

Optimal Storage Design for a Multi-Product Plant: A Non-Convex MINLP Formulation[☆]

Steffen Rebennack^{*,a}, Josef Kallrath^b, Panos M. Pardalos^a

^a*Department of Industrial & Systems Engineering, Center for Applied Optimization,
University of Florida, Gainesville, FL 32611, USA*

^b*Department of Astronomy, University of Florida, Gainesville, FL 32611, USA & BASF
SE, Scientific Computing (GVC/S), D-67056 Ludwigshafen, Germany*

Abstract

We discuss a tank design problem for a multi product plant, in which the optimal cycle time and the optimal campaign size are unknown. A mixed-integer nonlinear programming (MINLP) formulation is presented, where non-convexities are due to the tank investment cost, storage cost, campaign setup cost and variable production rates. The objective of the optimization model is to minimize the sum of the production cost per ton per product produced. A continuous-time mathematical programming formulation is proposed and several extensions are discussed. The model is implemented in GAMS and computational results are reported for the two global MINLP solver BARON and LINDOGlobal as well as several nonlinear solvers available in GAMS.

Key words: Mixed-integer nonlinear programming, global optimization, storage design, cycle time, campaign length, lot sizing problem, continuous-time model

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*Corresponding author

Email addresses: steffen@ufl.edu (Steffen Rebennack), kallrath@astro.ufl.edu (Josef Kallrath), pardalos@ufl.edu (Panos M. Pardalos)

URL: <http://www.rebennack.net> (Steffen Rebennack),
<http://www.ise.ufl.edu/pardalos> (Panos M. Pardalos)

1. Introduction

We consider a tank-sizing problem motivated by Kallrath (22) within a multi-product, multi-reactor, chemical reaction plant. There are different types of costs associated with the production process; *i.e.* variable production cost, variable inventory cost and campaign setup cost. The problem is to determine the optimal tank-size along with the optimal cycle time and campaigns, *i.e.*, for each campaign, the campaign length and campaign production size has to be determined.

The problem contains in its kernel a lot-sizing problem, which frequently occurs in food or chemical process industry when multi-purpose plants are used, *i.e.* plants with machines or reactors that can be operated in different modes; for a review on simultaneous lot-sizing and planning problems see Sürle (36) or Drexler and Kimms (6). In each mode it is possible to produce several products according to free or fixed recipes (joint production) leading to a general mode-product relation: in a certain mode, several products are produced (with different maximal daily production capacity rates), and vice-versa, a product can be produced in different (but not all) modes. To switch between modes, a changeover is necessary, which results in a considerable loss of production time. Planning problems of this type, where the production of an item implies some discrete event are called lot sizing problems; for a survey on lot sizing problems see Kuik et al. (26). The lot-sizing problem is accompanied by a sequencing problem. On top of this problem we have to solve the design problem.

Our tank-sizing problem is subject to stochastic demand uncertainty which is treated in Section 6.4. You and Grossmann (2008a; 2008b; 2009) consider supply chain design with stochastic inventory management simultaneously and use a probabilistic model to also predict the safety stock levels by integrating stock-out probability with demand uncertainty. Unlike this approach, in Section 4.2 we use deterministic lower bounds on the tank level, which can represent some technical requirement (bottom level), or safety stock figured out by the marketing colleagues, mostly by exploiting experience and the ordering behavior of the customers. As the bottom levels are usually smaller than the safety stock level the lower bounds are rather the safety stock level. As these are pre-given by the marketing division we treat the lower bounds only as deterministic input data and as hard constraints. Of course, in reality the lower bounds would be violated from time to time, and then tanks are refilled. Being aware that the optimal tank size is the

38 minimum tank level plus the size of the working inventory, our stochastic
39 approach in Section 6.4 only affects the size of the working inventory.

40 The contribution of this paper is the development of a new mathemati-
41 cal model combining a non-convex nonlinear tank-design problem with a lot
42 sizing problem. The solution of this optimization problem gives an optimal
43 investment decision, balancing tank cost and setup-change costs. Lot sizing
44 problems are usually solved in the context of linear problems. Following the
45 arguments along Kallrath (23), we combine the nonlinear design problem and
46 the more operative aspects such as campaign length and setup changes (the
47 lot sizing part of the problem) simultaneously. The continuous-time model to
48 formulate the problem, the specific properties of the model, model enhance-
49 ments and the extensions to more general cases are the main contributions
50 of the paper.

51 The problem is described in Section 2. In particular, the goal of the op-
52 timization model and its constraints are discussed. Discrete and continuous-
53 time optimization models are compared in Section 3 along with a justifica-
54 tion why a continuous-time mathematical programming formulation is pro-
55 posed in Section 4. Section 5 considers the properties of the mathematical
56 programming formulation and gives an alternative formulation with convex
57 mixed-integer constraints. Some generalizations of the model are discussed
58 in Section 6 including the extension to cope with uncertain demand. Com-
59 putational tests are performed in Section 7. We conclude with Section 8. All
60 indices, sets, variables and input data are summarized in the appendix.

61 2. Problem Description

62 This section contains a description of the problem and some requirements
63 regarding the optimization model.

64 Given is a chemical plant with one reactor and P products $p \in \mathcal{P} :=$
65 $\{1, 2, \dots, P\}$; we generalize this to R reactors in Section 6.2. We have to de-
66 termine a production schedule satisfying the demands for each product and
67 minimum as well as maximum storage capacities for each product. Further-
68 more, we want to determine the optimal size of the tank for each product.

69 2.1. Goals and Expected Results

70 The goal of this analysis is to support our client in the analysis of de-
71 signing his tank storage equipment. Besides the costs, see Section 2.3, the
72 following detailed results are expected:

- 73 • the cycle time T [days],
- 74 • the products tank sizes s_p^M [tons],
- 75 • the production of the campaigns p_{pn}^C [tons],
- 76 • the length of the campaigns t_n [days], and
- 77 • the number of mode-changes M [-].

78 These questions can strictly only be answered using exact mathematical
 79 optimization techniques. Note that there might exist several incommensu-
 80 rable cycle times.

81 The objective function requires further discussions. It is obvious that the
 82 total cost increase with the cycle time T monotonously. Hence, it is not
 83 meaningful to minimize the *total cost*. Instead, the most reasonable scenario
 84 seems to be to minimize the *costs per ton*, *i.e.*, we divide the total costs by
 85 the total production amount produced in a cycle, see Section 4.1. Some care
 86 is required to scale the tank investment costs appropriately.

87 2.2. Constraints

88 The production network is subject to the following constraints:

- 89 • The campaigns are subject to minimum and maximum production
 90 bounds, C_p^- [tons] and C_p^+ [tons].
- 91 • If a reactor is switched to a certain mode, it does so with a continuous
 92 production rate, p_{pn}^R , which has the physical units [tons/day]. The rate,
 93 p_p^R , may vary between the bounds P_p^{R-} [tons/day] and P_p^{R+} [tons/day].
- 94 • The reactors charge to a tank; this process happens in zero time.
- 95 • The size¹ of the tanks are subject to a minimum and maximum amount,
 96 S_p^- [tons] and S_p^+ [tons].

¹For notational convenience, the tank sizes are measured in tons rather than in m³. We can also justify the usage of m³ as the chemical products stored have all density of approximately 1 g/cm³.

97 The demand for each product has to be satisfied. As we assume a period
 98 production schedule repeating itself after time horizon T , we require a non
 99 changing demand for each possible planning horizon T . Hence, we have to
 100 assume that the demand for each product p is constant throughout time.
 101 Given the annual demand, D_p [tons/year], of each product p , the continuous
 102 delivery rates L_p [tons/day] are then derived as

$$L_p := \frac{D_p}{365[\text{days/year}]} \quad . \quad (1)$$

103 With this assumption, the demand data are rough estimates for the ‘real’
 104 demand.

105 2.3. Costs

106 We consider the following costs, given in [\$]:

- 107 • *Variable production cost* c^P : The variable cost associated with the pro-
 108 duction of all products during the planning horizon T .
- 109 • *Setup cost* c^C : The sum of the production setup costs over all cam-
 110 paigns. No sequence-dependence is considered in the initial model.
- 111 • *Variable storage cost* c^S : The product dependent cost associated with
 112 the tank inventory over the planning horizon T . They reflect the capital
 113 binding costs as well as the operating costs.
- 114 • *Tank investments costs* c^I : For each tank, a (nonlinear) function relates
 115 the investment cost to the size of the tanks. The most important
 116 structural feature is that the *tank investment cost* – versus – *tank size*
 117 *function* is concave, see Section 4.1.
 118 We model the two cases when the tank can either be ordered at a
 119 design size (Section 4.1) or has to be purchased from a set of given
 120 tanks (Section 6.3).

121 Additional costs which one might think of, such as the fixed production
 122 costs, have been neglected.

123 3. Discrete versus Continuous-Time Models

124 In this section, we discuss the advantages and disadvantages of discrete
125 versus continuous-time model formulations. This leads to a justification why
126 we use a continuous-time model for our problem.

127 Discrete-time formulations are usually used in planning problems, less
128 frequently, in scheduling problems; *cf.* Kallrath (21) or the literature review
129 by Sürie (36). Continuous-time formulations have been successfully applied
130 in the chemical industry [*cf.* Ierapetriou and Floudas (1998a; 1998b), Ier-
131 apetriou et al. (15), Lin and Floudas (27), Lin et al. (28), Jia and Ierapetri-
132 tou (20), Janak et al. (19), Maravelias and Grossmann (31), Floudas and
133 Lin (10), Castro and Grossmann (2005; 2006), Castro et al. (5), Shaik et al.
134 (35), Shaik and Floudas (33), Janak and Floudas (16) and Floudas (8) for
135 up-to-date reviews on scheduling in the process industry using mixed-integer
136 linear programming and, in particular, continuous-time formulations, and to
137 Janak et al. (2006a; 2006b) and Shaik et al. (34) for a large-scale industrial
138 case study]. A comparison of discrete versus continuous-time formulations
139 has been provided by Floudas and Lin (9).

140 To formulate a discrete-time model for our problem, we would have to
141 select an appropriate *discretization* of the planning horizon. However, this
142 might not be straight forward, especially when the length of the planning
143 horizon is not known or very large. We could either select a sufficiently large
144 horizon which fully includes the optimal cycle time, or we would discretize
145 the interval $[0,1]$ and multiply it with the unknown cycle time. For our
146 investment problem, we have take into account the whole life-cycle of the
147 tanks build. This may lead to a computationally intractable discrete-time
148 model.

149 Continuous-time formulations appear natural in the context of unknown
150 campaign length and unknown optimal cycle time. They also allow us, in
151 case of unknown product demand for the discrete-time steps, to work with
152 continuous delivery rates instead of a discrete-time estimation of the demand.
153 The only disadvantage of continuous-time formulations we see is that it is a
154 challenging task to compute an optimal number of event points needed in a
155 cycle. Taking into account these arguments, we propose to use a continuous-
156 time formulation.

157 **4. Mathematical Model Formulation**

158 This section describes a continuous-time mathematical programming for-
 159 mulation solving the described problem. The formulation is a non-convex
 160 mixed-integer nonlinear programming (MINLP) problem which will be ex-
 161 tended in several ways in Section 6. All indices, sets, variables and data are
 162 summarized in the appendix.

163 Ideally, we want to have a model with unknown cycle time and unknown
 164 number of event points. As the event points have the status of indices in our
 165 *monolithic* model, we have to fix their number. Alternatively, in *polylithic*²
 166 approaches we could increase the number of event points dynamically.

167 To start with, let us consider and solve the model for a fixed number, N ,
 168 of event points or campaigns $n \in \mathcal{N} := \{1, 2, \dots, N\}$. Hence, we allow N
 169 discrete decisions over time for the production, namely which campaign to
 170 select at event point n . However, the length of each campaign is not fixed
 171 and will be determined by the model. The number of event points N implies
 172 then the maximal number of mode-changes M . If $N < N_*$, where N_* is the
 173 unknown optimal number of event points, and all event points are active, *i.e.*,
 174 they are associated to a campaign of non-zero duration, we might have missed
 175 the optimal solution. As we are not able to determine *a priori* an optimal
 176 number of event points, a steady increase of N yielding the same objective
 177 function value gives a good (heuristic) indicator that a global optimum has
 178 been reached (with respect to N). The numerical experiments in Section 7
 179 will tell us that the computational effort with increasing N is mostly spend
 180 for proving optimality rather than computing an optimal solution.

In order to model the assignment decision of product $p \in \mathcal{P}$ for event
 point $n \in \mathcal{N}$, we introduce the binary variables

$$\omega_{pn} = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if product } p \text{ is produced during time period } n \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} .$$

181 This allows us to model the production amount of product p during period
 182 n via the non-negative variable p_{pn}^C . Furthermore, we have to decide how
 183 long each campaign lasts. Therefore, introducing N non-negative continuous
 184 variables t_n defined through the sum of the non-negative production period,
 185 d_n , and the non-negative setup time t_n^{SC} . The sum over all event points of the

²The term “*polylithic*” has been coined by Kallrath (23).

186 production periods defines the planning horizon, T , which enters the model
 187 as a non-negative continuous variable.

188 Non-negative continuous variables s_{pn} keep track of the tank stock for
 189 period n and product p . We Define the tank size for each of the tanks as
 190 additional non-negative continuous variables s_p^M for each tank corresponding
 191 to product p .

192 4.1. Objective Function

193 The total costs c^T are given by the sum of the campaign setup costs c^C ,
 194 the variable production cost c^P , the tank investment costs c^I and the tank
 195 storage costs c^S :

$$c^T = c^C + c^P + c^I + c^S \quad . \quad (2)$$

196 The *campaign setup cost* c^C are given by

$$c^C = \sum_{p \in \mathcal{P}} \sum_{n \in \mathcal{N}} C_p^C \omega_{pn} \quad , \quad (3)$$

197 with the given fixed setup cost C_p^C [\$] for each product p .

198 The *variable production cost* c^P are given by

$$c^P = \sum_{p \in \mathcal{P}} C_p^P L_p T \quad , \quad (4)$$

199 with C_p^P [\$/ton] being the variable production cost for product p .

200 The *tank investment costs* are given for a time horizon of H years; a
 201 typical value for H is 5 years. These costs are concave and have the shape
 202 shown in Figure 1.

203 Normalized to the cycle time T , they are given by

$$c^I = \frac{T}{365H[\text{days/year}]} \sum_{p \in \mathcal{P}} f(s_p^M, p) \quad , \quad (5)$$

204 where $f(x, p)$ is given, for instance, by

$$f(x) = A + \sqrt{Bx} \quad . \quad (6)$$

205 In the current case $f(x, p)$ reads

$$f(x, p) = C_p^F + C_p^0 x^{0.5} \quad ; \quad C_p^F := 165187 \quad , \quad C_p^0 := 0.21 \cdot 2274 \quad . \quad (7)$$

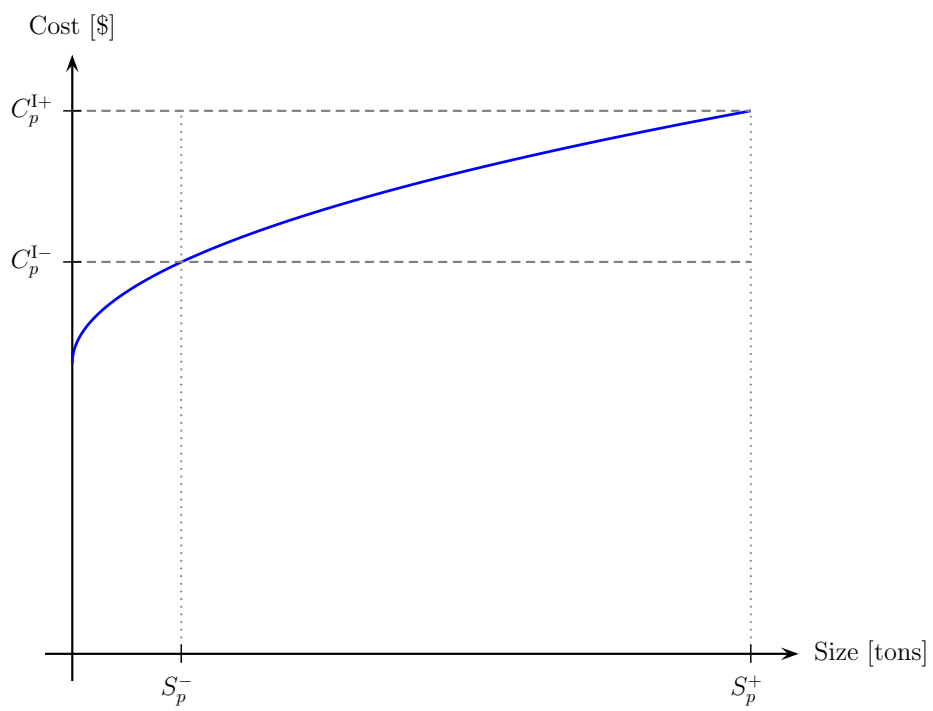


Figure 1: Tank investment cost with lower bound C_p^{I-} and upper bound C_p^{I+} over a 5 year horizon given as a concave function

206 Note that x in (7) has to be specified in tons to be consistent with the
 207 coefficient C_p^0 .

208 An alternative formulation of the tank investment cost for discrete tank
 209 sizes – rather than a continuum – is given in Section 6.3.

210 The *variable tank costs* c^S depend more on the model formulation and
 211 are discussed at the end of Section 4.2.

212 As the total production, p^T , depends on the cycle length T , it is not
 213 meaningful to minimize the total cost. Instead, we minimize the cost per
 214 ton³

$$c^{\text{PT}} := \frac{c^T}{p^T} = \frac{1}{365HL} \sum_{p \in \mathcal{P}} f(s_p^M, p) + \sum_{p \in \mathcal{P}} C_p^{\text{P}} \frac{L_p}{L} + \frac{c^{\text{C}} + c^{\text{S}}}{LT} \quad , \quad (8)$$

215 or equivalently

$$c^{\text{PT}} = \frac{1}{365HL} \sum_{p \in \mathcal{P}} \left(C_p^{\text{F}} + C_p^0 \sqrt{s_p^M} \right) + \sum_{p \in \mathcal{P}} C_p^{\text{P}} \frac{L_p}{L} + \frac{c^{\text{C}} + c^{\text{S}}}{LT} \quad (9)$$

216 with the total demand per day

$$L := \sum_{p \in \mathcal{P}} L_p \quad . \quad (10)$$

217 As the demand per day L [tons/day] is given, C_p^{F} of the tank investment cost
 218 reduce to fixed cost. Also, the variable production cost are fixed for each
 219 ton produced, which is clear as we assume that the variable production cost
 220 for each product are constant throughout time. Hence, those terms can be
 221 excluded from the model.

222 In order to avoid the division of variables, we minimize c^{PT} determined
 223 through relation

$$c^{\text{PT}} TL = c^T = c^{\text{C}} + c^{\text{S}} + \frac{T}{365H[\text{days/year}]} \sum_{p \in \mathcal{P}} C_p^0 \sqrt{s_p^M} + \\ + \sum_{p \in \mathcal{P}} \left(\frac{T}{365HL} C_p^{\text{F}} + C_p^{\text{P}} \frac{L_p T}{L} \right) \quad . \quad (11)$$

³Note that the total costs depend on the planning horizon as the demand per day is fixed (and constant). However, the planning horizon is the unknown cycle time which enters as variable T in the model. As a consequence, minimizing the total cost leads indirectly to a minimization of T , eventually to zero. A more meaningful objective is to minimize the cost per ton produced (leading to a theoretical infinite planning horizon).

224 Recognize that the last sum in equation (11) is a constant for variable
 225 c^{PT} when the demand is given.

226 4.2. Constraints

227 The binary variable ω_{pn} , indicating whether product p is produced in
 228 campaign n , are subject to the constraint

$$\sum_{p \in \mathcal{P}} \omega_{pn} \leq 1 \quad , \quad \forall n \in \mathcal{N} \quad , \quad (12)$$

229 *i.e.*, at most one product can be produced in each campaign. The ‘ \leq ’ is im-
 230 portant to show that the optimal objective function values are monotonously
 231 decreasing with respect to the number of event points, see Section 5.1.

232 The sum of the lengths t_n of all periods n has to equal the cycle time T ,
 233 *i.e.*,

$$\sum_{n \in \mathcal{N}} t_n = T \quad . \quad (13)$$

234 Given the setup-times through

$$t_n^{\text{SC}} = \sum_{p \in \mathcal{P}} T_p^{\text{S}} \omega_{pn} \quad , \quad \forall n \in \mathcal{N} \quad , \quad (14)$$

235 the length of each campaign and possible setup-times is constrained by

$$t_n = d_n + t_n^{\text{SC}} \quad , \quad \forall n \in \mathcal{N} \quad . \quad (15)$$

236 There might exist semi-continuous lower bounds D_{pn}^- on the lengths of
 237 the campaigns d_n depending on which product to be produced, *i.e.*,

$$d_n \geq \sum_{p \in \mathcal{P}} D_{pn}^- \omega_{pn} \quad , \quad \forall n \in \mathcal{N} \quad . \quad (16)$$

238 Similarly, one could consider upper bounds D_{pn}^+ by

$$d_n \leq \sum_{p \in \mathcal{P}} D_{pn}^+ \omega_{pn} \quad , \quad \forall n \in \mathcal{N} \quad . \quad (17)$$

239 The bounds D_{pn}^- and D_{pn}^+ depend on the production rates, loss rates, lower
 240 and upper bounds of the storage tanks as well as minimum and maximum
 241 length of the campaigns. Notice that equations (17) imply that if there is no

242 production at all for an event point, then the duration of this event point
 243 is 0. One way to allow 'empty' campaign is to add an additional dummy
 244 product with zero demand.

245 With the production length d_n of period n at hand, the production during
 246 period n can then be described by

$$p_{pn}^C = p_{pn}^R d_n \omega_{pn} \quad , \quad \forall p \in \mathcal{P}, \quad \forall n \in \mathcal{N} \quad , \quad (18)$$

247 where p_{pn}^C is the amount of product p produced in campaign n . Recognize that
 248 constraint (18) is trilinear; a mixed-integer linear programming formulation
 249 for this constraint is given in Section 5.4. The production rate p_{pn}^R specified
 250 in [tons/day] may be bounded by

$$P_p^{R-} \leq p_{pn}^R \leq P_p^{R+} \quad , \quad \forall p \in \mathcal{P}, \quad \forall n \in \mathcal{N} \quad . \quad (19)$$

251 At least the upper bound needs to be specified. Note that p_{pn}^R may vary from
 252 campaign to campaign.

253 There might exist a semi-continuous lower bound

$$p_{pn}^C \geq C_p^- \omega_{pn} \quad , \quad \forall p \in \mathcal{P}, \quad \forall n \in \mathcal{N} \quad (20)$$

254 and a semi-continuous upper bound

$$p_{pn}^C \leq C_p^+ \omega_{pn} \quad , \quad \forall p \in \mathcal{P}, \quad \forall n \in \mathcal{N} \quad (21)$$

255 on the production amount p_{pn}^C . Those bounds are usually given indirectly by
 256 the tank capacities and the minimum campaign duration as well as minimum
 257 batch sizes.

258 The model implements periodic constraints on the inventory, *i.e.*,

$$s_{pN+1} = s_{p1} \quad , \quad \forall p \in \mathcal{P} \quad , \quad (22)$$

259 where the initial tank filling s_{p1} has to be specified. We will discuss the
 260 meaning of these constraints and the initial conditions in Section 4.4.

261 The amount of product stored in the tanks has to fulfill the bounds

$$S_p^- \leq s_{pn} \leq s_p^M \leq S_p^+ \quad , \quad \forall p \in \mathcal{P}, \quad \forall n \in \mathcal{N} \quad . \quad (23)$$

262 The lower bounds on the inventory level S_p^- can represent some technical
 263 requirement (bottom level), or safety stock. As the bottom levels are usually
 264 smaller than the safety stock level we only consider the safety stock level.

265 The safety stock levels are figured out by the marketing colleagues, mostly
 266 by exploiting experience and the ordering behavior of the customers. In our
 267 analysis they are only treated as input data. The upper bound, S_p^+ , is the
 268 maximal size of the tank available for each product.

269 The material balance constraints for each product p and period n are

$$s_{pn+1} = s_{pn} + p_{pn}^C - L_p t_n \quad , \quad \forall p \in \mathcal{P}, \quad n \in \mathcal{N} \quad , \quad (24)$$

270 stating that the storage amount of product p at the end of period n is given
 271 by the storage amount of product p at the beginning of period n minus
 272 the demand for product p during this period plus the produced amount of
 273 product p , if product p is produced in period n .

274 Finally, we are able to derive the *variable inventory costs* as

$$\begin{aligned} c^S &= \sum_{p \in \mathcal{P}} \sum_{n \in \mathcal{N}} \left[C_p^S \int_0^{t_n} (s_{pn} - L_p^R t) dt + C_p^S \int_0^{d_n} p_{pn}^R t \omega_{pn} dt \right] & (25) \\ &= \sum_{p \in \mathcal{P}} \sum_{n \in \mathcal{N}} \left[C_p^S \int_0^{d_n + t_n^{\text{SC}}} (s_{pn} - L_p^R t) dt + C_p^S \int_0^{d_n} p_{pn}^R t \omega_{pn} dt \right] \\ &= \sum_{p \in \mathcal{P}} \sum_{n \in \mathcal{N}} C_p^S s_{pn} (d_n + t_n^{\text{SC}}) + \\ &\quad + \frac{1}{2} C_p^S \sum_{p \in \mathcal{P}} \sum_{n \in \mathcal{N}} \left[-L_p^R (d_n + t_n^{\text{SC}})^2 + p_{pn}^R \omega_{pn} d_n^2 \right] \\ &= C_p^S \sum_{p \in \mathcal{P}} \sum_{n \in \mathcal{N}} \left[s_{pn} d_n - L_p^R t_n^{\text{SC}} d_n + s_{pn} t_n^{\text{SC}} - \right. \\ &\quad \left. - \frac{1}{2} L_p^R t_n^{\text{SC}} t_n^{\text{SC}} + \frac{1}{2} p_{pn}^C d_n - \frac{1}{2} L_p^R d_n^2 \right] \quad . & (26) \end{aligned}$$

275 The first integrand of constraint (25) calculates the tank level s_{pn+1} of
 276 product p at the end of period n , if product p is not produced during that
 277 period. Recognize that we assume the demand to be continuous and constant
 278 throughout time, see Section 2.2. The second integrand corresponds to
 279 the production of product p during period n . Recognize that equation (26)
 280 contains $3(P \cdot N + N)$ bilinear terms.

281 The tank and production level throughout campaign n for a product p
 282 are drawn in Figure 2. The figure shows that the tank storage level decreases
 283 at a constant rate during the campaign setup time $T_p^S = t_n^{\text{SC}}$ and that there
 284 is no production during that time.

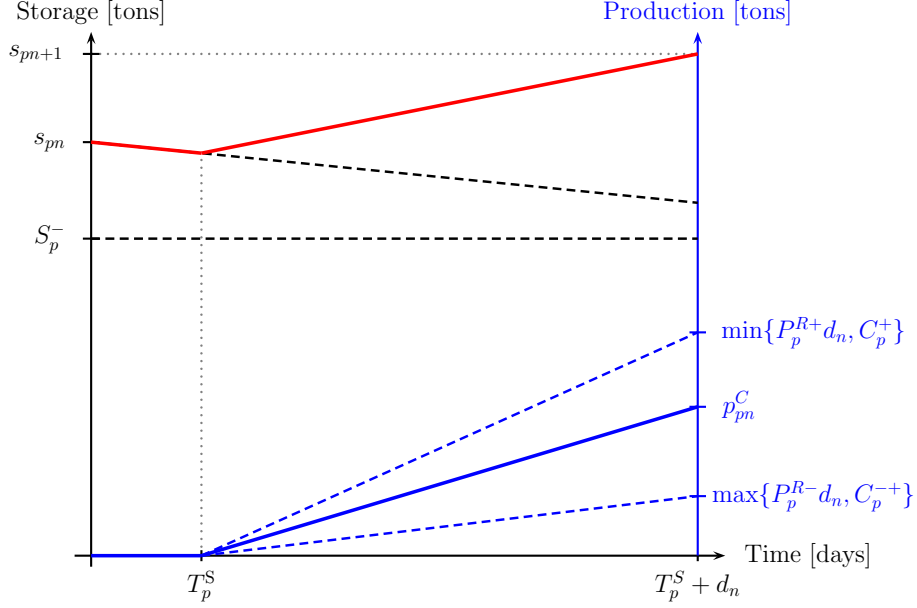


Figure 2: Tank storage level and production during period n for product p

285 The constant demand throughout time is an artificial assumption, nec-
 286 cessary for our model to be consistent; see Section 2.2. Hence, the variable
 287 inventory cost given in equation (25) are only an approximation of the ‘real’
 288 inventory cost. In order to reduce unnecessary complications at this point
 289 and to make the model simpler at the same time, we assume that the outflow
 290 and inflow of stock is constant throughout the *whole* period n . In this case,
 291 the variable inventory cost are just given by

$$c^S = \sum_{p \in \mathcal{P}} C_p^S \sum_{n \in \mathcal{N}} \frac{1}{2} [s_{pn+1} + s_{pn}] t_n \quad . \quad (27)$$

292 Note that s_{pn+1} means $s_{p,n+1}$, but we want to avoid the extra comma sepa-
 293 rating the first and second index. We do not expect confusion because the
 294 indices p and n are never multiplied with each other.

295 In order to reduce the number of nonlinear terms, we introduce the aux-
 296 iliary variables

$$s_{pn}^H := \frac{1}{2} (s_{pn+1} + s_{pn}) \quad , \quad \forall p \in \mathcal{P}, \quad \forall n \in \mathcal{N} \quad . \quad (28)$$

297 Using these variables the variable inventory costs take the form

$$c^S = \sum_{p \in \mathcal{P}} C_p^S \sum_{n \in \mathcal{N}} s_{pn}^H t_n \quad . \quad (29)$$

298 Notice that constraint (29) involves ‘just’ $P \cdot N$ bilinear terms.

299 The presented optimization problem is schematically shown in Figure 3.
 300 One can see the coupling of the lot-sizing problem with the tank design
 301 problem via the production variables p_{pn}^C and the demand delivery $L_p t_n$.

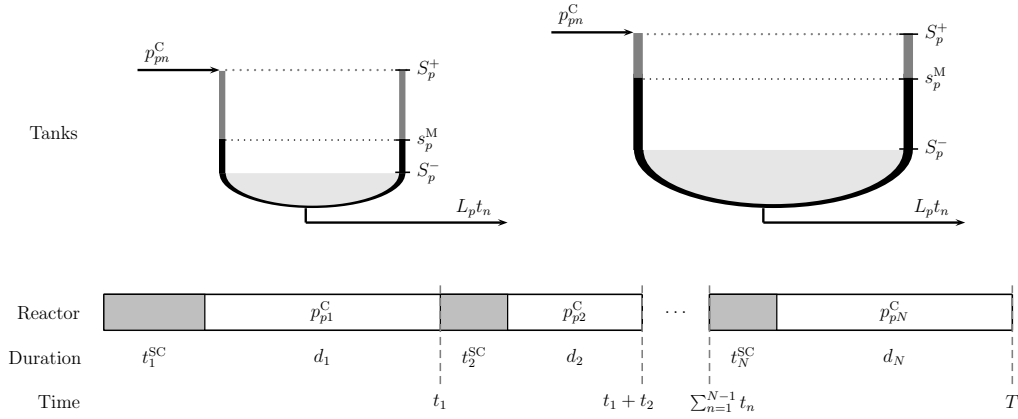


Figure 3: Schematic model of the optimization problem.

302 4.3. Demand Constraints

303 The production for all products p over the time horizon T has to satisfy
 304 the demand, *i.e.*,

$$\sum_{n \in \mathcal{N}} p_{pn}^C = L_p T \quad , \quad \forall p \in \mathcal{P} \quad . \quad (30)$$

305 Interestingly, this constraint is implied by the periodicity requirement for the
 306 tank inventory, constraints (22), and the material balance constraints (24)
 307 and, hence, redundant.

308 4.4. Initial Tank Levels

309 Consider again the periodicity constraints (22) on the initial and final
 310 inventory level. The reason for this constraint is to avoid disturbances at
 311 the end of the planning horizon. Having no constraint on the inventory

312 level for the last period will certainly lead to the effect that any optimal
 313 solution empties the tanks as much as possible. This is very similar to mid-
 314 term operation planning for hydro-plants, where those effects are avoided by
 315 choosing a larger planning horizon (38).

316 Choosing the periodicity constraints (22) does solve the problem of avoid-
 317 ing those end-of-the planning horizon effects, however, there is a major draw-
 318 back. What should we do with the initial inventory s_{p_1} for all products $p \in \mathcal{P}$?

319 One possibility is to fix some / all initial inventory to specific values;
 320 *i.e.*, the known values at the beginning of the design problem. However, in
 321 this case, the optimal solution depends on the choice of the initial stock.
 322 The reason is that the tank sizes s_p^M are influenced by the safety stock S_p^- ,
 323 influencing not only the tank investment cost but also the storage cost.

324 In order to avoid artificially high storage costs, one can fix exactly one of
 325 the initial tank levels to the safety stock and leave the others variable, to be
 326 determined by the solution of the model. Recognize that fixing more than
 327 one tank level to the safety stock makes the problem infeasible.

328 Leaving all initial tank levels as free variables has the effect that the
 329 model will assign one of the tanks to the initial stock.

330 5. Properties of the Mathematical Model

331 In this section, we consider some properties of the mathematical model
 332 introduced in Section 4. We derive some useful properties when allowing
 333 empty campaigns, Section 5.1, we introduce some symmetry and sequence
 334 braking constrains, Section 5.2, we derive lower and upper bounds on the
 335 variables, Section 5.3, and we give an alternative mixed-integer programming
 336 formulation of the constraints, Section 5.4.

337 5.1. Allowing Empty Campaigns

338 Reflecting on constrains (12), we explicitly allow not assigning any prod-
 339 uct for a particular period n . This means together with constraints (18)
 340 that there is no production p_{pn}^C during that period. Furthermore, con-
 341 straints (17) imply that the campaign length d_n is equal to zero. Hence,
 342 condition $\sum_{p \in \mathcal{P}} \omega_{pn} = 0$ can be interpreted as an empty campaign n .

343 The allowance of ‘empty’ campaigns has the following interesting property
 344 of the model. For any given (feasible) solution with N event points, we can
 345 ‘extend’ it to a feasible solution with $N + 1$ event points with the same

346 objective function value by defining

$$\omega_{pN+1} = 0 \quad , \quad \forall p \in \mathcal{P} \quad . \quad (31)$$

347 This implies that $d_{N+1} = 0$, $t_{N+1} = 0$, $p_{pN+1}^C = 0$, $s_{pN+1} = s_{pN}$ for all
 348 products p and the cost per ton remain unchanged.

349 This leads directly to the following two corollaries.

350 **Corollary 5.1.** *Let $C^*(N)$ be the optimal cost per ton of the model dependent*
 351 *on the number of event points N . Then, $C^*(N)$ is a monotone decreasing*
 352 *function in N .*

353 *Proof.* The proof follows from the fact that any solution with N event points
 354 can be extended to a feasible solution with $N + 1$ event points with the same
 355 objective function value. \square

356 Recognize that Corollary 5.1 implicitly implies that the tank design prob-
 357 lem is feasible for any $N \geq \bar{N}$, if it is feasible for \bar{N} .

358 **Corollary 5.2.** *Let N^* be an optimal number of event points for our model.*
 359 *Then, $N \geq N^*$ is also an optimal number of event points.*

360 *Proof.* From Corollary 5.1, we have that $C^*(N) \leq C^*(N^*)$ for all $N \geq N^*$
 361 as $C^*(N)$ is monotone decreasing in N . As N^* is an optimal number of
 362 event points, $C^*(N) \geq C^*(N^*)$ which implies equality and the corollary is
 363 proven. \square

364 Currently, we have no method how to compute N^* . However, when the
 365 objective function is not decreasing anymore with increasing number of event
 366 points, then Corollary 5.2 provides a practical way to stop the search for N^* .

367 5.2. Breaking Symmetry & Sequence

368 To destroy some symmetry and superfluous solutions we add the following
 369 constraints to the model

$$\sum_{p \in \mathcal{P}} \omega_{pn} \geq \sum_{p \in \mathcal{P}} \omega_{pn+1} \quad , \quad \forall n \in \mathcal{N} \quad . \quad (32)$$

370 Constraints (32) shift the empty campaigns to the end of the planning hori-
 371 zon. In case that $\sum_{p \in \mathcal{P}} \omega_{pn} = 0$, the symmetry is broken and possible solu-
 372 tions with empty campaigns other than at the end of the planning horizon
 373 are eliminated.

374 Furthermore, with the allowance for empty constraints, we can add the
 375 following constraint to the model

$$1 - \omega_{pn} \geq \omega_{pn+1} \quad , \quad \forall p \in \mathcal{P}, \quad \forall n \in \mathcal{N} \wedge n < N \quad (33)$$

376 We call constraints (33) sequence braking constraints, as they forbid the
 377 production of product p during event point $n + 1$ if product p is produced
 378 during period n . Recognize that constraints (33) remove certain feasible
 379 solutions from the model but do not affect the optimal cost per ton $C^*(N)$.

380 We will observe the computational effectiveness of the symmetry braking
 381 constraints (32) and the sequence braking constraints (33) in Section 7.

382 5.3. Deriving Bounds on the Variables

383 The computational efficiency of global solvers depends crucially on the
 384 tightness of the upper and lower bounds on the variables. Some global solvers
 385 even require lower and upper bounds on all variables, *e.g.* BARON (32; 37).

386 As indicated in Section 4, some of the lower and upper bounds might not
 387 be given explicitly but have to be derived by other data; *for instance*, the
 388 lower and upper limit of the production amount.

389 The maximal length of a campaign is bounded by two processes: the
 390 capacity of a storage tank can be reached due to the continuous production,
 391 or the safety stock limit is reached due to the continuous sales of a product.

392 In the first case, if for a specific product p lower bounds on the production
 393 rates are provided or the production occurs at constant rates P_p^R , the maximal
 394 length of the campaigns is given by

$$D_p^{M_1} := \frac{S_p^+ - S_p^-}{P_p^- - L_p} \quad ; \quad (34)$$

395 otherwise, *i.e.*, $D_p^{M_1}$ is set to $D_p^{M_1} := +\infty$.

396 In the second case, we have

$$D_p^{M_2} := \frac{S_p^+ - S_p^-}{L_p} \quad . \quad (35)$$

397 The upper bound on the campaign length for product p is then given by

$$D_p^+ := \min_p \{D_p^{M_1}, D_p^{M_2}\} \quad . \quad (36)$$

398 These considerations also lead to the following remark. If P_p^- is too large,
 399 there are too large finite setup-change times T_p^S , and S_p^+ is very small, the
 400 problem may become easily infeasible.

401 5.4. An Equivalent Mixed-Integer Linear Formulation of the Constraints

402 Reflecting again the mathematical programming formulation of Section 4,
 403 we see that the only non-linear terms in the constraints are given by the
 404 trilinear terms $p_{pn}^R d_n \omega_{pn}$ of constraints (18). In this section, we derive an
 405 equivalent mixed-integer linear programming formulation of that constraint
 406 introducing no additional constraints, leading to a linear constraint set of
 407 our tank design problem with integrality conditions.

408 With the bounds on the production rate given in constraints (19), we can
 409 eliminate the variable for the production rate, p_{pn}^R , and derive the equivalent
 410 inequalities

$$P_{pn}^{R-} d_n \omega_{pn} \leq p_{pn}^C \leq P_{pn}^{R+} d_n \omega_{pn} \quad , \quad \forall p \in \mathcal{P}, \quad \forall n \in \mathcal{N} \quad . \quad (37)$$

411 involving bilinear terms instead of trilinear ones.

412 Consider now the formal bilinear expressions

$$y_{pn} := d_n \omega_{pn} \quad , \quad \forall p \in \mathcal{P}, \quad \forall n \in \mathcal{N} \quad . \quad (38)$$

413 The upper bound on the campaign length, D_{pn}^+ , given in constraint (17),
 414 enables us to describe the variables y_{pn} by the following system of linear
 415 inequalities

$$y_{pn} \leq D_{pn}^+ \omega_{pn} \quad , \quad \forall p \in \mathcal{P}, \quad \forall n \in \mathcal{N} \quad , \quad (39)$$

$$y_{pn} \leq d_n \quad , \quad \forall p \in \mathcal{P}, \quad \forall n \in \mathcal{N} \quad , \quad (40)$$

$$y_{pn} \geq d_n - D_{pn}^+ (1 - \omega_{pn}) \quad , \quad \forall p \in \mathcal{P}, \quad \forall n \in \mathcal{N} \quad , \quad (41)$$

$$y_{pn} \geq 0 \quad , \quad \forall p \in \mathcal{P}, \quad \forall n \in \mathcal{N} \quad . \quad (42)$$

416 This formulation requires some comments. The case $\omega_{pn} = 0$ leads to
 417 $y_{pn} = 0$ via constraints (39) and (42), while $\omega_{pn} = 1$ generates the inequalities
 418 $y_{pn} \leq d_n$ and $y_{pn} \geq d_n$, *i.e.*, $y_{pn} = d_n$.

419 Hence, the variables y_{pn} are described via the mixed-integer linear con-
 420 straints (39) - (42) and the bilinear constraints (38) will not enter the model
 421 explicitly. Notice that this formulation introduces $P \cdot N$ additional continuous
 422 variables to the model.

423 As we also have a lower bound on the campaign length, D_{pn}^- , via con-
 424 straint (16), we are able to eliminate the auxiliary variables y_{pn} and derive
 425 the following system of linear inequalities

$$P_{pn}^{R-} D_{pn}^- \omega_{pn} \leq p_{pn}^C \leq P_{pn}^{R+} D_{pn}^+ \omega_{pn} \quad , \quad \forall p \in \mathcal{P}, \quad \forall n \in \mathcal{N} \quad , \quad (43)$$

$$P_{pn}^{R-} (d_n - D_{pn}^+ (1 - \omega_{pn})) \leq p_{pn}^C \leq P_{pn}^{R+} d_n \quad , \quad \forall p \in \mathcal{P}, \quad \forall n \in \mathcal{N} \quad . \quad (44)$$

426 For $\omega_{pn} = 0$, we get $p_{pn}^C = 0$ through constraints (43). In case that $\omega_{pn} = 1$,
 427 constraints (44) come into play and result into the desired linear inequality

$$P_{pn}^{R-} d_n \leq p_{pn}^C \leq P_{pn}^{R+} d_n \quad , \quad \forall p \in \mathcal{P}, \quad \forall n \in \mathcal{N} \quad . \quad (45)$$

428 It is well known that the upper and lower bounds on d_n are crucial for
 429 the computational efficiency of the model. This is due to the reason that a
 430 common technique for optimization solvers for such type of problems is to
 431 relax the binary domain for the variables ω_{pn} , having the effect that the linear
 432 constraints (43) - (44) lead to a weaker formulation than constraints (37).
 433 Hence, one wants to make sure to derive as tight upper and lower bounds on
 434 d_n as possible.

435 6. Generalizations and Model Variations

436 In this section, we discuss two generalizations of the model presented
 437 in Section 4. Furthermore, a different approach for the tank investment
 438 modeling and a robust optimization model taking into account uncertain
 439 demand data are presented.

440 6.1. Sequence-Dependent Setup-Times

441 In practical planning processes in chemical plants, it often happens that
 442 the campaign setup-times of a product p depends heavily on the product \bar{p}
 443 produced before; *i.e.*, it might take longer to clean the reactor when produc-
 444 ing white color after black color than vice versa.

445 Therefore, let $T_{\bar{p}p}^S$ [days] denote the sequence-dependent setup-times when
 446 producing product p directly after producing product \bar{p} . Then, we can change
 447 equation (14) to

$$t_n^{\text{SC}} = \begin{cases} \sum_{p \in \mathcal{P}} T_p^S \omega_{pn}, & \text{if } n = 1 \\ \sum_{\bar{p} \in \mathcal{P}} \sum_{p \in \mathcal{P}} T_{\bar{p}p}^S \omega_{\bar{p}n-1} \omega_{pn}, & \text{if } n \neq 1 \end{cases} \quad (46)$$

448 with the initial setup time T_p^S when starting the production at the initial
 449 event point. Recognize that equation (46) involves the binary quadratic
 450 terms $\omega_{\bar{p}n-1} \omega_{pn}$ for $n > 1$ being equal to 1, if product \bar{p} is produced at event
 451 point $n - 1$ and product p is produced at event point n . Define

$$\lambda_{\bar{p}pn} := \omega_{\bar{p}n-1} \omega_{pn} \quad , \quad \forall \bar{p}, p \in \mathcal{P}, \quad \forall n \in \mathcal{N} \quad , \quad (47)$$

452 then, expression (47) can be replaced by the following system of equations

$$\lambda_{\bar{p}pn} \leq \omega_{\bar{p}n-1} \quad , \quad \forall \bar{p}, p \in \mathcal{P}, \quad \forall n \in \mathcal{N} \quad , \quad (48)$$

$$\lambda_{\bar{p}pn} \leq \omega_{pn} \quad , \quad \forall \bar{p}, p \in \mathcal{P}, \quad \forall n \in \mathcal{N} \quad , \quad (49)$$

$$\lambda_{\bar{p}pn} \geq \omega_{\bar{p}n-1} + \omega_{pn} - 1 \quad , \quad \forall \bar{p}, p \in \mathcal{P}, \quad \forall n \in \mathcal{N} \quad . \quad (50)$$

453 Hence, the bilinear terms in (46) can be expressed via three additional linear
 454 equations and one additional non-negative *continuous* variable for each of the
 455 $(N - 1)P^2$ quadratic terms; see Kallrath and Wilson (24) for more details.
 456 This way, the number of binary variables and non-convex terms of the model
 457 remain the same.

458 6.2. Multiple Reactors

459 In this section, we present a model having mainly three additional features
 460 to the single reactor case: It generalizes to multiple reactors, idle reactor time
 461 is allowed and the same product can be produced in two proceeding event
 462 points while a change of the production rate is possible.

463 A natural way to extend the presented model to the case of multiple
 464 reactors is to replace the binary variables ω_{pn} by

$$\omega_{pnr} = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if product } p \text{ is produced at reactor } r \text{ during time period } n \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad , \quad (51)$$

465 with $r \in \mathcal{R} := \{1, 2, \dots, R\}$ being the set of $R(\geq 2)$ reactors. The idea is
 466 to synchronize the decisions for all reactors; *i.e.*, to allow a mode change
 467 for each reactor at the same event point. In order to allow mode changes
 468 at any given time, one has to ensure that the products can be produced at
 469 proceeding periods.

470 Let us now have a look at the constraints of the model of Section 4 to
 471 make the necessary adjustments. In the multiple reactor case, exactly one
 472 product has to be produced on each reactor at each event point

$$\sum_{p \in \mathcal{P}} \omega_{pnr} = 1 \quad , \quad \forall n \in \mathcal{N}, \quad \forall r \in \mathcal{R} \quad . \quad (52)$$

473 Empty campaigns and/or reactor idle times can be modeled by adding a
 474 dummy product with zero demand. This way, also Corollary 5.1 and Corol-
 475 lary 5.2 hold true for the multiple reactor model.

476 The cycle time T is still given by (13). However, the length of each period
 477 and campaign is no longer given by equations (15) but instead determined
 478 through the following system of constraints:

$$d_{nr}^+ - d_{nr}^- = t_n - t_{nr}^{\text{SC}} - d_{n-1r}^- \quad , \quad \forall n \in \mathcal{N}, \quad \forall r \in \mathcal{R} \quad , \quad (53)$$

$$d_{n-1r}^- \leq (D_{pn}^+ + T_p^{\text{S}}) \cdot (1 - \delta_{pnr}) \quad , \quad \forall n \in \mathcal{N}, \quad \forall r \in \mathcal{R}, \quad \forall p \in \mathcal{P} \quad (54)$$

$$d_{Nr}^- = 0 \quad , \quad \forall r \in \mathcal{R}, \quad (55)$$

$$d_{nr}^+, d_{nr}^- \geq 0 \quad , \quad \forall n \in \mathcal{N}, \quad \forall r \in \mathcal{R}, \quad (56)$$

479 with the convention $d_{0r}^- \equiv 0$ and the binary variables δ_{pnr} indicating if the
 480 production of product p starts at the beginning of period n , *i.e.*,

$$\delta_{p1r} = (1 - \omega_{pNr}) \omega_{p1r} \quad , \quad \forall p \in \mathcal{P}, \quad \forall r \in \mathcal{R} \quad , \quad (57)$$

$$\delta_{pnr} = (1 - \omega_{pn-1r}) \omega_{pnr} \quad , \quad \forall p \in \mathcal{P}, \quad \forall n \in \mathcal{N}, \quad \forall r \in \mathcal{R} \quad , \quad (58)$$

481 and the setup-times in (14) extend to the multiple reactors case as

$$t_{nr}^{\text{SC}} = \sum_{p \in \mathcal{P}} T_p^{\text{S}} \delta_{pnr} \quad , \quad \forall n \in \mathcal{N}, \quad \forall r \in \mathcal{R} \quad . \quad (59)$$

482 Recognize that through equations (54), (57) and (58), at most one of the
 483 variables t_{nr}^{SC} and d_{n-1r}^- is positive for any pair n and r . Hence, variable
 484 d_{nr}^+ is the production length of period n on reactor r and d_{nr}^- transfers the
 485 remaining setup-time to the next period $n+1$. With positive variable storage
 486 cost $C_p^{\text{S}} > 0$, relation $d_{nr}^+ d_{nr}^- = 0$ is ensured most of the time. As there may
 487 be no production during the setup-time, it might be that both variables d_{nr}^+
 488 and d_{nr}^- are positive at the same time. This could be the case if the whole
 489 duration of the event point t_n is smaller than the setup-time, this particular
 490 product has no production during that time on one of the other reactors and
 491 the stock of this product is at its minimum. Forcing one of the two variables
 492 d_{nr}^+ and d_{nr}^- to have a zero value would make such a schedule infeasible, while
 493 our model allows to ‘borrow’ some production time from the next period
 494 and to give it ‘back’ afterwards. The consequence is a slight inaccuracy in
 495 the storage cost, however, this is consistent with the simplifications made in
 496 equations (27).

497 The variables δ_{p1r} for the first period defined in (57) capture the cyclic
 498 effect of the lot-sizing problem; *i.e.*, if a product is produced in the last period
 499 of the planning horizon, then the production of this product does not ‘start’

500 in period 1 and no setup-time and setup-cost are required. The bilinear
 501 terms in (57) and (58) can be linearized in a straight forward manner; cf.
 502 Section 6.1.

503 To ensure semi-continuous lower bounds D_{pn}^- on the lengths of each pro-
 504 duction, we replace (16) by the following system of constraints

$$d_{nr}^+ + d_{nr}^\times \geq \sum_{p \in \mathcal{P}} D_{pn}^- \delta_{pnr} + d_{n-1r}^\times \quad , \quad \forall n \in \mathcal{N}, \quad \forall r \in \mathcal{R} \quad , \quad (60)$$

$$d_{n-1r}^\times \leq (D_{pn}^+ + T_p^S) \cdot (1 - \delta_{pnr}) \quad , \quad \forall p \in \mathcal{P}, \quad \forall n \in \mathcal{N}, \quad \forall r \in \mathcal{R} \quad (61)$$

$$d_{Nr}^\times = 0 \quad , \quad \forall r \in \mathcal{R}, \quad (62)$$

$$d_{nr}^\times \geq 0 \quad , \quad \forall n \in \mathcal{N}, \quad \forall r \in \mathcal{R} \quad , \quad (63)$$

505 with $d_{0r}^\times \equiv 0$. In a similar way, the constraints on semi-continuous upper
 506 bounds in (17) can be modeled.

507 The production during each period depends now also on the reactor;
 508 equation (18) is replaced by

$$p_{pn}^C = \sum_{r \in \mathcal{R}} p_{pnr}^C \quad , \quad \forall p \in \mathcal{P}, \quad \forall n \in \mathcal{N} \quad , \quad (64)$$

509 and

$$p_{pnr}^C = p_{pnr}^R d_{nr}^+ \omega_{pnr} \quad , \quad \forall p \in \mathcal{P}, \quad \forall n \in \mathcal{N}, \quad \forall r \in \mathcal{R} \quad . \quad (65)$$

510 The constraints on the production rate (19) as well as the semi-continuous
 511 lower bounds (20) and upper bounds (21) hold also true for each reactor r .
 512 The definition of the production rate in equation (65) allows that the same
 513 product can be produced in proceeding event points where the production
 514 rate can change. If the production rate has to stay constant throughout the
 515 whole production period, then one may couple the variables p_{pnr}^C with ω_{pnr} .

516 With equations (57) and (58), the campaign setup cost are calculated via

$$c^C = \sum_{p \in \mathcal{P}} \sum_{n \in \mathcal{N}} \sum_{r \in \mathcal{R}} C_p^C \delta_{pnr} \quad . \quad (66)$$

517 All other cost terms (4), (5), (11), (28), as well as (29) remain unchanged
 518 along with relations (22), (23) and (24).

519 6.3. Discrete Tank Sizes

520 Large tanks can be ordered at any size while small tanks are usually given
 521 with pre-defined tank sizes. In order to allow to choose from a discrete set

522 of different tanks for each product, we introduce the binary variables

$$\delta_{p\tau} = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if tank } \tau \text{ is installed for product } p \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}, \quad (67)$$

523 with $\tau \in \mathcal{T}_p$ being the set of possible tanks with capacity $S_{p\tau}^+$ for product
 524 $p \in \mathcal{P}$. Let $c_{p\tau}^I$ [\$/day] be the tank investment cost scaled to one day for tank
 525 $\tau \in \mathcal{T}_p$ and product $p \in \mathcal{P}$. Then, the tank investment costs of equation (5)
 526 can be replaced by

$$c^I = \sum_{p \in \mathcal{P}} c_{p\tau}^I \delta_{p\tau} \quad . \quad (68)$$

527 As we only allow exactly one tank per product p , we need the constraint

$$\sum_{\tau \in \mathcal{T}_p} \delta_{p\tau} = 1, \quad \forall p \in \mathcal{P} \quad . \quad (69)$$

528 The bounds on the tank filling levels are then given by

$$\sum_{\tau \in \mathcal{T}_p} \delta_{p\tau} S_{p\tau}^- \leq s_{pn} \leq \sum_{\tau \in \mathcal{T}_p} \delta_{p\tau} S_{p\tau}^+ \quad , \quad \forall p \in \mathcal{P}, \quad \forall n \in \mathcal{N} \quad (70)$$

529 which replaces constraints (23).

530 The discrete model of the tank sizes removes the concave function $f(s_p^M, p)$
 531 from equation (5) and the problem becomes a non-convex mixed-integer
 532 quadratic constraint programming problem. However, additional $|\mathcal{T}_p|$ bilin-
 533 ear terms are added to the objective function expression (11) as the cycle
 534 time T is unknown.

535 For computational reasons it is better to replace the binary restriction
 536 on the variables $\delta_{p\tau}$ by Special Order Set of type 1 (SOS-1), as at most one
 537 variable of this set can have a nonzero value. The concept of SOS-1 was
 538 introduced by Beale and Tomlin (1). For more details on SOS-1 sets, we
 539 refer to Kallrath and Wilson (24, Chapter 6.7) and Kalvelagen (25).

540 6.4. Two Stage Stochastic Programming Approach for Demand Uncertainty

541 The major drawback of the presented model is that it neglects that the
 542 daily demands L_p for each product p are uncertain. More realistic is to
 543 assume that the demand varies between certain bounds or that we are given
 544 different possible scenarios for the demand; *i.e.*, one scenario could be to
 545 assume that there will be an economy boom leading to a high daily demand.

546 Given that the demand for each product is uncertain, we want to find an
 547 investment decision for the storage tanks which leads to a feasible solution
 548 for all different demand scenarios – hence, we want the tank investment
 549 decision to be *robust* with respect to the demand uncertainty.

550 Robust optimization approaches for scheduling problems under demand
 551 uncertainty following the ideas of Lin et al. (29) would use the upper bound
 552 on the daily demand value (minus a pre-defined infeasibility tolerance) to
 553 determine a production schedule. However, in our problem, we do not only
 554 want that the tank investment decisions can deal with the worst case, but we
 555 also want to minimize the *expected* cost, that is, the tank investment cost plus
 556 the *expected* operational cost. This can be modeled as a two stage stochastic
 557 program where the first stage decisions represent the tank investment deci-
 558 sions and the recurse decisions are the operational decisions. This way, the
 559 investment decision in a tank has to be made before the actual demand is
 560 known. After the tank has been installed, a certain demand scenario is going
 561 to occur and the production can be scheduled.

562 Therefore, let $\mathcal{S} := \{1, 2, \dots, S\}$ be the set of S possible scenarios with
 563 demand L_{ps} for each product $p \in \mathcal{P}$ and scenario $s \in \mathcal{S}$ having probability
 564 Pr_s . Obviously, we have

$$\sum_{s \in \mathcal{S}} Pr_s = 1 \quad . \quad (71)$$

565 Then, all operational decisions depend on the demand scenarios $s \in \mathcal{S}$.
 566 Hence, there are S copies for each of the variables modeling the schedul-
 567 ing problem; *i.e.*, denoted by the variables $p_{pns}^C, p_s^T, s_{pns}, t_{ns}, d_{ns}, t_{ns}^{SC}, T_s,$
 568 $\omega_{pns},$ and $s_{pn.s}^H$ for all $p \in \mathcal{P}, n \in \mathcal{N}$ and $s \in \mathcal{S}$. Recognize that the variables
 569 s_p^M modeling the size of the design tanks are independent of the scenarios,
 570 representing the first stage decision.

571 Consistent with equation (10), we define the total demand per day for
 572 scenario $s \in \mathcal{S}$ as

$$L_s := \sum_{p \in \mathcal{P}} L_{ps} \quad . \quad (72)$$

573 By substituting the appropriate variables, let for each scenario $s \in \mathcal{S}$ the
 574 campaign setup cost be c_s^C corresponding to (66), the variable production
 575 cost be c_s^P corresponding to (4), and the storage cost be c_s^S corresponding
 576 to (29).

577 Then, the *operational* cost per ton, c_s^{OPT} , for scenario s can be derived
 578 through relation

$$c_s^{\text{OPT}} T_s L_s = c_s^{\text{C}} + c_s^{\text{P}} + c_s^{\text{S}} \quad , \quad (73)$$

579 where the variable production costs c_s^{P} is a constant for c_s^{OPT} ; just like in the
 580 deterministic case. Together with the tank investment cost per ton produced,
 581 this leads to the objective function

$$\frac{1}{365H[\text{days/year}]} \left(\sum_{p \in \mathcal{P}} f(s_p^M, p) \right) \left(\sum_{s \in \mathcal{S}} \frac{Pr_s}{L_s} \right) + \sum_{s \in \mathcal{S}} Pr_s c_s^{\text{OPT}} \quad , \quad (74)$$

582 being minimized. Equation (74) represents the expected cost per ton.

583 The constraints on the amount of product stored in the tanks are given
 584 by

$$S_p^- \leq s_{pms} \leq s_p^M \leq S_p^+ \quad , \quad \forall p \in \mathcal{P}, \quad \forall n \in \mathcal{N}, \quad \forall s \in \mathcal{S} \quad , \quad (75)$$

585 which substitutes equation (23). All other constraints (12), (13), (14), (15),
 586 (16), (17), (18), (19), (20), (21), (22), (24) and (28) have to hold true for
 587 each scenario $s \in \mathcal{S}$. Recognize that these constraints are only connected via
 588 equation (75).

589 Compared to the deterministic model, the two stage stochastic model pro-
 590 posed increases the number of variables and constraints significantly (roughly
 591 by a multiplier of S). However, even more crucial are the additional non-
 592 convex terms.

593 7. Computational Results

594 The mathematical programming formulation described in Section 4 is a
 595 MINLP formulation due to the non-convex objective function and the binary
 596 variables to decide which product has to be produced in each campaign.
 597 Therefore, we need global optimization techniques to compute the global
 598 optimum.

599 The mathematical program is implemented in the modeling language
 600 GAMS, version 23.2.1. The code has been added to the GAMS model li-
 601 brary under the name `tanksize` (GAMS). The MINLP problem is solved
 602 with the global solvers BARON (37, version 8.1.5) and LINDOGlobal (30,

N	c^{PT}						GAP		CPU					
	AE	CB	DI	SB	BA	LG	BA	LG	AE	CB	DI	SB	BA	LG
3	1.269	1.269	-	-	1.269	1.269	0.00%	0.00%	0:00:55	0:00:01	0:00:01	0:00:01	0:00:14	0:00:04
4	1.269	1.269	-	-	1.269	1.269	0.00%	0.00%	0:00:54	0:00:05	0:00:01	0:00:01	0:45:45	0:00:30
5	1.257	1.257	-	-	1.257	1.257	19.04%	0.00%	0:00:30	0:00:11	0:00:01	0:00:01	‡	0:01:51
6	1.257	1.257	-	-	1.257	1.257	23.72%	0.00%	0:00:36	0:00:29	0:00:01	0:00:01	‡	0:05:49
7	1.257	1.257	-	-	1.257	1.257	26.64%	0.00%	0:00:36	0:00:53	0:00:01	0:00:01	‡	0:14:56
8	1.269	1.257	-	-	1.257	1.257	30.05%	0.00%	0:00:42	0:01:57	0:00:01	0:00:01	‡	0:57:35

- No feasible solution found.
‡ Time limit of 5h was reached.

Table 1: Computational results for three products comparing different MINLP solvers.
Nonlinear solvers: Alpha-ECP (AE), CoinBonmin (CB), Dicopt (DI), SBB (SB)
Global solvers: BARON (BA), LINDOGlobal (LG)

603 version 5.0.1.183) as well as with the nonlinear solvers Alpha-ECP (39, ver-
604 sion 1.75.03), CoinBonmin (2, version 1.0), Dicopt (7, version 2x-C), and
605 SBB (12). The standard settings for all solvers are used. The operation sys-
606 tem is Windows XP and the computational tests are done on a Intel Pentium
607 Centrino Dual 2.00 GHz with 1GB RAM, where only one processor is used
608 in order to be able to repeat the computational tests.

609 Some computational results for three products (one reactor and sequence-
610 independent campaign setup-times) are given in Table 1. N is the number of
611 event points, given as input data for the solver; c^{PT} states the cost per ton,
612 excluding the variable production cost as well as the fixed part of the tank
613 investment cost; the optimality gap (GAP) is calculated as the difference
614 of the upper bound and the lower bound divided by the upper bound; the
615 CPU time is given in h:mm:ss. All instances were solved with six different
616 MINLP solvers. We observe that Alpha-ECP and CoinBonmin are able to
617 find the global optimum (except for one instance) while Dicopt and SBB
618 do not find a feasible solution. The computational time to prove global
619 optimality for a fixed number of event points N increases significantly with
620 N for LINDOGlobal. BARON was not able to close the gap for $N \geq 5$ – let
621 us point out again that only the standard settings were used.

622 Even for the relative small instance with three products, we are not able
623 to prove that the solution found is globally optimal with respect to N , *i.e.*,
624 the cost per ton is minimal over all event points. However, due to the model
625 structure discussed in Section 5.1, $N = 5$ looks like a good candidate for
626 the global optimum, as the cost per ton do not decrease while increasing N

N	T	s_1^M	s_2^M	s_3^M	P_1	P_2	P_3	c^{PT}
3, 4	11.316	682.779	621.633	253.101	1	2	3	1.269
5, 6, 7, 8	17.048	678.605	594.598	273.872	1, 3	2, 5	4	1.257

Table 2: Optimal solutions for three products corresponding to the results of Table 1.

627 further.

628 Optimal solutions for the instances tested in Table 1 are presented in
629 Table 2. T is the optimal cycle time for given N , s_p^M are the tank sizes
630 for each of the three products $p \in \mathcal{P} = \{1, 2, 3\}$. The periods where each
631 product p is scheduled for is given in the columns P_p . The corresponding
632 optimal solution for three products and $3 \leq N \leq 8$ event points is shown
633 in Figure 4. The tank storage levels for the three tanks over the planning
634 horizon T are shown on top of a Gantt chart. Consistent with Figure 3,
635 the gray shaded areas indicate the setup-times and the production rates are
636 given in the Gantt charts. Interestingly, the optimal solution for the case of
637 3 and 4 event points is the same while the optimal cost per ton decreases
638 when $N = 5$.

639 Table 3 shows the effects of the symmetry braking constraints (32) and
640 the sequence braking constraints (33) discussed in Section 5.2. Column ‘Sol.’
641 gives the number of (box) iterations for LINDOGlobal until the optimal so-
642 lution is found whereas ‘Total’ provides the number of iterations until global
643 optimality is proven. While the running time and the number of iterations
644 are similar for $3 \leq N \leq 5$, significant computational differences for all four
645 cases for $6 \leq N \leq 8$ are observed. Recognize that for $N \geq 6$ many alter-
646 native optimal solutions exists as the optimal objective function value is the
647 same as for $N = 5$ and this is where the additional constraints (32) and (33)
648 show their efficiency. Optimal solutions where found by LINDOGlobal with
649 relatively few iterations. Hence, the time consuming part is the computa-
650 tion of the bounds and this is where the symmetry and sequence braking
651 constraints help.

652 Table 4 summarizes some computational results for four products. The
653 following observations seem to be most important:

- 654 • for fixed number of event points, global optimality cannot be proven
655 within 5 hours for $N \geq 8$;
- 656 • to find the optimal solution for fixed number of event points is a much

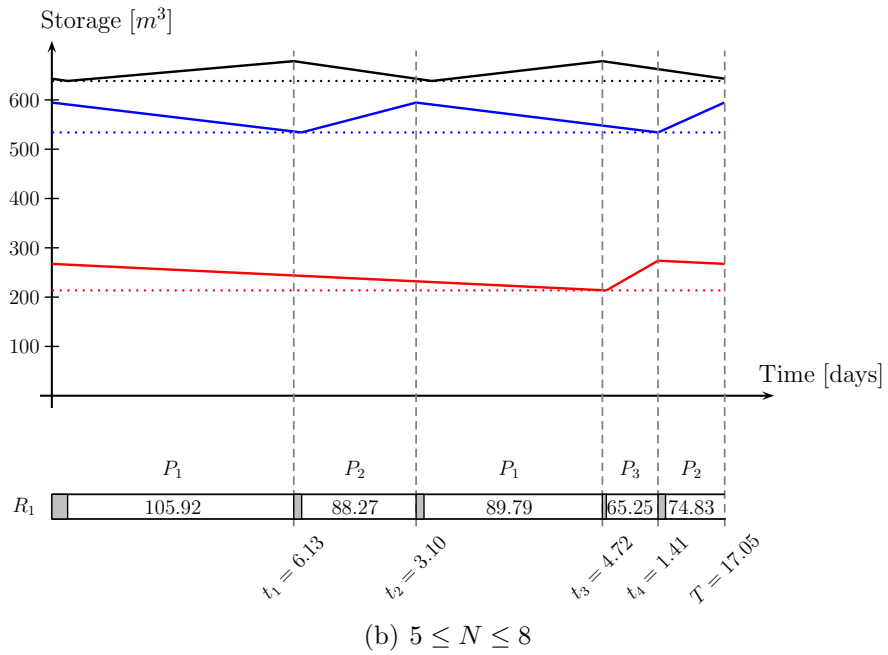
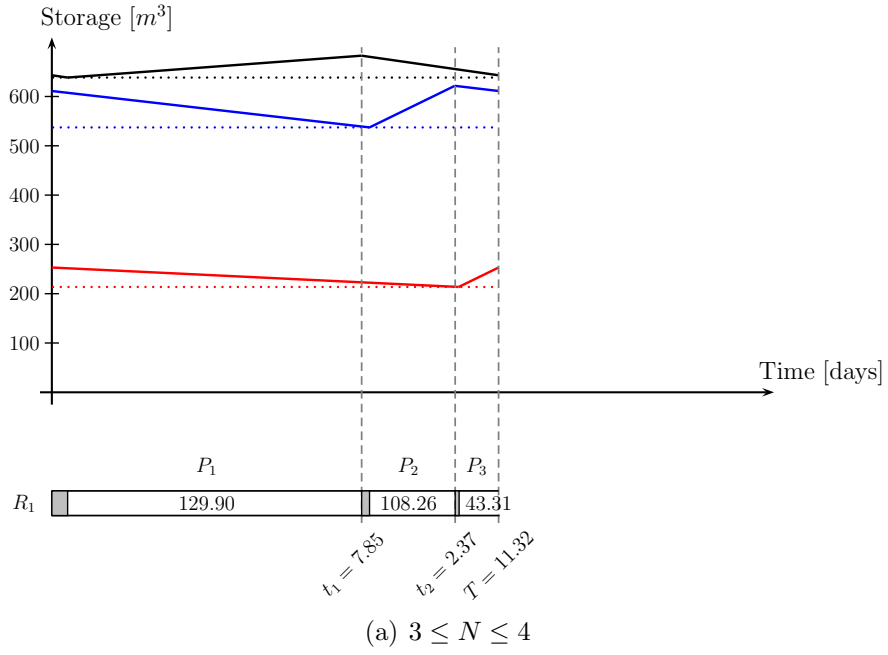


Figure 4: Optimal solutions for three products and different number of event points N corresponding to Table 2.

N	with Symmetry & with Sequence			with Symmetry & Sequence broken (33)			Symmetry broken & with Sequence (32)			Symmetry broken & Sequence broken (33) & (32)		
	# Iterations		CPU	# Iterations		CPU	# Iterations		CPU	# Iterations		CPU
	Sol.	Total		Sol.	Total		Sol.	Total		Sol.	Total	
3	3	62	0:00:05	0	61	0:00:05	3	63	0:00:04	2	61	0:00:04
4	0	521	0:00:37	0	507	0:00:34	0	396	0:00:28	110	368	0:00:29
5	2	1719	0:03:15	0	1692	0:03:01	9	1477	0:03:42	0	1001	0:01:51
6	4	9134	0:19:49	6	7647	0:16:24	5	2901	0:09:52	2	2065	0:05:49
7	37	34606	1:32:42	9	27751	1:10:36	0	7707	0:31:26	28	4553	0:14:56
8	121	134320	7:40:43	5	106632	5:49:11	85	26358	2:00:29	2	15480	0:57:35

Table 3: Computational results for LINDOGlobal with and without sequence braking constraints (33) and with and without symmetry braking constraints (32).

657 more challenging task than in the case of three products, which can be
658 seen by the increase in computational time and by the fact that the
659 nonlinear solvers do not always find the global optimum;

- 660 • the optimal number of event points seems to be much larger than for
661 the case of three products.

662 Table 5 summarizes the best solutions found for each event point corre-
663 sponding to the four product case of Table 4. At a first glance, it might be
664 surprising that the optimal cycle time T does not change for $3 \leq N \leq 10$.
665 The reason is that the yearly demand for product four is 78 tons, while the
666 minimum production period D_4^- is 1 day and the minimum production rate
667 P_4^{R-} is 7.00, leading to a minimal cycle time T of 32.756. Solutions for some
668 event points are shown in Figure 5.

669 7.1. Model Variations

670 Let us now discuss the effects of the generalizations and model variations
671 of Section 6.

672 We take the case of three products of Table 1 where the setup-times
673 are changed to be sequence-dependent as follows: the change from P1 to
674 P2 takes now 75% longer and the change from P2 to P1 takes half of the
675 time as before. All other setup-times remain the same. The corresponding
676 optimal solutions and the computational time for LINDOGlobal are shown
677 in Table 6. One observes that the running times are similar to the case with
678 sequence-independent setup-times.

N	c^{PT}						GAP		CPU					
	AE	CB	DI	SB	BA	LG	BA	LG	AE	CB	DI	SB	BA	LG
4	1.659	1.659	–	–	1.659	1.659	0.00%	0.00%	0:04:14	0:00:06	0:00:01	0:00:01	0:05:28	0:00:10
5	1.577	1.577	1.630	1.577	1.577	1.577	28.44%	0.00%	1:43:20	0:00:48	0:00:02 [†]	0:00:14	‡	0:02:47
6	1.459	1.459	–	1.459	1.468	1.459	31.47%	0.00%	0:38:27	0:01:44	0:00:01	0:00:46	‡	0:15:50
7	1.435	1.413	–	1.413	1.440	1.413	32.38%	0.00%	0:40:50	0:04:35	0:00:03 [†]	0:01:07	‡	1:35:08
8	1.413	1.403	–	1.403	1.483	1.403	36.34%	9.94%	0:35:09	0:11:10	0:00:01	0:01:29	‡	‡
9	1.371	1.371	–	1.371	–	1.371	–	18.73%	‡	0:23:09	0:00:03 [†]	0:02:41	‡	‡
10	1.459	1.366	–	–	–	1.366	–	23.62%	2:26:08	1:25:02	0:00:01	0:00:01	‡	‡
11	1.416	1.362	–	1.362	–	1.362	–	25.80%	0:56:28	3:23:02	0:00:03 [†]	0:09:26	‡	‡
12	1.413	1.364	–	1.362	–	1.362	–	27.37%	2:56:16	‡	0:00:01	0:24:45	‡	‡
13	1.428	1.360	1.418	–	–	1.359	–	28.71%	0:33:26	‡	0:00:08 [†]	0:00:01	‡	‡
14	1.374	1.359	1.418	1.360	–	1.359	–	30.17%	1:46:35	‡	0:00:09 [†]	0:18:30	‡	‡
15	1.367	1.359	1.418	–	–	1.359	–	31.01%	0:01:20	‡	0:00:09 [†]	0:12:41	‡	‡

– No feasible solution found.

[†] Execution was stopped due to solver problems.

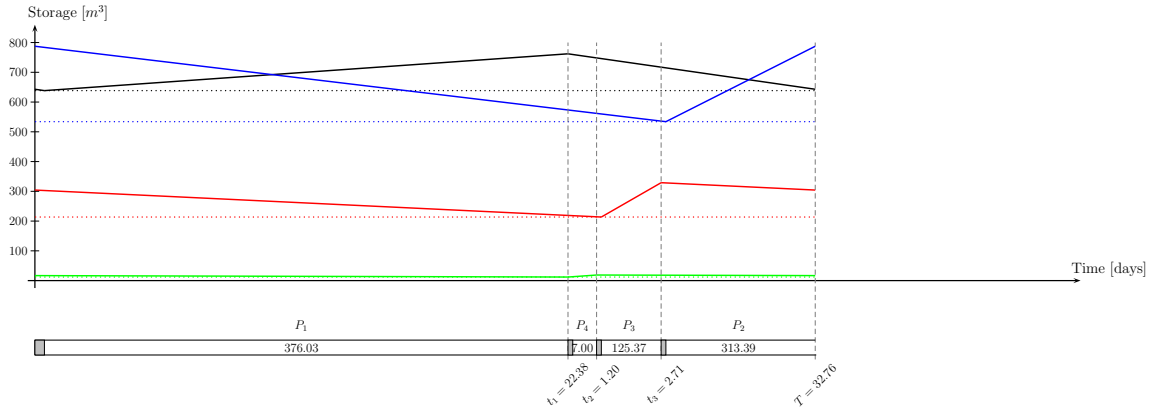
[‡] Time limit of 5h was reached.

Table 4: Computational results for four products comparing different MINLP solvers.
 Nonlinear solvers: Alpha-ECP (AE), CoinBonmin (CB), Dicopt (DI), SBB (SB)
 Global solvers: BARON (BA), LINDOGlobal (LG)

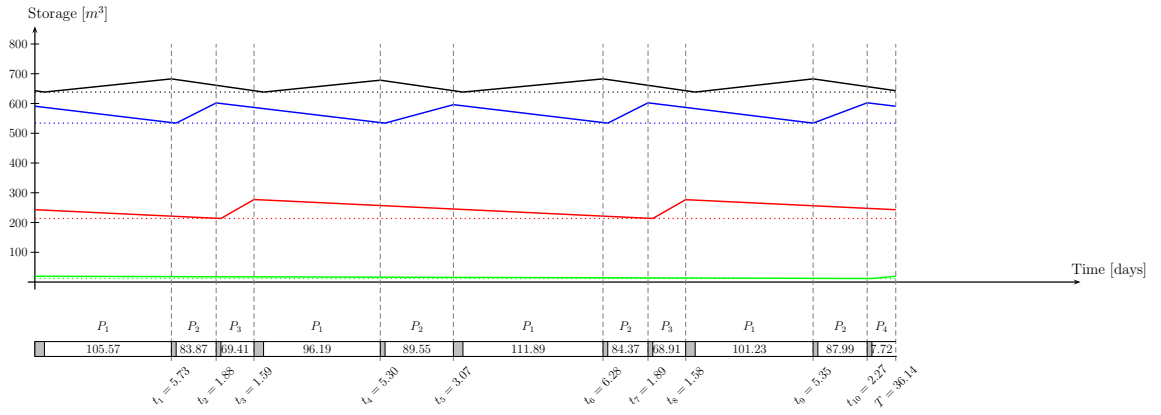
N	T	s_1^M	s_2^M	s_3^M	s_4^M	P_1	P_2	P_3	P_4	c^{PT}
4	32.756	762.101	787.507	329.009	18.744	1	4	3	2	1.659
5	32.756	809.221	710.854	305.859	18.744	1, 4	5	2	3	1.577
6	32.756	710.695	654.966	329.009	18.744	1, 4	2, 5	3	6	1.458
7	32.756	711.185	657.573	272.595	18.744	1, 5	2, 6	3, 7	7	1.413
8	32.756	701.605	659.884	278.081	18.744	1, 3, 6	2, 5	4, 8	7	1.403
9	32.756	697.736	609.406	273.506	18.744	1, 5, 7	2, 6, 9	4, 8	3	1.371 [‡]
10	32.756	684.057	611.969	611.969	18.744	1, 3, 6, 8	2, 4, 7	5, 10	9	1.371 [‡]
11, 12	36.141	682.783	602.311	277.335	19.467	1, 4, 6, 9	2, 5, 7, 10	3, 8	11	1.362 [‡]
13, 14, 15	42.890	685.444	610.174	262.310	20.909	1, 3, 6, 9, 11	2, 5, 7, 10	4, 8, 12	13	1.359 [‡]

[‡] Global optimality could not be proven within 5h.

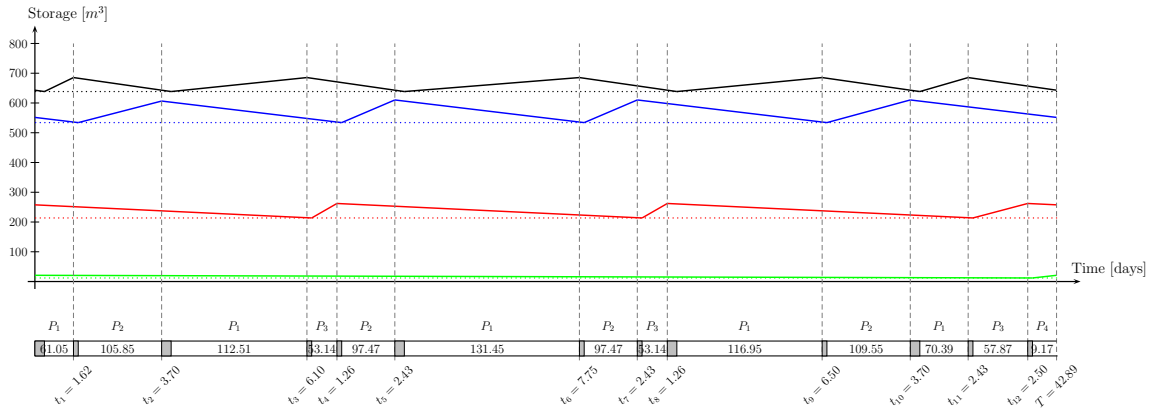
Table 5: Good solutions for four products corresponding to the results of Table 4.



(a) $N = 4$



(b) $11 \leq N \leq 12$



(c) $13 \leq N \leq 15$

Figure 5: Good solutions for four products and different number of event points N corresponding to Table 5.

N	T	s_1^M	s_2^M	s_3^M	P_1	P_2	P_3	c^{PT}	CPU
3	11.314	689.663	616.835	252.711	1	2	3	1.271	0:00:04
4	12.902	706.331	606.654	248.175	1, 3	2	4	1.269	0:00:34
5	17.046	681.715	593.431	272.717	1, 4	3, 5	2	1.258	0:02:19
6	17.046	681.715	593.431	272.717	1, 4	3, 5	2	1.258	0:05:28
7	17.046	681.715	593.431	272.717	1, 4	3, 5	2	1.258	0:12:40
8	17.046	681.715	593.431	272.717	1, 4	3, 5	2	1.258	0:52:32

Table 6: Computational results for three products with sequence-dependent setup-times using the solver LINDOGlobal.

679 Recall that the model for multiple reactors involves not only additional
680 binary decision variables for each reactor r defined in (51), but also compli-
681 cating constraints such as in (53) - (61). This makes it already difficult to
682 find a feasible solution, while proving optimality is an even more challenging
683 task. This can be observed in Table 7 where a case of two reactors and four
684 products with an additional dummy product having zero demand is shown.
685 For the sequencing decision, the reactor number and the period numbers are
686 shown; *i.e.*, ‘R2-3’ means that reactor two during period three is used. One
687 observes that the cost per ton decreases significantly compared to the single
688 reactor case; even when allowing the double number of event points for the
689 single reactor case. This is due to the decrease in the tank investment cost
690 and the tank storage cost. Interestingly, the case with two event points is
691 infeasible for this instance due to the minimum production rates and the
692 minimum duration for each production period.

693 The corresponding solutions for the two reactor case are presented in
694 Table 8 and are shown in Figure 6. The solution details for $N = 7$ event
695 points are not presented, as the cost per ton are higher than for the case
696 of $N = 4, 5$, and 6 event points which means that this solution cannot be
697 optimal; *cf.* Section 6.2. Consider now the solution for $N = 3$ event points.
698 We observe that reactor one is idle during period two in the optimal solution
699 and that product 3 is produced during period two and three on reactor two,
700 where a change in the production rate at $n = 2$ occurs.

701 Consider now Table 9. Computational results are presented for the case
702 of discrete tank investment decisions as discussed in Section 6.3. As the
703 upper bound on the tank sizes are relatively large for the computational tests
704 presented in Table 1 and Table 2, we divide the upper bound first by five and
705 then use a uniform discretization with 1, 3, 5 or 10 steps; we use the same

N	c^{PT}						GAP		CPU					
	AE	CB	DI	SB	BA	LG	BA	LG	AE	CB	DI	SB	BA	LG
3	1.431	-	-	-	1.431	1.431	0.00%	0.00%	0:18:44	0:00:01 [†]	0:00:01	0:00:01	3:12:09	0:01:17
4	1.360	-	-	-	1.376	1.350	28.81%	27.37%	2:39:30	0:00:01 [†]	0:00:01	0:00:01	‡	3:39:11 [†]
5	1.329	-	-	-	1.385	1.317	33.87%	30.78%	‡	0:00:01 [†]	0:00:01	0:00:01	‡	‡
6	1.319	-	-	-	1.556	1.317	42.23%	32.04%	‡	0:00:01 [†]	0:00:01	0:00:01	2:47:36 [†]	‡
7	1.320	-	-	-	1.377	1.357	35.44%	34.63%	‡	0:00:01 [†]	0:00:01	0:00:01	‡	‡

- No feasible solution found.
[†] Execution was stopped due to solver problems.
[‡] Time limit of 5h was reached.

Table 7: Computational results for four products and two reactors comparing different MINLP solvers.

Nonlinear solvers: Alpha-ECP (AE), CoinBonmin (CB), Dicopt (DI), SBB (SB)
Global solvers: BARON (BA), LINDOGlobal (LG)

N	T	s_1^M	s_2^M	s_3^M	s_4^M	P_1	P_2	P_3	P_4	c^{PT}
3	32.756	776.898	647.592	294.729	18.744	R1-1	R2-1	R1-3, R2-2	R2-3	1.432
4	32.756	711.256	647.592	294.729	18.744	R1-1, R1-3	R2-1	R2-2, R2-3, R2-4	R1-4	1.350 [‡]
5, 6	32.756	684.063	667.072	278.856	18.744	R1-1, R2-3	R2-1, R2-2	R1-3, R1-4, R1-5	R2-4	1.317 [‡]

[‡] Global optimality could not be proven within 5h.

Table 8: Computational results for two reactors and four products computed with LINDOGlobal.

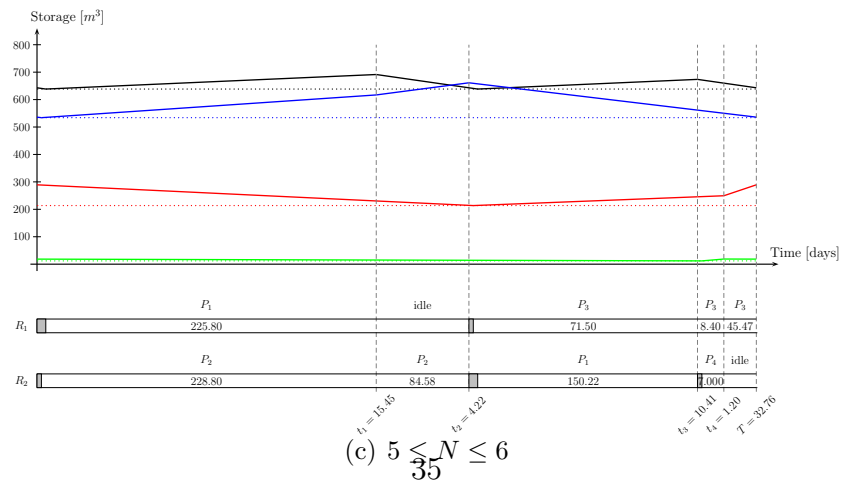
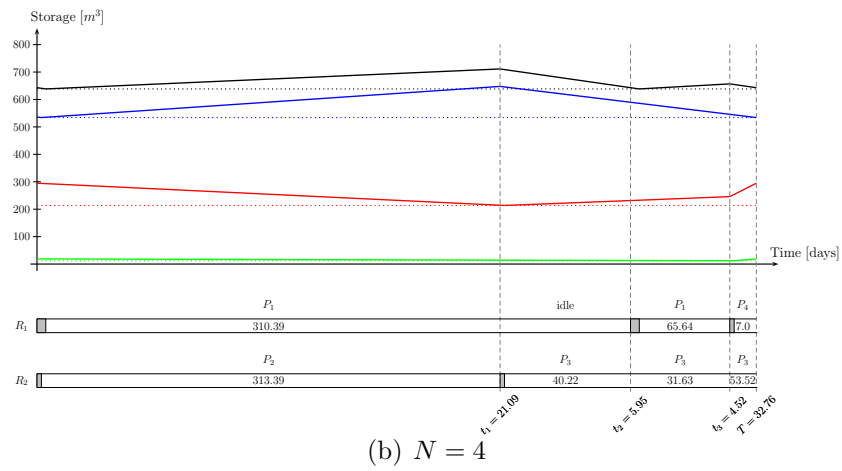
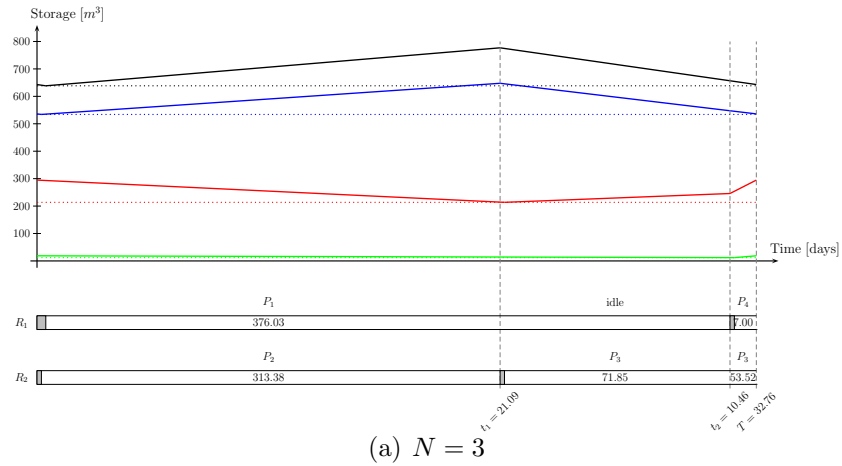


Figure 6: Good solutions for two reactors and different number of event points N corresponding to Table 8.

706 discretization size for the tanks of each product. The case of 1 discretization
707 of the tank capacity is a pure lot-sizing problem with non-linear storage
708 cost. Observe that the computational efficiency decreases dramatically when
709 increasing the size of \mathcal{T}_p . Comparing the computational performance with
710 the case of continuous tanks sizes is sobering. It seems that the additional
711 binary variables in the objective function make it more difficult to compute
712 tight bounds. Hence, a discrete model should only be used if implied by
713 practice or when a very good approximation of the optimal storage size is
714 known as the computational time as well as the cost per ton are worse than
715 for the case of continuous tank sizes.

716 Table 10 shows the optimal solutions for each of the cases presented in
717 Table 9. Most the time, the sequencing decisions remain the same for different
718 tank discretizations and the same number of event points. The solutions for
719 five event points with $|\mathcal{T}_p| = 5$ and $|\mathcal{T}_p| = 10$ show that there are different
720 optimal cycle times T while having the same sequencing decision and the
721 same tank sizes. For the case of $|\mathcal{T}_p| = 10$, the cost per ton for three and four
722 event points do not change, while the optimal cycle time and the sequencing
723 decisions differ. The solution with $N = 4$ is slightly better ($\approx 0.036\%$).

N	c^{PT}				CPU			
	$ \mathcal{T}_p = 1$	$ \mathcal{T}_p = 3$	$ \mathcal{T}_p = 5$	$ \mathcal{T}_p = 10$	$ \mathcal{T}_p = 1$	$ \mathcal{T}_p = 3$	$ \mathcal{T}_p = 5$	$ \mathcal{T}_p = 10$
3	1.313	1.276	1.275	1.271	0:00:03	0:00:42	0:02:10	0:05:32
4	1.311	1.273	1.272	1.271	0:00:42	0:05:46	0:11:41	0:23:07
5	1.305	1.262	1.260	1.260	0:01:42	0:15:04	0:27:01	2:19:39
6	1.305	1.262	1.260	1.260	0:04:35	0:26:36	1:54:17	7:42:52

Table 9: Computational results for LINDOGlobal with discrete tank sizes for three products.

724 Similar to the case of multiple reactors, the two stage stochastic program-
725 ming approach for demand uncertainty introduced in Section 6.4 increases
726 the problem size significantly. We can observe this also in the computational
727 results shown in Table 11. Three different demand scenarios with equal prob-
728 ability are considered, with the ‘normal’ demand scenario corresponding to
729 the case of Table 1, the ‘high’ demand scenario has an increase of 20% in
730 demand and the ‘low’ demand scenario has a demand decrease of 10%. For a
731 given number of event points N , the computational results for LINDOGlobal
732 along with the solutions are presented in each row where the ‘case’ value in
733 the second column reads ‘stochastic’. For each of the three scenarios, the
734 optimal cycle time T_s is shown. Remember that the optimal investment

N	$ \mathcal{T}_p $	T	s_1^M	s_2^M	s_3^M	P_1	P_2	P_3	c^{PT}
3	1	12.826	803.672	669.726	267.890	1	2	3	1.313
3	3	10.487	696.557	625.151	249.927	1	2	3	1.276
3	5	12.252	707.269	616.236	257.112	1	3	2	1.275
3	10	10.956	691.202	616.236	251.723	1	2	3	1.271
4	1	14.763	803.672	669.726	267.890	1, 3	4	2	1.311
4	3	13.317	696.557	625.151	249.927	1, 3	4	2	1.273
4	5	13.985	707.269	616.236	257.112	1, 3	4	2	1.272
4	10	12.587	691.202	616.236	251.723	1, 3	4	2	1.271
5, 6	1	17.927	803.672	669.726	267.890	1, 3	2, 5	4	1.305
5, 6	3	16.355	696.557	580.575	249.927	1, 3	2, 5	4	1.262
5, 6	5	16.355	675.134	589.490	267.890	1, 4	2, 5	3	1.260
5, 6	10	15.322	675.134	589.490	267.890	1, 4	3, 5	2	1.260

Table 10: Optimal solutions for three products with discrete tank sizes corresponding to the results of Table 9.

735 decisions s_p^M do not depend on the scenarios. We compare the stochastic
736 solution with different deterministic approaches as follows. Treating each of
737 the three scenarios as an independent deterministic optimization model may
738 lead to different optimal tank sizes. Taking the expected tank sizes of those
739 solutions and solving the corresponding non-linear lot-sizing problem with
740 fixed tank sizes are shown in the rows where the second column reads ‘exp-’
741 for each of the three demand scenarios (‘low’, ‘normal’, ‘high’). Another ap-
742 proach could be to use the maximum tank sizes instead of the expected tank
743 sizes - those results are shown in the rows where the second column reads
744 ‘max-’.

745 Due to the nature of the stochastic approach, the optimal cost per ton of
746 the stochastic solution cannot be higher than the expected cost per ton of
747 the two approaches described above (for any given number of event points).
748 We interpret this improvement of the stochastic approach as the value of
749 the stochastic solution. For our data, the gains of the stochastic approach
750 over the ‘expected tank size’ approach are 0.70%, 0.0258% and 0.182% and
751 over the ‘maximum tank size’ approach are 0.069%, 0.069% and 0.075% for
752 $N = 4, 5, 6$. These cost improvements are marginal. However, one has to take
753 into account that only three scenarios for a three product case are discussed,
754 where each scenario has an equal probability and the scenarios have very
755 similar demands. Nevertheless, the computational results confirm the validity

N	case	s_1^M	s_2^M	s_3^M	T_1	T_2	T_3	T	c^{PT}	GAP	CPU
4	stochastic	691.105	619.115	253.294	12.510	11.367	9.658		1.252	0.00%	1:03:31
4	exp-low	683.983	621.149	253.654				12.614	1.386	0.00%	0:00:03
	exp-normal							11.370	1.269	0.00%	0:00:01
	exp-high							7.390	1.128	0.00%	0:00:01
4	max-low	693.188	624.981	256.340				12.915	1.390	0.00%	0:00:02
	max-normal							12.162	1.271	0.00%	0:00:01
	max-high							10.321	1.097	0.00%	0:00:02
5	stochastic	691.105	619.115	253.294	12.510	11.367	9.658		1.252	5.26%	‡
5	exp-low	683.983	621.149	253.654				12.614	1.386	0.00%	0:00:04
	exp-normal							11.370	1.269	0.00%	0:00:04
	exp-high							10.414	1.102	0.00%	0:00:04
5	max-low	693.188	624.981	256.340				14.275	1.390	0.00%	0:00:06
	max-normal							12.162	1.271	0.00%	0:00:05
	max-high							10.321	1.097	0.00%	0:00:05
6	stochastic	685.842	591.506	274.022	18.825	17.177	14.504		1.240	17.72%	‡
6	exp-low	680.312	594.628	274.523				18.982	1.374	0.00%	0:00:11
	exp-normal							17.232	1.258	0.00%	0:00:09
	exp-high							13.151	1.096	0.00%	0:00:12
6	max-low	688.622	595.669	278.345				19.822	1.378	0.00%	0:00:12
	max-normal							18.314	1.260	0.00%	0:00:16
	max-high							15.540	1.086	0.00%	0:00:11

‡ Time limit of 5h was reached.

Table 11: Computational results for stochastic demand with three products and three scenarios computed with LINDOGlobal. The results are compared to different deterministic cases.

756 of the stochastic approach.

757 8. Conclusion

758 We introduce a mixed-integer nonlinear programming formulation for a
759 tank design problem, determining the optimal cycle time and the optimal
760 campaign size. A continuous-time model is presented minimizing the cost
761 per ton produced. Several properties of the model are discussed. In par-
762 ticular, the fact that the objective function value is a decreasing function
763 in the number of event points is an important property of the model as it
764 helps finding initial solutions and implies a natural way to stop the search
765 for better solutions. Additional constraints in the model are presented to
766 enhance computational efficiency and four model extensions are considered.

767 The computational tests show that nonlinear MINLP solver can provide good
 768 solutions while the two tested global solvers have difficulties proving global
 769 optimality. This suggests that the bounding in the global solvers can be
 770 improved by better exploiting the problem structure. The feasibility of the
 771 proposed model is demonstrated for examples with a small number of prod-
 772 ucts.

773 As an important practical result our stochastic programming approach
 774 shows that the optimal tank-sizes do not vary significantly (only up to 3
 775 or 5%) when the demand deviates between 10 and 20 % from the nominal
 776 demand.

777 Future research has to focus on the development of a theory for finding
 778 the optimal number of event points. This is in general a challenging task for
 779 continuous-time formulations. Furthermore, we plan to develop specialized
 780 global optimization solver tailored to the structure of the problem at hand.

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786 A. Indices and Sets

787 All indices, sets and dimensions used in the model are summarized in
 788 Table 12.

Set	Dim.	Description
$n \in \mathcal{N}$	N	Event points or campaigns
$p \in \mathcal{P}$	P	Products
$r \in \mathcal{R}$	R	Different reactors of the plant. This is only considered in the generalized model
$s \in \mathcal{S}$	S	Demand scenarios
$\tau \in \mathcal{T}_p$	$ \mathcal{T}_p $	Different tanks for product p

Table 12: Indices, sets and dimensions of the model

789 B. Variables

790 The variables used in the model are given in Table 13. The units are
791 shown in brackets “[]” in the second column. The domain of the variables
792 is stated in the third column, where \mathbf{R}_+ are the non-negative real numbers,
793 including 0 and $\{0, 1\}$ represents the binary domain. The index s (r) for a
794 variables indicates that this variable depends on scenario s (reactor r).

795 C. Input Data

796 All input data are summarized in Table 14. Recognize that not all data
797 have to be given explicitly. For instance, the minimal duration time of a
798 campaign, D_p^- , might be given indirectly by the campaign setup-times, the
799 inventory level and the demand rate. An additional index τ means that this
800 data are with respect to a specific tank $\tau \in \mathcal{T}_p$. Similarly, the index s implies
801 that the data correspond to scenario $s \in \mathcal{S}$.

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Var.	Unit	Domain	Description
c^C	[\$]	\mathbf{R}_+	Campaign setup costs
c^I	[\$]	\mathbf{R}_+	Tank investment costs. Given over a horizon of H years
c_s^{OPT}	[\$/ton]	\mathbf{R}_+	Operational cost per ton for scenario s
c^P	[\$]	\mathbf{R}_+	Variable production costs. They are excluded from the model as they are fix per ton
c^{PT}	[\$/ton]	\mathbf{R}_+	Total cost per ton
c^S	[\$]	\mathbf{R}_+	Variable tank cost
c^T	[\$]	\mathbf{R}_+	Total costs
d_n	[days]	\mathbf{R}_+	Duration of production of campaign n
d_{nr}^+	[days]	\mathbf{R}_+	Duration of production of campaign n at reactor r
d_{nr}^-	[days]	\mathbf{R}_+	Duration of transferred setup-times from event point n on reactor r
d_{nr}^\times	[days]	\mathbf{R}_+	Duration shortage for the minimum campaign length of campaign n on reactor r
δ_{pnr}	[-]	\mathbf{R}_+	Indicates if production of product p starts at the beginning of event point n at reactor r
$\delta_{p\tau}$	[-]	SOS-1	Tank-investment variable selecting tank purchased for product p
$\lambda_{\bar{p}pn}$	[-]	\mathbf{R}_+	Auxiliary variables representing the product $\omega_{\bar{p}n-1}\omega_{pn}$
ω_{pn}	[-]	$\{0, 1\}$	Task-event variable selecting product p produced in campaign n
p_{pn}^C	[tons]	\mathbf{R}_+	Produced amount of product p in campaign n
p_{pn}^R	[tons/day]	\mathbf{R}_+	Production rate for product p in campaign n
p^T	[tons]	\mathbf{R}_+	Total production over the planning period
s_{pn}	[tons]	\mathbf{R}_+	Stock or inventory of the tank corresponding to product p at the beginning of event point n
s_{pn}^H	[-]	\mathbf{R}_+	Auxiliary variables representing $\frac{s_{pn+1}+s_{pn}}{2}$
s_p^M	[tons]	\mathbf{R}_+	Design tank size storing product p
T	[days]	\mathbf{R}_+	Cycle time or planning horizon
t_n	[days]	\mathbf{R}_+	Length of campaign n
t_n^{SC}	[days]	\mathbf{R}_+	Setup-time for campaign n
y_{pn}	[days]	\mathbf{R}_+	Auxiliary variables representing product $d_n\omega_{pn}$

Table 13: Variables of the model

Data	Unit	Description
C_p^0	[\$/ton ^{0.5}]	Variable part of the cost for the tank investment cost
C_p^C	[\$]	Fixed setup cost per campaign of product p
C_p^F	[\$]	Fixed part of the cost for the tank investment cost
C_p^P	[\$/ton]	Variable production cost for product p
C_p^S	[\$/ton/day]	Variable inventory cost
H	[years]	Time horizon of investment cost for the tanks
C_p^-	[tons]	Lower limit on the production amount per campaign of product p
C_p^+	[tons]	Upper limit on the production amount per campaign of product p
D_p	[tons/year]	Demand of product p per year
D_p^-	[days]	Minimal duration of a campaign
D_p^+	[days]	Maximal duration of a campaign
L	[tons/day]	Total demand per day
L_p	[tons/day]	Demand of product p per day
P_p^{R-}	[tons/day]	Lower limit on the production rate of product p
P_p^{R+}	[tons/day]	Upper limit on the production rate of product p
Pr_s	[-]	Probability for scenario s
S_p^-	[tons]	Safety stock for product p . This is a lower bound on the tank inventory for product p
S_p^+	[tons]	Maximal tank capacity for product p . This is an upper bound on the tank inventory for product p as well as an upper bound on the tank size s_p^M
T_p^S	[days]	Setup-time for product p . The value is independent of the sequence
$T_{\bar{p}p}^S$	[days]	Sequence-dependent setup-time for product p preceding the production of product \bar{p}

Table 14: Input data for the model

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