The CEPCI stabilised at 600 in recent years has been applied to update the *NEW COST AT THE CURRENT YEAR*.

Table 3 shows the input data for the calculation of the delivered cost of equipment of the system. The data comprise a given size-cost data and a scale factor for each unit process in the

system, pyrolysis, hydrodeoxygenation and hydrocracking, distillation and decanter, PSA, MIEC, steam reforming and CHP, compiled from Sadhukhan et al. (2014).

Table 3. Size-cost correlation data for the calculation of the delivered cost of equipment (Sadhukhan et al., 2014).

	base cost m\$	scale factor	base size	unit	CEPCI
Pyrolysis	3.392	0.7	500	tpd biomass	402
Hydrodeoxygenation and hydrocracking	30	0.65	2250	bblpd bio-oil	468.2
Distillation and decanter	2.28	0.65	2250	bblpd bio-oil	525.4
PSA	28	0.7	9600	kmolph gas input	394.3
MIEC	21.6	0.8	17	tph H <sub>2</sub> recovered	394.3
Steam reforming	9.4	0.6	1390	kmolph gas input	394.3
CHP	5.1	0.7	10.3	MWe electricity output	394.3

The total capital cost can be up to 5.03 times the delivered cost of equipment for a solid-fluid processing system to account for the various capital costs outside the battery limit (Sadhukhan et al. 2014). An annual capital charge of 0.13 has been applied for the annual capital cost (Sadhukhan et al., 2014).

In addition, annual operating cost and feedstock cost need to be considered for the total cost of production of the system. The annual operating cost (*Opex*) consists of fixed and variable (raw materials and utilities, etc.) costs. The operating cost estimation has a generic form as in Equation 12.

$$Opex = a \times (\text{fixed operating cost dependent on indirect annual capital cost} + \text{labour dependent fixed operating cost} + \text{variable operating cost})$$

*fixed operating cost dependent on indirect annual capital cost*

$$= b \times \text{Delivered cost of equipment} \times \text{Annual Capital Charge}$$

*labour dependent fixed operating cost = c \times Feedstock throughput*

Equation 12

*a, b and c* are multipliers of the respective cost components to account for a sub-set of cost components detailed in Sadhukhan et al. (2014). Fixed operating costs include the costs of maintenance, labour, taxation, insurance, royalties etc. Fixed operating costs are estimated using factors, normally based on indirect capital cost and labour cost. Other than the fixed and variable operating costs, there are costs of research and development, sales expenses and general overheads accounted for as % to obtain the total operating cost. The value of *a* in Equation 12 is 1.3 (Sadhukhan et al., 2021).

The indirect capital cost is 1.26 times the delivered cost of equipment for a solid-fluid processing system (Sadhukhan et al., 2014). The indirect capital cost includes the following cost items: engineering and supervision, construction expenses, legal expenses, contractor's fee and contingency. Furthermore, the fixed operating cost dependent on the indirect capital cost is 0.15 times the indirect capital cost. The fixed operating cost dependent on the indirect capital cost includes the following cost items: maintenance, capital charges, insurance, local taxes and royalties. The value of *b* in Equation 12 is  $1.26 \times 0.15 = 0.19$ .

The fixed operating cost dependent on the personnel cost is 1.9 times the personnel cost. The fixed operating cost dependent on the personnel cost includes the following cost items: labour, laboratory, supervision and plant overheads. The personnel cost is \$52033 per t/h throughput. Thus, the value of *c* in Equation 12 is  $1.9 \times 52033/1000000 = 0.1$ . For detailed correlations and breakup of cost items, readers are directed to Chapter 2 in Sadhukhan et al. (2014).

For the brevity of this paper, LCA methodologies are not discussed here (see Sadhukhan et al., 2014 for the LCA methodology). In this research, two primary life cycle impact potentials,

global warming, and fossil resource depletion potentials are estimated by applying the factors from published literature. It has been established that 10 g CO<sub>2</sub> equivalent per MJ for well-to-wake systems utilising non-food cellulosic biomass is the best greenhouse gas emissions outcome, in renewable jet fuel production (Kolosz et al., 2020). The conventional and renewable jet fuels have the global warming potentials of 83.3 and 10 g CO<sub>2</sub> equivalent per MJ, respectively, thus giving a saving of (83.3-10) or 73.3 g CO<sub>2</sub> equivalent of global warming potential by the displacement of 1 MJ worth of conventional jet fuel by the renewable jet fuel (EU RED, 2018). 40 MJ/kg primary energy saving can be applied for this displacement (EU RED, 2018).

The SLCA must also be conducted to avoid unintended consequences on society (Sadhukhan et al., 2021). The SLCA has now become more practicable with the emergence of the social hotspot database (SHDB) (Benoît et al., 2010; Norris et al., 2014). In the SHDB, for each country, inventory data (in terms of monetary value) has been assimilated for each product type or sector. As inevitable, each product type or sector is dependent on every other product type or sector. The inventory data for each product type or sector for each country through interconnecting supply chains is translated into social life cycle impact assessments, in five main categories: labour rights & decent work; health & safety; human rights; governance; and community infrastructure (Shemfe et al., 2018). The supply chain import-export data between countries considering interacting supply chains can be assimilated from the UN Comtrade database (Sadhukhan et al., 2019; Sadhukhan et al., 2021). The present SHDB platform allows comparisons of medium-risk hours-equivalent (mrh eq.) for a given product between countries of interest in each category. The unit of risks is mrh for a given functional unit, e.g. rate of product formation in case of a production system. The unit mrh is the number of work hours applied to produce a given production rate. In here, a dimensionless ratio between mrh in business-as-usual import case and mrh in self-generation case for a given production rate is

considered for each of the SLCA impact categories to show the benefits or savings by indigenous energy security services in social and socio-economic quantitative terms, recommended by the ISO26000 (Sadhukhan et al., 2019; Sadhukhan et al, 2021).

## **Results and discussions**

The biorefinery system's design, techno-economic and sustainability analyses model is implemented through an interactive graphical user interface friendly open source platform: TESARREC™, <https://tesarrec.web.app/sustainability/bio-jet-fuel> (TESARREC™, 2018 and 2020). The computing code, including for Equations 3-4, 6-7, 9-10, and 11-12, for the TESARREC™, <https://tesarrec.web.app/sustainability/bio-jet-fuel> (TESARREC™, 2018 and 2020) simulation model can be accessed in Sen (2020). Here, specific insights into the results of the mathematical model for the integrated biorefinery system under consideration are discussed.

Table 4 shows the input variables for the biorefinery system's design, techno-economic and sustainability evaluations. Regarding mass and energy balance calculations, the input variables are bio-oil mass throughput and composition, biomass calorific values, and fractional conversion of an important bio-oil constituent, phenol, in Reactions 1 and 7 in Equation 5. Table 4 shows their ranges as well as default values. In the TESARREC™ platform, <https://tesarrec.web.app/sustainability/bio-jet-fuel>, all the input variables can be varied within the ranges shown in Table 4 to test their sensitivity on the outputs. Here, the results corresponding to the default values are shown. The ranges shown in Table 4 define the conditions under which the biorefinery design and models are very suitable to use. While the biorefinery design is generic, the stoichiometric chemical reaction model of hydroprocessing can be updated for a different set of bio-oil chemical constituents and hydroprocessing reactions using the generic modelling principles presented in this paper.

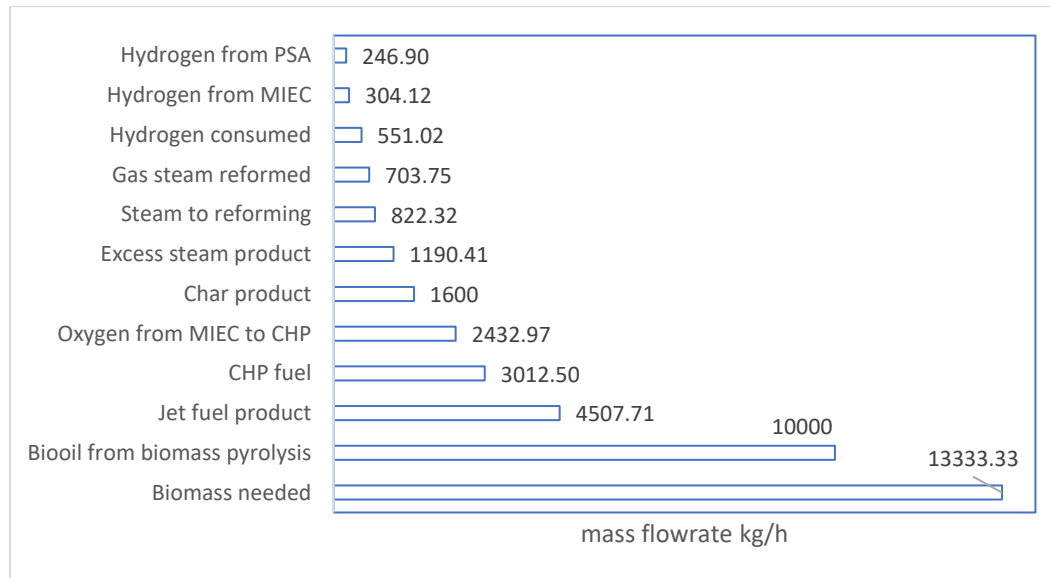
Table 4. Input variables for the renewable jet fuel-producing biorefinery system model.

	Default value	Range
Bio-oil throughput kg/hour	10000	10000-50000
Phenol in bio-oil (fraction)	0.33	0.31-0.38
Dextrose in bio-oil (fraction)	0.27	0.27-0.30
Furfural in bio-oil (fraction)	0.077	0.07-0.10
Acetic acid in bio-oil (fraction)	0.056	0.05-0.06
Hydroxyacetone in bio-oil (fraction)	0.04	0.04-0.05
Formic acid in bio-oil (fraction)	0.015	0.01-0.015
Water in bio-oil (fraction)	0.212	0.10-0.25
Biomass calorific value MJ/kg	19.3	13-23
Phenol fractional conversion in Reaction 1 in Equation 5	0.55	0.158-0.55
Phenol fractional conversion in Reaction 7 in Equation 5	0.4	0.072-0.4
Installation factor	1	1-5
Annual capital charge	0.13	0.1-0.15
Biomass cost \$/t	40	10-100
Jet fuel price \$/gallon	1	1-2
Char price \$/t	100	100-600
Steam price \$/t	24.4	24.4-35.5

802

803 For the default values of input variables, as shown in Table 4, the flowrates of the various outlet  
804 streams within and between the various process units are determined, as shown in Fig. 4. The  
805 input variables for technical modelling of the systems are bio-oil throughput and composition,  
806 and phenol conversions in Reactions 1 and 7 in Equation 5. A higher concentration of 1-  
807 tridecene in renewable jet fuel enhances the properties of renewable jet fuel. The technical  
808 outputs are determined from the input variables as follows. Biomass throughput, and pyrolysis  
809 gas and char yields are calculated for a given bio-oil mass flowrate, under fast pyrolysis and  
810 500°C temperature conditions, using Equations 3-4. The mass balance Equation 6 is used to  
811 determine the renewable jet fuel amount and concentrations. Renewable jet fuel is made up of  
812 higher hydrocarbons (>C7) produced by the reactions shown in Equation 5. Similarly, the  
813 amount and concentrations of alkanes for steam reforming are determined using Equation 6.  
814 The mass balance in Equation 9 is used to estimate the amounts of hydrogen and CO produced  
815 and steam used in alkane reforming. Thus, the amount of CHP fuel is estimated from the  
816 amounts of pyrolysis gas (Equations 3-4) and carbon monoxide (Equation 9). The total

hydrogen consumption is estimated from the reaction balance equations in Equation 6. The balance between hydrogen consumption and hydrogen production by alkane steam reforming decides the amounts of hydrogen and oxygen produced and steam used by MIEC (Equation 10). The other input variables shown in Table 4 are discussed later in the context of the economic value analysis of the biorefinery system.



**Fig. 4** Mass flowrates (kg/h) in the biorefinery system configuration in Fig. 1 for the default input variable values in Table 4.

Fig. 4 shows the production rates based on the default values in Table 4. The production rate of renewable jet fuel from the biorefinery system is 34% by mass of biomass. The fast pyrolysis process gives pyrolysis gas, bio-oil and char yields of 13%, 75% and 12% of the mass of biomass (Equations 3-4, Fig. 3). Hydrogen consumed in bio-oil hydrodeoxygenation and hydrocracking is 5.5% by mass of bio-oil (Equation 6). Alkanes produced from distillation, which are steam reformed, are 7% by mass of bio-oil (Equation 6). Hydrogen produced from steam reforming is 2.5% by mass of bio-oil (Equation 9). Thus, the balance of hydrogen produced from MIEC is 3% by mass of bio-oil (Equation 10). Oxygen produced from MIEC is thus 24% by mass of bio-oil (Equation 10). Fuel to CHP (pyrolysis gas plus PSA offgas) is

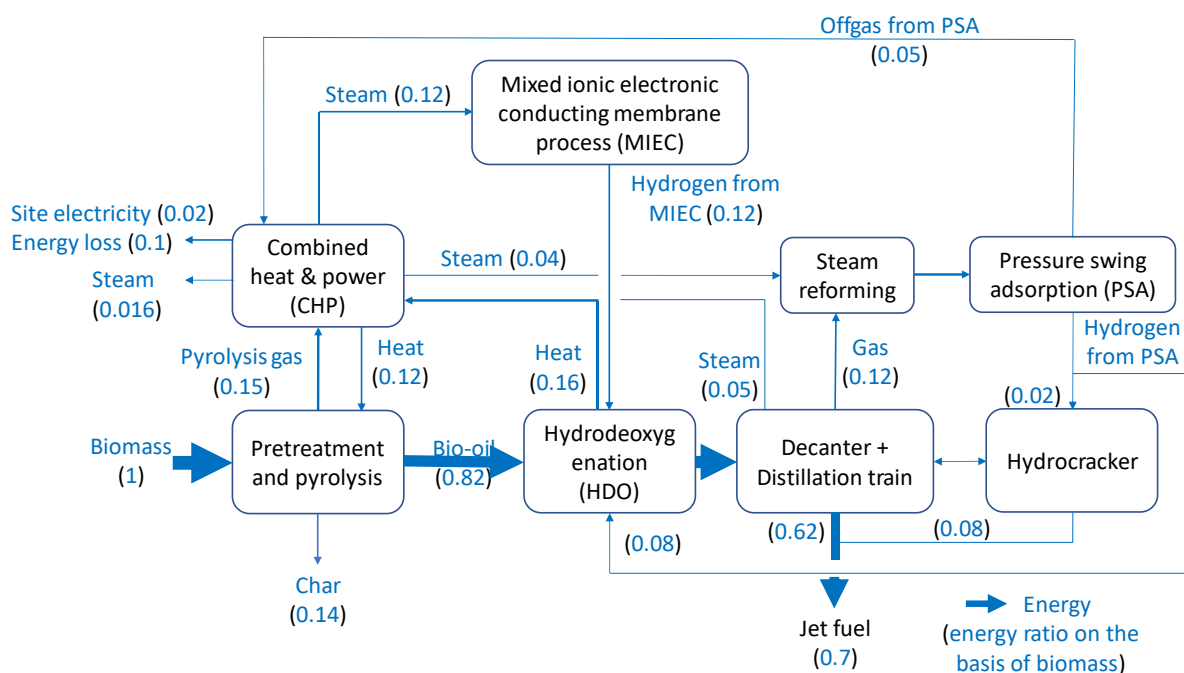


834 30% by mass of bio-oil. Note the transferability of these production rates in other studies for  
835 known bio-oil throughput and composition.

836 Pyrolysis reactors can be of various types, bubbling fluidised bed, circulating fluidised bed,  
837 ablative, auger/screw, rotating cone, and vacuum (Sadhukhan et al., 2014). Amongst these, a  
838 circulating fluidised bed can offer a vapour residence time of 0.5-1s, an operating temperature  
839 of 500°C, high heat transfer rate, large throughput, robust temperature control, and good  
840 mixing, required for the fast pyrolysis reaction in the biorefinery system. A rotating cone can  
841 form the bottom of the pyrolyser reactor to remove solid to avoid any solid build-up.

842 Hydroprocessing as mentioned earlier is made up of two reactors, hydrodeoxygenation (150-  
843 250°C) and hydrocracking (350-400°C). These reactions are exothermic. Their exothermic heat  
844 of reactions can be recovered into the generation of medium pressure steam through cooling  
845 jackets surrounding the reactors. These reactions are driven by high hydrogen pressure, 80-170  
846 bar. Excess hydrogen can be kept in circulation around the system. Only the hydrogen  
847 consumed in the reactions in Equation 5 is needed to be produced within the system.

848 Fig. 5 shows the energy balance analysis of the integrated biorefinery system configuration.  
849 The thickness of each arrow is proportional to its relative energy content for other flows.



**Fig. 5** Energy flows (as the ratio between energy content in each flow and energy content in biomass) exchanged between the various unit processes and from the biorefinery system.

The energy flows relative to the biomass energy flow are shown in Fig. 5. The basis of energy flow calculations is 1 unit of energy flow in biomass. Biomass throughput and calorific value can be applied to upscale the energy flows shown in Fig. 5. Pretreatment and pyrolysis of biomass have the energy inputs through the biomass (1) and medium grade heat from CHP (0.12). The energy outputs from the pyrolysis are through the pyrolysis gas (0.15), bio-oil (0.82) and char (0.14). These outlet streams are estimated to have a calorific value of 23, 21.08 and 23 MJ/kg, respectively. Hydrodeoxygenation takes up hydrogen from MIEC (0.12) and hydrogen from PSA (0.08) and is a source of medium grade steam (0.16). The balance of its energy output (bio-oil energy (0.82) plus hydrogen energy (0.2) input subtracted by the medium grade heat recovered (0.16)), is equal to the energy input to the decanter and distillation train (0.86). The outputs from decanter and distillation are renewable jet fuel (0.62), gas to reformer (0.12) and decanted steam (moisture contained in bio-oil, and steam produced according to the balance Equation 6) (0.05). Renewable jet fuel has a calorific value of 40 MJ/kg. The medium

grade heat or steam recovered from hydrodeoxygenation, decanter and distillation train, is upgraded into high pressure superheated steam generation at 750°C for reforming (0.04) and MIEC (0.12) in the gas boiler in CHP. The reforming hydrogen production capacity and thus, its heat demand, is constrained by the gas availability from the distillation train. The balance of the hydrogen demands by hydrodeoxygenation and hydrocracking is met by MIEC that utilises high pressure superheated steam. The biorefinery system is a net source of heat or steam. Hydrogen energy from steam reforming and MIEC is 0.1 and 0.12, respectively. The CHP fuels are the pyrolysis gas (0.15) and PSA offgas (0.05). After upgrading medium pressure steam into high pressure superheated steam (0.16), and meeting pretreatment and pyrolysis heat demand (0.12), the balance of energy from CHP goes into the following, energy loss (0.1) due to efficiency loss in the boiler (operates at 80% energy efficiency) and in back pressure steam turbine expanding high pressure superheated steam into electricity generation (operates at 28% energy efficiency), electricity to meet site demand (0.02), and excess medium pressure steam to export (0.016). The energy outputs from the biorefinery system relative to the biomass energy input are through the renewable jet fuel product (0.7), char (0.14) and excess medium pressure steam (0.016), thus resulting in an overall biorefinery energy efficiency of 85.6%.

The renewable jet fuel property correlations from its constituent chemical compositions in Equation 7 are applied to determine the overall properties of the renewable jet fuel product. The amounts of the renewable jet fuel chemical constituents are adjusted to meet the ASTM D7566 standards for the specific gravity, cetane number, aniline point, flash point, VABP, % mass hydrogen and % volume aromatics of the renewable jet fuel product. Equation 6 shows the calculations for the renewable jet fuel and its chemical constituent amounts. Table 5 shows the overall renewable jet fuel properties obtained by applying the correlations in Equation 7 that uses the renewable jet fuel chemical constituent amounts determined by applying Equation 6. Table 4 shows the ranges of phenol fractional conversions in Reactions 1 and 7 in Equation

5, required to meet the ASTM D7566 standard for the renewable jet fuel product. Their feasible ranges as shown in Table 4 are decided iteratively using Equations 6 and 7. The renewable jet fuel product concentration determined by Equation 6 is applied in Equation 7 to determine the product properties. The molar flows (in kmolph) of the renewable jet fuel constituent chemicals obtained by applying the mass balance Equation 6 and their molar masses are: 1-tridecene (11.4), methylcyclohexane (4.4), 2,5-xylene (4.2), n-heptane (4), cis-decalin (1.5), 1-*trans*-3,5-trimethylcyclohexane (1.2), diamantane (1.1), n-propylcyclohexane (1.04), 3,3,5-trimethylheptane (0.93), 1,2-dimethyl-3-ethylbenzene (0.82), 1,2,3-trimethylbenzene (0.3), 1,2,3,4-tetrahydronaphthalene (0.24), diphenyl (0.12), n-butylcyclohexane (0.11), 1,2,4-triethylbenzene (0.084), p-xylene (0.07), and bicyclohexyl (0.064).

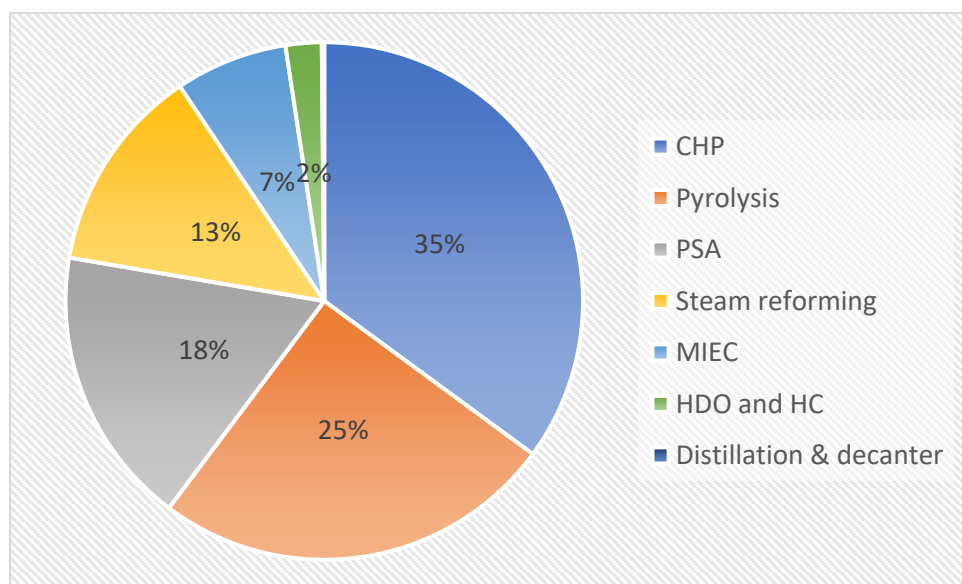
Table 5. Renewable jet fuel properties estimated using the correlations in Equation 7 using the concentration determined by Equation 6, based on the default values shown in Table 4.

Specific gravity	0.81
Aromatics volume %	21.3
Hydrogen weight %	13.33
Cetane number	50
Aniline point (°C)	53
Flash point (°C)	56
Volumetric average boiling point (°C)	183

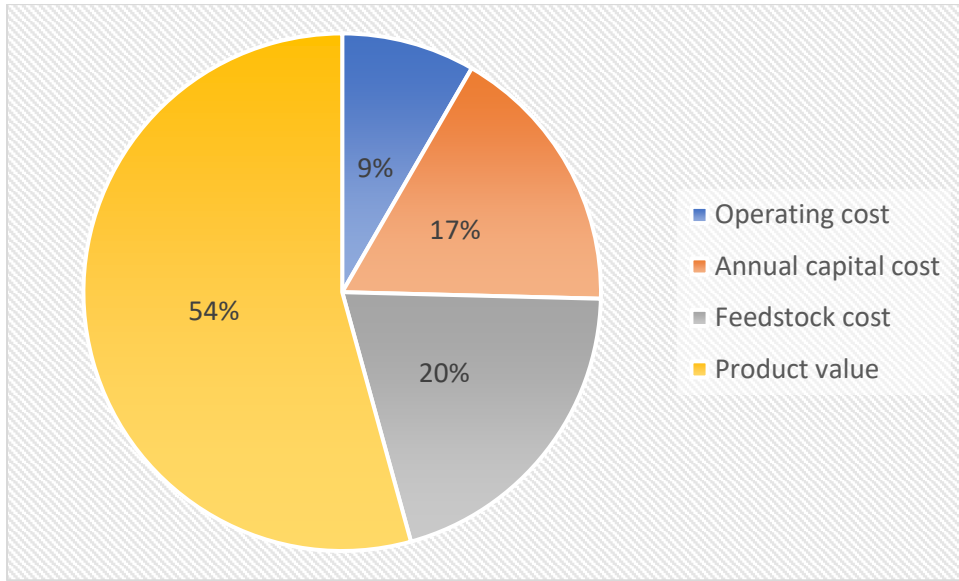
The economic analysis parameters in Table 4 include installation factor, annual capital charge, and price and cost data. Using the size-cost correlation parameters shown in Table 3, the total delivered cost of equipment is estimated to be \$14million for the mass flowrates shown in Fig. 4. The CHP, pyrolysis, PSA, steam reforming, MIEC, hydrodeoxygenation and hydrocracking, and distillation and decanter units cost 35%, 25.2%, 17.4%, 13%, 7%, 2.2% and 0.2% of the

delivered cost of equipment (Fig. 6a). Fig. 6b shows the economic margin analysis comprising product value, feedstock cost, annual capital cost and operating cost contributions, 54%, 20%, 17% and 9%, respectively. For the default values in Table 4 and resulted mass flowrates shown in Fig. 4, the product value, feedstock cost, annual capital cost and operating cost in million \$ per annum are 5.7, 2, 1.8 and 0.9, respectively. Thus, the annual income in million \$ per annum is  $(5.7 - 2 - 0.9) = 2.6$  for a delivered cost of equipment of \$14million, giving a return on investment  $(\frac{\text{annual income}}{\text{capital investment}} \times 100)$  of 19%.

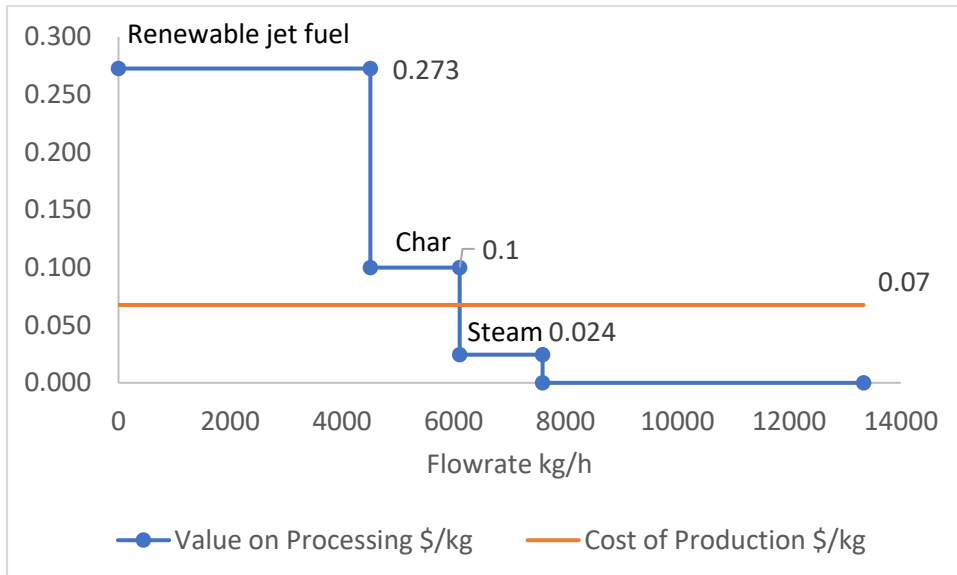
The cost of production is the total annual cost incurred including the biomass cost, divided by the mass flowrate of the biomass, as shown in Fig. 6c. The value on processing of renewable jet fuel, char and steam are their market prices. The value on processing for the renewable jet fuel product and char is greater than their cost of production, thus, these products give economic marginal gain for the biorefinery system. For steam, its value on processing is lower than its cost of production, and thus, it incurs a marginal loss. Individual product margins are equal to the area bounded between the product's flowrate, and its value on processing and cost of production, i.e. product flowrate times the difference between its value on processing and cost of production. The net margin from the biorefinery system is the net area above the COP.



(a)



(b)



(c)

**Fig. 6** (a) Capital cost contributions of the various unit processes in the biorefinery system in Fig. 1; (b) Economic marginal analysis of the biorefinery system in Fig. 1; (c) Value analysis of the outlet streams in the biorefinery system in Fig. 1.

Applying the global warming potential saving and fossil energy saving factors, the product renewable jet fuel (of 36 kt/y) is estimated to save 108 kt CO<sub>2</sub> equivalent per annum global warming potential and 1.44 PJ per annum fossil energy, by the displacement of conventional crude oil derived jet fuel.

The SHDB platform allows comparisons of mrh eq. for a given product between countries of interest in each category. Here, a dimensionless ratio between mrh in business-as-usual import case and mrh in a self-generation case for a given production rate is considered for each of the SLCA impact categories to show the benefits or savings by indigenous energy security services in social and socio-economic quantitative terms, compared to business as usual import cases. The savings in the five main social impact categories are estimated for self-generation in the UK compared to the present import scenario from the EU countries. In the decreasing order of savings, the social impact categories are community infrastructure, governance, human rights, health & safety, and labour rights & decent work, respectively. The relative social scores, i.e. the ratio between mrh in the import scenario and mrh in self-generation, in five social categories are estimated. These are 3.1, 2.1, 2, 1.3 and 1.1, in the five social impact categories, respectively. The SHDB is a proprietary database with social scores (Benoît et al., 2010; Norris et al., 2014). For this reason, relative scores are shown here. Savings mean better social attributes, stressing the need for indigenous production of renewable jet fuel to meet the country's demands.

## **Conclusions**

The aviation sector is in desperate need of sustainable or renewable aviation fuels for greenhouse gas negative or neutral performance. A very few pieces of literature have only extended their studies beyond hydroprocessing into process integration. The previous studies have only considered partial sourcing of hydrogen within biorefinery and/or purchasing of hydrogen to meet its demand by hydroprocessing. Self-sustainability of a biorefinery is imperative implies zero or least dependency on external supply to fulfil its in-process demands for raw materials and utilities other than the biomass feedstock such as hydrogen, oxygen, electricity, heat, etc. This research has advanced the biorefinery process integration concept to think beyond the unit process. What one process cannot achieve; an overall integrated system

963 can achieve. The literature so far has focused on the reaction process, pyrolysis or  
964 hydroprocessing. None has shown how to take the design from one step to multi-step to meet  
965 *all* hydrogen, energy and oxygen requirements from the biomass feedstock itself. The processes  
966 are inevitable to fail to meet economic or environmental criteria if they are to buy hydrogen or  
967 energy and this is the present state of the art. This is the main bottleneck to the industrial uptake.  
968 This research shows a compelling case by its inherent sustainability through process integration  
969 for the industry. This research develops a novel integrated self-sustainable biorefinery system  
970 to produce renewable aviation fuel. This research shows comprehensive mathematical  
971 modelling equations for the design and sustainability evaluations of a novel integrated  
972 biorefinery system producing renewable aviation fuel from biomass. It shows both the  
973 systematic development of the integrated biorefinery system and the mathematical model for  
974 design and sustainability evaluations of the system. The novel biorefinery system integrates  
975 the following process units: 1) Fast pyrolysis converting waste biomass into pyrolysis gas, bio-  
976 oil and char, 2) Bio-oil hydrodeoxygenation, decanting, distillation and hydrocracking to  
977 renewable jet fuel product and alkanes for steam reforming, 3) Steam reforming of alkanes  
978 from distillation into hydrogen production followed by hydrogen separation from offgas  
979 containing carbon monoxide in PSA, 4) MIEC splitting high pressure superheated steam into  
980 hydrogen, to meet remaining hydrogen demand by hydrodeoxygenation and hydrocracking,  
981 and oxygen for CHP, 5) CHP comprising a boiler combusting pyrolysis gas and offgas from  
982 PSA using oxygen from MIEC; the boiler turning medium pressure steam into the generation  
983 of high pressure superheated steam (primarily for the alkane steam reforming and MIEC) by  
984 heat of combustion of the gases, and a back pressure steam turbine turning some high pressure  
985 superheated steam into electricity to meet site electricity demand. This research shows the mass  
986 and energy balance analyses across the integrated biorefinery system, reaction kinetic  
987 modelling of biomass pyrolysis, stoichiometric hydrodeoxygenation and hydrocracking



988 reaction modelling, and renewable jet fuel property correlations from its constituent chemical  
989 compositions. These enable biorefinery design evaluations without the use of proprietary  
990 process simulation packages (See TESARREC™ [https://tesarrec.web.app/sustainability/bio-](https://tesarrec.web.app/sustainability/bio-jet-fuel)  
991 [jet-fuel](https://tesarrec.web.app/sustainability/bio-jet-fuel)). Such open-source platform is helpful for designers, decision-makers, and  
992 policymakers to rapidly and effectively analyse biorefinery systems. This conceptual analysis  
993 can lead to the FEED stage for interested parties. The products from the biorefinery system  
994 (based on 1.33 mass units of biomass) are renewable jet fuel (0.45), char (0.16) and excess  
995 medium pressure steam (0.148). The energy outputs from the biorefinery system relative to the  
996 biomass energy input, are renewable jet fuel product (0.7), char (0.14) and excess medium  
997 pressure steam (0.016). Thus, the overall biorefinery energy efficiency is 85.6%. The  
998 renewable jet fuel properties relevant for the ASTM D7566 are specific gravity (0.81),  
999 aromatics volume (21.3%), hydrogen weight (13.33%), cetane number (50), aniline point  
1000 (53°C), flash point (56°C) and volumetric average boiling point (183°C). The main components  
1001 (%mol) of sustainable aviation fuel controlling the ASTM D7566 properties are: 1-tridecene  
1002 (35.8), methylcyclohexane (13.8), 2,5-xylene (13.4), n-heptane (12.8), cis-decalin (4.8), 1-  
1003 trans-3,5-trimethylcyclohexane (4), diamantane (3.5), n-propylcyclohexane (3.3), 3,3,5-  
1004 trimethylheptane (2.9), 1,2-dimethyl-3-ethylbenzene (2.6), 1,2,3-trimethylbenzene (0.98),  
1005 1,2,3,4-tetrahydronaphthalene (0.76), diphenyl (0.38), n-butylcyclohexane (0.34), 1,2,4-  
1006 triethylbenzene (0.27), p-xylene (0.22), and bicyclohexyl (0.2). Thus, these chemicals can be  
1007 targeted from biomass for renewable fuel production. The techno-economic analysis gives a  
1008 delivered cost of equipment of \$14m for a bio-oil throughput of 10 tph, and \$2.8m for a bio-  
1009 oil throughput of 1 tph. The return on investment is estimated to be 19%. The techno-economic  
1010 analysis also shows attributions of product value, and feedstock, annual capital and operating  
1011 costs of 54%, 20%, 17% and 9%, respectively. In decreasing order of capital costs, the units  
1012 are CHP (35%), pyrolysis (25.2%), PSA (17.4%), steam reforming (13%), MIEC (7%),

hydrodeoxygenation and hydrocracking (2.2%), and distillation and decanter (0.2%), respectively. The value analysis shows the cost of production of \$0.07/kg for a bio-oil throughput of 10 tph, in comparison to the market prices of the products, \$0.273, \$0.1 and \$0.024 per kg renewable jet fuel, char and steam. A renewable jet fuel yield of 4.5 tph (34% by mass of biomass) based on 10 tph bio-oil throughput could potentially save 108 kt CO<sub>2</sub> equivalent per annum global warming and 1.44 PJ/a fossil energy by displacement of conventional jet fuel. Social life cycle assessment reinstates the significance of self-generation in improving indigenous social conditions. In decreasing order of the ratio of mrh between import and self-generation cases, the categories are community infrastructure (3.1), governance (2.1), human rights (2), health & safety (1.3), and labour rights & decent work (1.1). The above performance indicators show that the novel integrated biorefinery design is sustainable.

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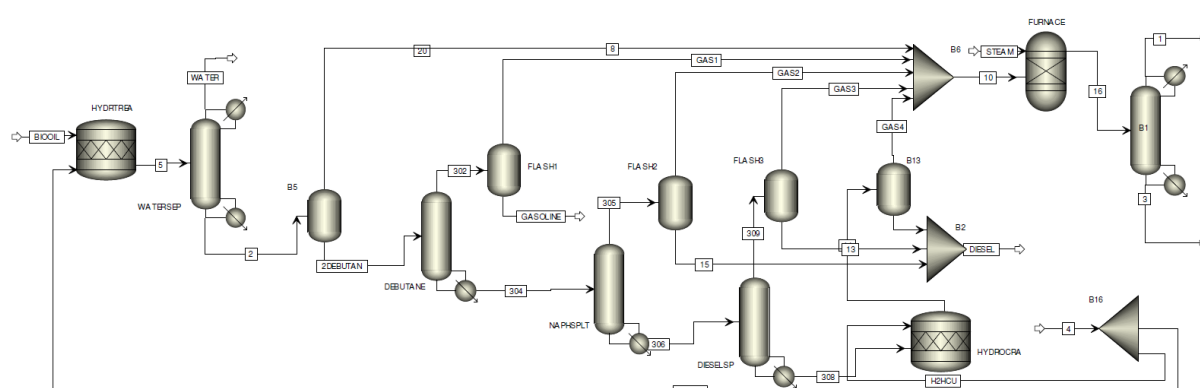
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## Appendix A



**Fig. A1** Simulation schematic of a hydrodeoxygenation reactor (HYDROTREA), a decanter (WATERSEP), reboiler distillation columns (DEBUTANE, NAPHSPLT and DIESELSP) with top flash columns (FLASH1-3), a hydrocracking reactor (HYDROCRA) with a flash



column (B13), a steam reformer (FURNACE), and a PSA (B1). The process simulated on Aspen Plus is discussed as follows (Sadhukhan and Ng, 2011).

The Reactions 1-36 in Equation 5 are for the hydrodeoxygenation reactor (HYDROTREA in Fig. A1) and the Reactions 37-40 in Equation 5 are for the hydrocracking reactor (HYDROCRA in Fig. A1), respectively. The operating conditions of hydrodeoxygenation are 150-250°C and 170 bar and of hydrocracking are 350-400°C and 85 bar. Excess hydrogen once sourced can be circulated around the system. Only the consumed hydrogen by the reactions in Equation 5 is needed to be produced within the system. The distillation columns have been simulated as reboiler columns requiring no condenser (DEBUTANE, NAPHSPLT and DIESELSP in Fig. A1), each with a side flash column (FLASH1-3 in Fig. A1). The pressure of the flash and distillation columns varies between atmospheric and 3.5 bar. The hydrocracker reactor outlet also goes to another flash column (B13 in Fig. A1). These flash columns separate light alkanes as feedstock to steam reformer (FURNACE in Fig. A1) from the bottom fraction pool directed to the hydrocracking reactor. A decanter (WATERSEP in Fig. A1) and a flash column (B5 in Fig. A1) are needed after the hydrodeoxygenation reactor and before the distillation columns to separate steam (medium pressure) (WATER in Fig. A1) and gas from liquid hydrocarbon feed to the distillation columns. This medium pressure steam is a hydrodeoxygenation reaction product. Steam reforming of alkanes produces hydrogen and carbon monoxide (FURNACE in Fig. A1). PSA (B1 in Fig. A1) is applied to separate hydrogen from carbon monoxide rich offgas. Hydrogen produced from the steam reformer and separated from CO-rich offgas in PSA is used in the hydrodeoxygenation and hydrocracking reactors (H2HTU and H2HCU streams in Fig. A1). The final renewable jet fuel is the pool of GASOLINE and DIESEL in Fig. A1 from the bottom of the side flash columns.