A Stochastic Techno-Economic Comparison of Alternative Jet Fuel Production Pathways

by

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B.S. Chemical Engineering, 2015 United States Military Academy

Submitted to the Institute for Data, Systems, and Society and the Department of Aeronautics and Astronautics in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degrees of

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Abstract

This study quantifies and compares the costs of production for six alternative jet fuel pathways using consistent financial and technical assumptions. Uncertainty was propagated through the analysis using Monte Carlo simulations. The six processes assessed were hydroprocessed ester and fatty acids (HEFA) using soybean oil, yellow grease, and tallow; advanced fermentation (AF) using corn grain, sugarcane, and herbaceous biomass; conventional gasification and Fischer-Tropsch (FT) using municipal solid waste; aqueous phase processing (APP) using woody biomass; hydrothermal liquefaction (HTL) using woody biomass; and fast pyrolysis and hydroprocessing (FPH) using corn stover. The results indicate that none of the six processes would be profitable in the absence of government incentives, with HEFA using yellow grease, HEFA using tallow, and FT revealing the lowest mean jet fuel prices at \$0.91/liter (\$0.66/liter to \$1.24/liter), \$1.06/liter (\$0.79/liter to \$1.42/liter), and \$1.15/liter (\$0.95/liter to \$1.39/liter), respectively. The highest mean NPV was the NPV calculated for HEFA yellow grease with a mean value (in \overline{B}) of -0.112 (95% range of -0.412 to 0.179), followed by HEFA tallow with -0.202 (-0.517 to 0.100) and FT with -0.210 (-0.424 to 0.033). This study also quantifies plant performance in the United States with a policy analysis. The alternative fuel production models were used to examine the economic viability of each pathway under a variety of existing and potential regulatory scenarios. Results indicate that some pathways could achieve positive NPV with relatively high likelihood under existing policy supports, with HEFA and FPH revealing the highest probability of positive NPV at 94.9% and 99.7%, respectively, in the best-case scenario.

Thesis Supervisor: Steven R. H. Barrett Title: Leonardo Associate Professor of Aeronautics and Astronautics

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Chapter 1

Introduction

1.1 Background

Aviation currently contributes 2% to anthropogenic GHG emissions (ICAO, 2010). The impact is expected to grow in the absence of mitigation measures, due in part to a projected annual industry growth (measured in revenue passenger kilometers) of approximately 5% out to 2034 (Boeing, 2015). The aviation industry's CO_2 emissions have grown by 3.6% per year since 1980, or approximately double the current world growth rate of $CO₂$ emissions from energy consumption, prompting attention from numerous international and domestic regulatory authorities (Schäfer, 2014). The International Air Transport Association (IATA), for example, targets carbon-neutral growth from 2020 onward and a 50% reduction in net emissions by 2050 compared to 2005 levels (IATA, 2009). Alternative jet fuels produced from biomass have received considerable attention from policy-makers and academia as a potential means to significantly reduce greenhouse gas emissions attributable to aviation (ICAO, 2016). The United States Federal Aviation Administration (FAA), for example, sets an aspirational consumption target of 1 billion gallons of alternative jet fuel by 2018, and alternative jet fuel can qualify under the second iteration of the Environmental Protection Agency's (EPA) Renewable Fuel Standard (FAA, 2012). Emissions savings attributable to alternative jet fuels have been well-documented in several pathwayand feedstock-specific life cycle GHG emission analyses (Seber et al., 2014; Staples et al., 2014; Suresh, 2016).

One of the main challenges for alternative aviation fuels is the economic feasibility of converting biomass or other feedstocks into liquid fuel that meets current jet fuel specifications. Five pathways have been approved by ASTM International as drop-in alternative jet fuels: Fischer-Tropsch Synthetic Paraffin Kerosene (FT-SPK), Fischer-Tropsch Synthetic Kerosene with Aromatics (FT-SKA), Hydroprocessed Esters and Fatty Acids (HEFA), Synthetic Iso-Paraffins from fermented hydroprocessed sugar (SIP), and Alcohol-to-Jet SPK (ATJ-SPK). Sixteen additional pathways are under review (CAAFI, 2016). ASTM certification associated with fuels produced from these pathways allows up to 50% blending by volume in current aircraft engines, and some of these pathways, as a result, have been implemented in commercial scale production facilities (ICAO, 2016).

This thesis describes a techno-economic study that used harmonized assumptions for six different alternative jet fuel pathways and incorporated uncertainty throughout the analysis. Existing studies estimated costs of production for specific pathways or feedstocks through detailed techno-economic analyses (TEA) that evaluated pathway performance by calculating the breakeven price of fuel or the net present value of the plant over the modeled refinery's lifetime (Bittner et al., 2015; Bond et al., 2014; Niziolek et al., 2015; Pearlson et al., 2013; Staples et al., 2014; Zhu et al., 2014). Although considerable uncertainty surrounds critical variables such as fuel prices, conversion yield, and capital expenditures, few studies to date have incorporated stochasticity in the modeled pathways or have examined the diesel and jet fuel industry specifically (de Jong et al., 2015). This paper incorporates both harmonized assumptions and stochasticity in critical inputs and accounts for different policy scenarios in a harmonized comparison of jet fuel production techniques.

1.2 The Renewable Fuel Standard

From a technical standpoint, this study primarily focuses on probabilistic models for alternative jet fuel production pathways. Existing U.S. policy, however, allows for the characterization of the private costs of these pathways within the context of supports and subsidies created under the Renewable Fuel Standard (RFS). This framework, created as an expansion to the Clean Air Act (CAA) under the Energy Policy Act of 2005, incentivizes the use of alternative fuels provided those fuels meet certain greenhouse gas reduction targets. The Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) oversees the execution of the RFS along with the Department of Agriculture and the Department of Energy. The most relevant function of the RFS in the context of this study is the creation of yearly alternative fuel mandates as dictated by Renewable Volume Obligations (RVOs). These are targets that require replacement of conventional petroleum fuels with alternative fuels in increasing amounts. As of 2017, the EPA has dictated four renewable fuel categories with separate obligations for each: biomassbased diesel, cellulosic biofuel, advanced biofuel, and renewable fuel. The program was amended with the Energy Independence and Security Act of 2007 (or RFS2) which expanded the RVO requirement to 36 billion gallons of alternative fuel through 2022. The RVO categories are listed in Table 1.1 along with their corresponding GHG intensity reduction requirement. Note that this intensity reduction is compared to 2005 measures of conventional petroleum-based fuel emissions intensities.

Figure 1-1 demonstrates the evolution of these blendstock requirements over time– note that the proportion of cellulosic biofuel, advanced biofuel, and biomass-based diesel grows relative to the renewable fuel requirement. The growing requirements for cellulosic biofuel, a fuel for which most conversion pathways are technically immature, corresponds with a growing value assigned to cellulosic fuels. Appendix D expands upon the value of RINs in greater detail.

Fuel Category	GHG Intensity	Feedstock Examples	Pathway Examples
	Reduction		
Renewable Fuel	20\%	Corn starch	Dry mill process,
			fermentation
Advanced	50%	Sugarcane, corn	HEFA, AF
Biofuel		stover, soybean oil	
Biomass-based	50%	Sugarcane, corn	HEFA, AF
Diesel		stover, soybean oil	
Cellulosic	60%	Woody biomass,	FPH, HTL
biofuel/biodiesel		switchgrass	

Table 1.1: RVO fuel categories and feedstock/pathway examples

Congressional Volume Target for Renewable Fuel

Figure 1-1: EPA Renewable Volume Obligations dictated by the RFS (EPA, 2016)

Chapter 2

Materials and Methods

2.1 Alternative Jet Fuel Pathway Modeling

This study compared six alternative jet fuel pathways for which data is available in peer-reviewed studies: HEFA, fermentation and advanced fermentation (AF), aqueous phase processing (APP), conventional gasification and Fischer-Tropsch (FT), hydrothermal liquefaction (HTL), and fast pyrolysis and hydroprocessing (FPH). The source literature and information regarding the feedstocks and liquid fuel products for each pathway is found in Table 2.1. A technical survey of each pathway can be found in Appendix A and the technical assumptions used in the original literature sources can be found in Appendix B. In every case, the products are chemically equivalent to conventional products of petroleum refining, with the middle distillate fraction composed of renewable or "green" diesel and kerosene-type jet fuel.

The surveyed pathways are at various stages of technical maturity, and discrepancies in commercialization were accounted for with a nth plant analysis that assumes construction in 2015 and plant operation beginning in 2018. The design bases for the pathway models, however, varied with the availability of bench-, pilot- or commercial-scale process data, with some models constructed using industry data and others constructed using computer-simulated results. Although the HEFA pathway is modeled by Pearlson et al. using Aspen Plus chemical process software, the material and energy balances were confirmed against commercial-scale values from

Feedstock	Fuel Products	Source
Soybean oil, tallow,	LPG , naphtha,	Pearlson et al., 2013;
yellow grease	middle distillates	Seber et al. 2014
Corn grain, sugarcane,	LPG , naphtha,	Staples et al., 2014
herbaceous biomass	middle distillates	
Woody biomass	LPG , naphtha,	Bond et al., 2014
	middle distillates	
Woody biomass	Gasoline, heavy oil,	Zhu et al., 2014
	middle distillates	
MSW	Gasoline, middle	Niziolek et al., 2015;
	distillates	Suresh, 2016
Corn stover	Gasoline, middle	Bittner et al., 2015;
	distillates	Brown et al., 2013

Table 2.1: The six alternative jet fuel production pathways evaluated in this study

the UOP-Honeywell Ecofining process (Pearlson et al., 2013). The Fischer-Tropsch process, a reaction that converts a syngas intermediate into liquid hydrocarbons, is well-understood from nearly a century of research at varying scales, but the plant design presented by Niziolek et al. incorporates a novel nonlinear optimization model that integrates both simulation results and industry-created sub-processes (Niziolek et al., 2015). Similarly, the AF pathway modeled by Staples et. al. relies heavily on industry heuristics and commercial-scale plant data when replicating the material and utility requirements for various process steps (Staples et al., 2014). Zhu et al. models the HTL process using bench-scale data from the Pacific Northwest National Laboratory (PNNL) (Zhu et al., 2014). Bittner et al. and Bond et al. rely on a combination of experimental data and simulation results for the APP and FPH processes, respectively (Bittner et al., 2015; Bond et al., 2015). This study assumed equivalent fuel yields at scale in each case.

This study compared each pathway using material and energy balances from the sources found in Table 2.1, but the original TEAs of the pathways relied on deterministic fuel yields and capital cost estimates as well as historical averages for input and output prices. Point values for these model components were then used in a Discounted Cash Flow Rate of Return (DCFROR) model that was used to determine either the net present value (NPV) of the plant assuming market fuel prices or the minimum middle distillate selling price (MSP) such that the NPV was positive. Assuming that prices for inputs and outputs were certain throughout a plant's lifetime, however, does not account for fluctuations in the costs of key inputs or the prices of fuel products. The original TEA studies associated with each pathway used DCFROR variables with deterministic values, but in reality these variables change stochastically such that sampling values from probabilistic models provided a better model for input value fluctuation over a plant's lifetime.

Blazy et al. used the example of diesel fuel price, which can be affected by a multitude of external forces such as supply shocks, changes in demand, or adjustments to domestic policy (Blazy et al., 2016). Using a single value for the price of diesel ignored these fluctuations. Instead, correlating the price of diesel to stochastic variations in the projected price of gasoline provided a more robust description of how this input changed over time. Instead of varying independently with time, other fuel products were also correlated to the stochastically projected price of gasoline. This study implemented stochasticity using a Monte Carlo simulation that sampled values from probability distributions assigned to critical inputs. A MATLAB model sampled values from each probability distribution, computed either MSP and NPV over 10,000 iterations, and stored the results for each iteration such that each iteration was a discrete 20-year plant lifetime.

2.2 Financial Model

This study employed a MATLAB version of the DCFROR model from Pearlson et al. in order to quantify pathway performance in terms of MSP and NPV (Pearlson et al., 2013). Financial assumptions were harmonized for each pathway assuming a 20-year plant lifetime with 20% equity financing and a 10-year loan with 10% interest. Each plant was assumed to operate for 8400 hours, or 350 days, per year. The income tax rate was assumed to be 16.9% based on the value for the average effective corporate tax rate from the United States Government Accountability Office (GAO, 2013). Other financial assumptions were drawn from Blazy et al.'s research on bio-process commercialization (Blazy et al., 2016). All costs and prices were expressed in 2015 USD. The critical inputs for the DCFROR model were assessed using the relevant studies associated with each pathway, and probability distributions were assigned to each input given the availability of relevant data. The complete table of parameters, their distributions, and the references associated with the data underlying each distribution was included in the Appendix B. Probabilistic inputs that were common between pathways include capital expenditures, fixed operating costs, feedstock costs, and fuel prices. The parameter distributions were primarily dependent on the available data: uniform distributions were used in cases where data values were equally likely and triangular or beta PERT distributions were used when minimum, maximum, and most likely values were known. In cases of statistical uncertainty arising from descriptive data sets, such as historical commodity prices or price projections, the probability distributions were developed from the samples themselves. The fit of these distributions was confirmed using the Anderson-Darling test (Stephens, 1974).

The feedstock input quantities and associated maximum fuel outputs can be found in Appendix B. Due to the price parity between diesel and jet fuel the model solved for the MSP of middle distillates (i.e. jet and diesel). The MSP for middle distillate fuels was calculated as the price for middle distillates such that the refinery has an NPV of zero. The MSP thus represents the price for middle distillates that a producer must demand in order to achieve a target rate of return. All other products, such as naphtha or LPG, were sold at the sampled market price and not at a correlated premium, a method used in previous TEA studies (Pearlson et al., 2013). The costs of transportation from the plant to the retail location were not considered, nor were additional fuel taxes, so the MSP and other product prices are the "gate price" of the fuel and not the at-pump price. The DCFROR model was also used to calculate the NPV of each pathway assuming market prices for all fuel products. A positive NPV implies that a producer can expect profits above the target rate of return, while

a negative NPV implies net losses below a target rate of return. MSP and NPV calculations were chosen as metrics for plant performance due to literature precedent and due to ease of visual comparison.

2.3 Technical Uncertainty

2.3.1 Capital Investment and Fixed Operating Cost Uncertainty

The capital cost estimates for each refinery model were obtained from the literature studies used to determine the mass and energy balances for the pathways examined in this study. The deterministic pathway capacity was fixed to 111.3 million liters/year (2000 barrels/day) a reference capacity used for many of the original case processes (Pearlson et al., 2013; Staples et al. 2014; Niziolek et al. 2015). This output capacity varied, however, with stochastic changes in fuel yield. Plant utility requirements, feedstock inputs, and product slates were normalized to a 111.3 million liters/year output capacity in cases where the reference pathways produced greater volumes of liquid fuels (Bond et al. 2015; Zhu et al. 2014; Bittner et al. 2015). This study assumed greenfield plants with onsite hydrogen production, and it is noted that capital and operating costs might be reduced with brownfield sites purchasing offsite hydrogen. The feedstock inputs and fuel outputs for each pathway are summarized in Appendix B. Where data availability allowed, plant component cost estimates and fuel yields were harmonized between pathways. Due to diverse simulation techniques (using Aspen PlusTM, ChemCAD \odot), or mathematical models) and conversion data sources (bench tests, industry heuristics), this study assumed that the deterministic capital expense values accurately reflect the investment requirements for each process. Because this study further assumed that construction for each plant begins in 2015, the capital costs were adjusted to 2015 USD using the Chemical Engineering Plant Cost Index (Chemical Engineering, 2016).

In order to incorporate uncertainty into the capital cost figures, the error associ-

ated with deterministic cost estimates was assumed to be 20% (Gary et al., 2007). A review of other biomass-to-jet fuel studies revealed that the capital costs for similar plant components fall within this range. Previous studies employed a triangular or beta PERT distribution given mode, minimum, and maximum values, and a beta PERT distribution was employed in this case (Bittner et al., 2015; Blazy et al., 2016; Zhao et al., 2015). Brown found that an asymmetric probability distribution with positive skewness best represented current capital expenditures, and a 5% mean cost overrun was assumed based on a survey of the literature for a variety of industrial plants and construction projects (Brown, 2015). As a result, a beta PERT distribution for fixed capital investment (FCI) that varies between 80% and 150% of the deterministic value was used in order to replicate these conditions. Following an assumption found in several preceding TEA studies for these pathways, working capital (WC) was assumed to be 5% of the FCI, and the sum of these two values was the total capital investment (TCI) (Peters et al., 2003; Pearlson et al., 2013; Staples et al. 2014; Bond et al., 2014).

Fixed operating costs (FOC) was determined as a percentage of the capital costs, but each pathway cited widely varying deterministic values that correspond with differences in estimates of yearly expenses such as labor and maintenance. Insurance, local taxes, maintenance, and contingency costs for each pathway were estimated using guidance from the petroleum refining industry, and the literature FOC as a percentage of FCI was selected as the mode for a positively-skewed beta PERT distribution with harmonized parameters (Gary et al., 2007). Each pathway's FOC was varied by 50% and values beyond the bounds of this distribution were investigated in the sensitivity analyses.

2.3.2 Fuel Yield Uncertainty

The conversion efficiency of each pathway was described by assigning a probability distribution to fuel yield in terms of liters of gasoline equivalent (LGE) per metric ton of feedstock. The energy shares of each fuel product, expressed as the energy content of each fuel product (in MJ) divided by the total energy content of the product slate (in MJ), was assumed to remain constant for each pathway. In literature refinery models where diesel was the only middle distillate product, this study followed Bittner et al. and assumed that this stream was 50% jet fuel and 50% diesel by volume when calculating NPV (Bittner et al., 2015). Previous studies that incorporated fuel yield uncertainty employed a variety of probability distributions based on bench-scale data or simulation results including beta general distributions, beta PERT distributions, and triangular distributions (Zhao et al., 2014; Petter and Tyner, 2014; Zhu et al., 2003). In this case, a lack of fuel yield data dictated the use of a beta PERT distribution with some minimum, maximum, and mode value using the method employed by Suresh and Petter and Tyner (Suresh, 2016; Petter and Tyner, 2014). Following Zhao et al., a negatively-skewed beta PERT distribution was assumed based on pathway-specific supporting data. In pathway cases with only one supporting study, such as HEFA, AF, and APP, the deterministic value was used as the maximum fuel yield value. Because of the negative skewness, the distribution mean was lower than the deterministic value. In order to illustrate the different fuel yield scenarios, the upper and lower bounds of this distribution were investigated in the sensitivity analyses with the original literature value used as the upper input. The distribution parameters and their references can be found in Appendix B.

2.4 Fuel and Utility Price Uncertainty

In order to project the prices of natural gas, electricity, and gasoline from the analysis start point in 2018 through the plant's 20-year lifetime, Geometric Brownian Motion (GBM) was applied according to the method described in Zhao et al. as shown in Equation 1:

$$
P_t = P_{t-1} \times e^t + \epsilon \tag{2.1}
$$

where P_t is the price at time t , $P_t - 1$ is the previous year's price, r is the growth rate, and ϵ is the yearly price variation (Zhao et al., 2014). The Energy Information Administration (EIA) Annual Energy Outlook (AEO) 2015 provides projected price data in the analysis start year (2018) as well as real price growth rates from 2018

to 2038, with low, reference, and high oil price scenarios describing the behavior of these prices over time (EIA, 2015). Uncertainty was incorporated in the gasoline growth rate and the 2018 start price by assigning a beta PERT distribution to both parameters using the oil price scenarios as low, mode, and high values. The starting prices and growth rates for natural gas and electricity were then correlated with the selected gasoline values (EIA, 2016a,e). The 2018 prices of gasoline, natural gas, and electricity from the AEO reference case projections are \$0.58/liter, \$5.02/GJ, and \$0.07/kWh, respectively (2015 USD). The yearly price variation term, , was selected from a normal distribution of the year-to-year variations in prices from the past 15 years from 2001 to 2015. Although the MATLAB model was constructed to ensure that prices remain positive, values selected from the outer bounds of the variation distribution can result in prices far above or far below prices seen in historical or projected datasets. Prices were prevented from dropping below 75% of the lowest forecasted value or rising above 125% of the highest forecasted value in order to correct for this error.

The prices of other fuel products, such as LPG, jet, and diesel, were correlated with the gasoline price using historical price data from the EIA (EIA $2016b,c,d,f$). Following Pearlson et al. and Staples et al., the propane spot price was used as a surrogate for both light ends and LPG and the gasoline price was used as a surrogate for naphtha (Pearlson et al., 2013; Staples et al., 2014). The correlation functions for these fuels were based on their historical regression relationship and can be found in Appendix B.

2.5 Policy Uncertainty

In order to quantify uncertainty under various policy scenarios including the Renewable Fuel Standard (RFS2), this study modeled the price behavior of fuel credits called Renewable Identification Numbers (RINs) using probability distributions and incorporated various tax credit scenarios as sensitivity analyses. Under RFS2, blenders and refiners are required to incorporate a certain quantity of biofuels in their annual supply in order to meet their Renewable Volume Obligation (RVO). Renewable fuels generate RIN certificates, which can be bought and sold to help blenders and refiners achieve their RVO; as a result, RINs represent a source of additional revenue for biofuel producers (ICCT, 2014). The nationwide RVO increases every year up to 36 billion gallons in 2022. At the conclusion of 2022, the RVO could be extended, increased, or reduced with the passage of a new RFS, thus changing the RIN market substantially (Winchester, et al., 2013). Information regarding the implementation of RINs for each fuel product and the calculation of stochastic RIN prices can be found in Appendix D.

The Biodiesel Mixture Excise Tax Credit, which can be applied to both biodiesel and renewable diesel mixtures, is a $$1.00/gallon$ (\$0.26/liter) credit applied to conventional and alternative diesel blends (DOE, 2016). This credit is often instated retroactively, so the existence of the credit from year to year is the subject of considerable uncertainty. Blenders arrange sharing provisions with alternative fuel producers in order to compensate biofuel production (Irwin, 2015). Various sharing agreements between producers and blenders including 25%, 50%, 75%, and 100% of the \$1.00/gallon (\$0.26/liter) given to producers were explored. Blenders and producers were assumed to share the additional revenue from these credits according to such sharing contracts. A producer's credit, or a credit given directly to producers instead of blenders, is the subject of current legislation in the U.S. Senate (Swoboda, 2016). If passed, this new credit would be paid to producers but would also likely be shared via market mechanisms. Thus, the $$1.00/gallon$ (\$0.26/liter) credit represents an upper-limit value for a credit given to producers. Because the FT MSW feed composition contains unseparated biogenic and non-biogenic components, it was ineligible for the blender's or producer's credits.

Six different scenarios were examined in this study to reflect future legislative uncertainty: a case in which the pathways were evaluated without the benefit of policy supports; a case in which the blender's credit was not renewed at the conclusion of 2016 and the RVO falls to zero at the conclusion of 2022; and four different sharing arrangements with $25\%, 50\%, 75\%,$ and 100% of a \$1.00/gallon (\$0.26/liter)

excise tax credit given to producers along with a perpetual RIN market. Note that a zero RVO eliminates the demand for RINs, thereby removing the RIN revenue stream.

Chapter 3

Results and Discussion

3.1 MSP and NPV

The MSP and NPV were first calculated without the addition of policy supports or financial incentives. Box-and-whisker comparisons of each pathway's MSP and NPV results are shown in Figures 3-1 and 3-2, with the limits of each pathway result representing the middle 95% of values. The lowest mean MSP was that of HEFA yellow grease with a value of $$0.91/liter$ (95% range of $$0.66/liter$ to $$1.24/liter$), followed by HEFA tallow with a mean MSP value of \$1.06/liter (\$0.79/liter to \$1.42/liter), FT with \$1.15/liter (\$0.95/liter to \$1.39/liter), HEFA soybean oil with \$1.19/liter $(\text{$}0.87/\text{liter to $}1.60/\text{liter})$, AF sugarcane at \$1.47/liter (\$1.10/liter to \$1.96/liter), FPH with \$1.52/liter (\$1.02/liter to \$2.10/liter), AF corn grain with \$1.66/liter (\$1.30/liter to \$2.10/liter), APP with \$2.07/liter (\$1.73/liter to \$2.48/liter), AF herbaceous biomass with \$2.51/liter (\$2.16/liter to \$2.92/liter), and HTL with \$2.78/liter (\$2.09/liter to \$3.58/liter). None of the MSP results approached the 5-year average conventional jet fuel price of $$0.64/L$, even at the lower-bound values (EIA, 2016d).

Figure 3-1: Box-and-whisker plot of the MSP results for each pathway evaluated in this study

The mean future middle distillate prices were subject to considerable uncertainty over time, and the volatility of price behavior was accounted for with NPV calculations that incorporated projected prices of middle distillate fuels. None of the pathway simulations resulted in positive mean NPV values, although HEFA and FT exhibited positive NPV values at the upper bound of the results distribution. The highest mean NPV was that of HEFA yellow grease with a mean value (in \$B) of -0.112 (95% range of -0.412 to 0.179), followed by HEFA tallow with -0.202 (-0.517 to 0.100), FT with -0.210 (-0.424 to 0.033), HEFA soybean oil with -0.281 (-0.625 to 0.049), AF sugarcane with -0.420 (-0.775 to -0.099), AF corn grain with -0.552 (-0.905 to -0.216), FPH with -0.344 (-0.583 to -0.070), APP with -0.716 (-1.005 to -0.408), HTL with -0.854 (-1.120 to -0.560), and AF herbaceous biomass with -1.036 (-1.336 to -0.716).

Figure 3-2: Box-and-whisker plot of the NPV over the 20-year lifetime for each pathway evaluated in this study

The cumulative density functions of the NPV results are shown in Figure 3-3 and the baseline probabilities of positive NPV over each plant's lifetime are shown in Figure 3-7 (in the "No Policy" case). HEFA demonstrated the highest probability of positive NPV with a 27.7%, 14.8%, and 8.6% chance of positive NPV for yellow grease, tallow, and soybean oil, respectively. HEFA and FT exhibited the lowest mean MSP and the least negative NPV due to a combination of factors: in the HEFA case, low capital investment requirements and high fuel yields outweighed relatively high feedstock costs. In the case of FT, these results stemmed from high fuel yields, no-cost feedstock, and comparatively low capital investment.

Figure 3-3: The cumulative density function (CDF) for the NPV results for each pathway

An evaluation of the NPV contributors to variance revealed that yearly fuel price deviations primarily explained the variance in the NPV results for AF herbaceous biomass, APP, FT, HTL, and FPH, at 39%, 48%, 49%, 64%, and 56%. The primary contributor for HEFA, AF corn grain, and AF sugarcane was feedstock cost. The feedstock cost distribution was negatively skewed which explains the negative skewness of the NPV distributions for these pathways. More information regarding the skewness and kurtosis of distributions fit to the Monte Carlo results can be found in Appendix C. Note that the variance for each pathway was influenced by the availability of data for the underlying distributions. In some cases, feedstock prices were based off of industry heuristics rather than historical price behavior. The price for herbaceous or woody biomass, for example, relied on low, mode, and high values from relevant literature sources surveying similar cellulosic biofuel refineries. The price for soybean oil and slaughtering byproducts, meanwhile, was described by a lognormal distribution derived from historical commodity prices. A survey of the contributors to variance for each pathway can be found in Appendix C. The MSP and NPV results for each pathway were separated into their constituent cost and revenue streams as shown in Figure 3-4 and 3-5. Only the mean values were reported in this figure, and the median and standard deviations for each component can be found in Appendix C. For NPV, the revenue stream components were separated into gasoline/naphtha, middle distillate fuels, other co-products, and scrap materials. Due to the sorting requirement during the MSW pre-processing stage, only the FT pathway collected revenue from scrap materials. The cost stream components were separated into capital costs, fixed operating expenditures, non-feedstock variable operating expenditures, feedstock expenditures, and income tax.

Minimum Selling Price Contributions

Figure 3-4: Mean MSP (\$/liter) results breakdown by cost and revenue contributions

Although plant capacities were harmonized, the product distribution varied based on the literature material balances, with HEFA, AF, APP, and FT pathways optimized for middle distillate production and HTL and FPH optimized for total fuel production. In the cases of HEFA, AF, APP, and FT, middle distillate fuels comprised the largest portion of the revenue stream. Because HTL and FPH produce more gasoline then middle distillates, the largest contributor to the revenue stream for those pathways was gasoline.

Net Present Value (NPV) Contributions

Figure 3-5: Mean NPV (\$B) results breakdown by cost and revenue contributions

The revenue contributions to NPV for each pathway were larger in cases where pathways produce additional non-liquid-fuel products. This was true for AF corn grain, a byproduct of which is distiller's dried grains with solubles (DDGS); AF sugarcane, a byproduct of which is sugarcane bagasse used to generate power; APP, a byproduct of which is hydroxymethylfurfural (HMF) and acetic acid; FT, a byproduct of which is scrap materials; and FPH, a byproduct of which is generated electricity from the heat of the pyrolysis reaction. The price of feedstock was the primary cost contributor to MSP and NPV for HEFA, AF corn grain, and AF sugarcane, and capital investment was the largest cost contributor to MSP and NPV for AF herbaceous biomass, HTL, APP, FT, and FPH. Fixed operating expenditures, which include maintenance, labor, and other yearly cost requirements, contributed an average of 9% and at most 20% to the cost stream for each pathway. Non-feedstock variable operating expenses, such as wastewater treatment, catalyst costs, and other utilities, comprised an average of 15% and at most 27% of the cost stream for each pathway.

The impact of different critical variables on MSP were examined with a sensitivity analysis for each pathway, quantifying the impact of adjustments to fixed operating costs, capital investment, fuel yield, income tax rate, feedstock costs, and the discount rate. The results are shown in Figure 3-6. The discount rate, which resulted from the rate of required return for equity and loan interest rate for debt, had the largest impact on MSP for every case except for the HEFA pathway, which required the lowest capital investment among all pathways and was therefore less sensitive to rate of return assumptions. The discount rate had a larger impact for pathways with a larger capital investment requirement because higher discount rates minimized the value of future cash flows, thus increasing the price of middle distillates required to set NPV equal to zero over the plant's 20-year lifetime. The upper-bound discount rate test value of 22% was taken from Blazy et al., who suggested that the discount rate could be this high in order to offset the risks associated with investment in alternative fuel production technologies (Blazy et al., 2016). This can increase the MSP by up to 40%. The lower-bound discount rate value of 3.2% came from the social opportunity cost of capital based on long-term treasury bond rates from the U.S. Office of Management and Budget (U.S. OMB, 2015). Use of this value can decrease MSP by up to 60%. The pathways with the lowest mean MSP under the social opportunity cost of capital were FT and FPH with a mean MSP of \$0.58/L and \$0.61/L, respectively.

The fuel yield sensitivity analysis tested the outer bounds of the beta PERT distributions used for each pathway. Since the distributions were skewed negatively, the mode fuel yield value was close to the maximum so increases in fuel yield fail to lower mean MSP more than 20%. Similarly, varying fixed operating costs to extreme values changed the mean MSP only up to 14%. Although decreasing capital costs to 80% of the deterministic value improved mean MSP results, increasing those costs to 150% of the deterministic value increased mean MSP values by up to 50%, indicating that cost overruns inhibited the economic viability of a given pathway. In order to explore the impact of feedstock cost on the FT pathway, which owed its probability of positive NPV and low mean MSP in part to a zero feedstock cost, the cost was varied by \$55/MT both positively and negatively to reflect average landfill tipping fees. Although this could be a source of revenue in the short run, this tipping fee could become a cost if MSW is increasingly used as a feedstock for fuel production. Both cases adjusted the mean MSP by 15% positively or negatively. The income tax rate was varied between 0% and 39% with the upper bound chosen to reflect the 2015 U.S. combined corporate income tax rate (OECD, 2016). This value increased the mean MSP by up to 20%.

Figure 3-6: MSP sensitivity results for each pathway. All values expressed are mean values in units of \$/liter. The variables and associated test inputs are listed on the left axis (low, baseline, high)

3.2 Policy Scenario Analysis

Figure 3-7: The probability of positive NPV over each pathway's 20-year plant lifetime under various policy scenarios. The "No Policy" case describes the results presented in section 3.1

To quantify the impact of different policy environments on the economic viability of alternative fuel production techniques, the NPV for each pathway was calculated and the cumulative density distribution was used to find the probability of positive NPV. The results of this analysis are shown in Figure 3-7. The HEFA pathway showed the highest likelihood of positive NPV in a case with no policy supports for alternative fuels, with each of the three evaluated feedstocks outperforming the other pathways (27.7% for HEFA yellow grease, 14.8% for HEFA tallow, and 8.56% for HEFA soybean oil). Under the policy case with no blender's credit and a zero RVO, HEFA yellow grease, HEFA tallow, and FPH had the highest probability of positive NPV at 53.2%, 34.9%, and 23.5%, respectively. The probability of positive NPV for FPH is higher under this scenario because the pathway used corn stover, a cellulosic feedstock, and therefore earned higher-value D3 and D7 RINs. HEFA, meanwhile, earned D4 and D5
RINs because it uses soybean oil and animal fats as feedstocks. Under the 50% creditshare and RIN market policy case, FPH, HEFA yellow grease, and HEFA tallow had the highest probability of positive NPV at 99.2%, 87.7%, and 73.1%. This was due to the higher value of D3 and D7 RINs relative to D4 and D5 RINs. Although FT had a 7.87% probability of positive NPV under the "No Policy" case, fuels produced from MSW only earned a D5 Advanced Biofuel RIN and were not subject to blender's credits, so the maximum probability of positive NPV for FT was only 37.8%. Under the 100% credit-share case, five of the 10 feedstock-pathway combinations resulted in a 50% chance of positive NPV or higher: FPH, HEFA yellow grease, HEFA tallow, HEFA soybean oil, and APP have positive NPV probabilities of 99.7%, 94.9%, 86.6%, 73.4%, and 57.6%, respectively.

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Chapter 4

Conclusions

This thesis illustrates a harmonized comparison of U.S. alternative jet fuel production that used stochasticity in key variables. By fitting probability distributions to input parameters such as fuel yield, capital expenditures, or fuel prices, the costs of production for each pathway and feedstock could be expressed as a range of potential values under a variety of scenarios. For the first time, the use of Monte Carlo simulations allows for the capture of uncertainty in alternative jet fuel production MSP and NPV results. This thesis demonstrates the value of uncertainty inclusion in energy conversion models and presents a rigorous method for conducting policy analyses. In the baseline scenario, the lowest mean MSP was that of HEFA yellow grease with a value of \$0.91/liter (95% range of \$0.66/liter to \$1.24/liter), followed by HEFA tallow with a mean MSP value of \$1.06/liter (\$0.79/liter to \$1.42/liter) and FT with \$1.15/liter (\$0.95/liter to \$1.39/liter). None of these results approach the March 2017 conventional U.S. jet fuel price of $$0.40/L$, although the EIA indicates that these prices could rise above $$1.08/L$ over the next 20 years. Similarly, the highest mean NPV was the NPV calculated for HEFA yellow grease with a mean value (in \$B) of -0.112 (95% range of -0.412 to 0.179), followed by HEFA tallow with -0.202 $(-0.517 \text{ to } 0.100)$ and FT with $-0.210 (-0.424 \text{ to } 0.033)$. In each case, the probability of positive NPV is 27.7%, 14.78%, and 7.87%, respectively. These results suggest that current alternative jet fuel production pathways are not cost-competitive with conventional petroleum refining.

The models also apply existing United States policy incentives under the Renewable Fuel Standard.The results suggest that although no pathway is economically viable without policy supports, regulations can improve the possibility of alternative jet fuel competition in the market. In the policy case with no RIN market and blender's credit expiration, the highest probability of positive NPV is for HEFA yellow grease at 53.2%; in the policy case with 100% credit share and a continual RIN market, the highest probability of positive NPV is for fast pyrolysis and hydroprocessing at 99.9%. These results suggest that current policy supports can incentivize investment in alternative jet fuels, although some pathways may be incentivized more than others depending on the structure of the regulations. For example, increasing Renewable Volume Obligations for cellulosic biofuels drives higher demand–and higher value–for cellulosic biofuel RINs, which in turn improves the economic outlook for pathways that use feedstocks such as corn stover or sugarcane. The results for each pathway can be used by regulatory agencies such as the EPA, USDA, or DOE to craft policies that favor alternative jet fuel production and can be leveraged by investors to target promising feedstock conversion technologies. The results in this thesis, moreover, can be broadly applied to international efforts seeking a framework for regulations that support alternative fuels.

Appendix A

Pathway Descriptions

The following process overviews for each pathway come from the sources that supply the mass and energy balances for the techno-economic evaluation models. Figure A-1 displays each the pre-treatment and intermediate steps required for the production of drop-in transportation fuels.

A.1 Hydroprocessed esters & fatty acids (HEFA)

The HEFA process uses vegetable or slaughtering byproduct oils such as soybean oil, tallow, and yellow grease as feedstocks. Hydrogen gas is fed into the feed stream in a hydrotreator, which deoxygenates the oil. After cooling, the effluent is sent to an isomerization unit which produces select hydrocarbons of various carbon chain lengths. Mixed paraffin gases, carbon dioxide, and excess hydrogen are separated out in a series of separation columns, with paraffin gases and hydrogen recycled to the hydrotreator and wastewater separated for treatment. The liquid products stream is then separated into LPG, naphtha, jet, and diesel (Pearlson et al., 2013; Seber et al., 2014).

A.2 Advanced fermentation (AF)

Fermentation and advanced fermentation (AF) technologies encapsulate multiple production pathways that incorporate the micro-organic metabolism of biomass-derived sugars. Staples et al. examines three different feedstocks, including corn grain, sugarcane, and herbaceous biomass, each with different process steps. Corn grain is dry milled and ground into corn flour prior to liquefaction with process water and high pressure steam. Sugarcane is cleaned, chopped, shredded, and crushed to extract sucrose. A byproduct of this process is sugarcane bagasse, which is used to co-generate power and heat to meet the utility requirements for the refinery. Herbaceous biomass, or switchgrass in this case, is subjected to dilute acid treatment to extract the sugar prior to fermentation. After the extraction process for each feedstock, polymeric sugars are broken down via saccharification into glucose, fructose, and xylose using enzymatic hydrolysis. Depending on the microorganism used, these sugar products can be metabolized into a variety of platform molecules including triacylglycerides (TAGs), fatty acids, alkanes, isobutanol, and ethanol. Although Staples et al. considers each platform molecule, this study uses the baseline mass and energy requirements which correspond with the fatty acids intermediate. In order to extract these platform molecules, centrifugation, hexane solvent extraction, potassium hydroxide lysing, and distillation are explored, although centrifugation is used as the baseline process. The platform molecules are then upgraded to LPG, naphtha, jet, and diesel via the HEFA process used by Pearlson et al. (Staples et al., 2014).

A.3 Aqueous phase processing (APP)

This process uses woody biomass as a lignocellulosic feedstock, which is subjected to hot water extraction pretreatment to extract hemicellulose sugars in one stream and cellulose and lignin in the other. The hemicellulose stream is hydrolyzed into xylose and other monomeric sugars which are then dehydrated to form furans. Furfural and acetic acid are recovered via xylose and arabinose dehydration. The furfural is then upgraded to straight-chain and branched alkanes after deoxygenation. Separated furfural and acetic acid streams can be sold in the chemical industry. After pretreatment, the cellulose and lignin stream is treated with sulfuric acid to produce levulinic acid and formic acid. Residual lignin is combusted in a boiler generator for heat and power. Levulinic acid is then converted to -valerolactone (GVL), which itself is converted to branch-chain alkanes. Products include LPG, naphtha, jet, and diesel (Bond et al., 2014).

A.4 Hydrothermal liquefaction (HTL)

This process uses woody biomass as a feedstock. The inlet pellets are first ground and softened with hot water to form a slurry. After pre-heating, the slurry is fed to the HTL reactor which converts the slurry into bio-oil. Solid wastes, such as ash and other inorganic solids, as well as an aqueous phase consisting of dissolved organics are water, are removed from the reactor. The aqueous phase is either sent to heat the reactor inlet stream or separated for waste treatment. The bio-oil, which can be sold as a crude oil substitute, is upgraded via hydtrotreating to remove oxygen. These hydrocarbon products are then cooled and separated via distillation into gasoline, diesel, and heavy oil. Although the process requires hydrogen, the refinery design includes a steam reforming process onsite, so the cost of hydrogen is subsumed in the capital cost of the reforming units (Zhu et al., 2014).

A.5 Conventional gasification and Fischer-Tropsch (FT)

This process uses municipal solid waste (MSW) as a feedstock, which undergoes considerable sorting and processing prior to any reaction stages. The MSW composition, which uses the US Environmental Protection Agency's composition values from 2013, which includes food waste, metals, paper, and other materials. Non-combustibles and other inorganics must be sorted out via a system of conveyors, shredders, and other separators called a Refuse Derived Fuel (RDF) facility. The prepared feed is then gasified, or partially oxidized, at high temperatures to produce syngas, a mixture of carbon monoxide and hydrogen. The syngas is cooled, conditioned, and converted to fuels and paraffinic wax via the Fischer-Tropsch catalytic reaction. These products are separated into naphtha, jet, and diesel streams, with naphtha further reformed into gasoline (Niziolek et al., 2015; Suresh, 2016).

A.6 Fast pyrolysis and hydroprocessing (FPH)

Fast pyrolysis is a rapid thermal conversion process that produces three products including char, gas, and bio-oil. Corn stover, the feedstock input evaluated for this pathway, is subjected to drying, grinding, and chopping pre-treatment steps. The pyrolysis reactor then converts the pre-treated corn stover into bio-oil through anaerobic treatment at high temperatures. Due to the high oxygen content of bio-oil, hydroprocessing and catalytic upgrading via hydrotreating and hydrocracking is then used to produce a variety of deoxygenated products including gasoline and diesel (Bittner et al., 2015).

Figure A-1: Process overview for each pathway includes feedstocks, pretreatment steps, critical conversion steps, and intermediate and final products

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Appendix B

Fuel Production Model Parameters

B.1 Model Parameters

Parameter	Assumption
Loan Interest	10%
Loan Term	10
Working Capital (% of FCI)	5%
Type of Depreciation	Variable Declining Balance
Depreciation Period (years)	10
Construction Period (years)	3
Discount Rate	15%
Income Tax Rate	16.90%
Operating Hours per Year	8,400
Construction year	2015
Operation start year	2018
Inflation	2%
Year 1 production capacity	75%

Table B.1: Financial assumptions

Variable	Nominal Range^a	Units	Distribution	
Material and energy process				
outputs				
Fuel yield 32	[240, 304, 320]	GGE/MT	Beta PERT	
Material and energy prices				
Process water ^{23, 31, 32}	[0.379, 2.16, 2.76]	Mgal	Triangular	
Hydrogen ⁴⁸	[1.08, 1.55, 2.03]	\$/lb	Beta PERT	
Soybean oil ¹⁰	[5.8822, 0.2589]	\$/Mlb	Lognormal	
Tallow ^{b, 45}	$0.838x + 5.61$	\$/Mlb	N/A	
Yellow grease ^{b, 45}	$0.799x - 45.7$	\$/Mlb	N/A	
Gasoline price in analysis start year $(2018)^{13}$	[1.68, 2.18, 3.53]	$\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}$	Beta PERT	
Gasoline price growth rate projection ¹³	[0.85, 2.11, 2.33]	$\frac{0}{0}$	Beta PERT	
Gasoline price yearly deviations ²⁰	[0, 0.3547]	$\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}$	Normal	
Electricity price yearly deviations	[0, 0.00295]	$\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}$	Normal	
Natural gas price yearly deviations ¹⁸	[0, 72.99]	M_{T}	Normal	
$D4$ RINs ³	$[-0.3441, 0.2262]$	\$/RIN	Lognormal	
Capital and fixed costs				
FCI ³²	[50.0, 62.5, 93.7]	\$M	Beta PERT	
Fixed operating expenses ³²	[8.75, 10.5, 15.75]	% of FCI	Beta PERT	

Table B.2: HEFA Monte Carlo variables and distribution parameters

^aNote: in the tables that follow, the parameters in the Nominal Range column will adhere to the following format: Lognormal distributions: log mean, log standard deviation) Normal distributions: mean, standard deviation) Triangular/Beta PERT distributions: low, mode, high) Uniform distributions: low, high) ^bNote: prices for tallow and yellow grease correlate closely with soybean oil, so the equations in the Nominal Range column represent the results of a linear regression between the historical prices for tallow/yellow grease and the historical prices for soybean oil.

Lable D.O. THE INDIRE Carlo variables and distribution parameters Variable	Nominal Range	Units	Distribution
Material and energy process			
outputs			
Fuel yield, Corn grain ⁴⁰	[44.5, 56.3, 59.3]	GGE/MT	Beta PERT
Fuel yield, Sugarcane ⁴⁰	[12.0, 15.2, 16.0]	GGE/MT	Beta PERT
Fuel yield, Herbaceous biomass ⁴⁰	[32.8, 41.6, 43.7]	GGE/MT	Beta PERT
Material and energy prices			
Process water ^{23, 31, 32}	[0.379, 2.16, 2.76]	\$/Mgal	Triangular
Corn grain ⁴⁶	$[-1.732, 0.2696]$	$\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}$	Lognormal
Sugarcane	[3.4574, 0.3210]	$\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}$	Lognormal
Herbaceous biomass ⁴⁰	[0.030, 0.059, 0.089]	$\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}$	Triangular
Gasoline price in analysis start year $(2018)^{13}$	[1.68, 2.18, 3.53]	$\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}$	Beta PERT
Gasoline price growth rate projection	[0.85, 2.11, 2.33]	$\frac{0}{0}$	Beta PERT
Gasoline price yearly deviations ²⁰	[0, 0.3547]	$\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}$	Normal
Electricity price yearly deviations ¹⁴	[0, 0.00295]	$\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}$	Normal
Natural gas price yearly deviations ¹⁸	[0, 72.99]	MT	Normal
$DDGS^{c, 4/2}$	$0.694x + 0.0162$	$\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}$	N/A
D ₄ $RINs^3$	$[-0.3441, 0.2262]$	\$/RIN	Lognormal
Capital and fixed costs			
FCI, corn grain ⁴⁰	[143, 179, 268]	\$M	Beta PERT
FCI, sugarcane 40	[163, 204, 306]	\$M	Beta PERT
FCI, herbaceous biomass ⁴⁰	[312, 389, 584]	\$M	Beta PERT
Fixed operating expenses ⁴⁰	[5.08, 6.09, 9.14]	% of FCI	Beta PERT

Table B.3: AF Monte Carlo variables and distribution parameters

c Note: the historical prices for DDGS correlate closely with the price for corn grain, so the equation in the Nominal Range column represents a linear regression between the historical price of DDGS and the historical price of corn grain.

Variable	MONUC Carlo variables and distribution parameters Nominal Range	Units	Distribution
Material and energy process			
outputs			
Fuel yield ⁴	[49.0, 62.1, 65.4]	GGE/MT	Beta PERT
Material and energy prices			
Woody biomass ^{4, 25, 49}	[51.89, 66.05, 78.69]	M_{T}	Triangular
Sodium chloride ^{4, 44}	[35.6, 55]	MT	Uniform
Acetone ^{4, 22}	[772, 1121.21]	M_{T}	Uniform
Tetrahydrofuran ^{4, 22}	[3364.6, 3476.6]	M_{T}	Uniform
Sulfuric acid ^{5, 22}	[80, 103.4]	M_{T}	Uniform
Hydrochloric acid ^{4, 22}	[90, 254.4]	M_{T}	Uniform
Acetic $\arctan^{4,5}$	[745.9, 1181.4]	M_{T}	Triangular
HMF ⁴	1607.5	M_{T}	Non-variable
SBP ⁴	50.9	M_{T}	Non-variable
Process water ^{23, 31, 32}	[0.10, 0.57, 0.73]	MT	Triangular
Gasoline price in analysis start year $(2018)^{13}$	[1.68, 2.18, 3.53]	$\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}$	Beta PERT
Gasoline price growth rate projection	[0.85, 2.11, 2.33]	$\frac{0}{0}$	Beta PERT
Gasoline price yearly deviations ²⁰	[0, 0.3547]	$\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}$	Normal
Electricity price yearly deviations ¹⁴	[0, 0.00295]	$\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}$	Normal
Natural gas price yearly deviations ¹⁸	[0, 72.99]	M_{T}	Normal
D ₄ $RINs3$	$[-0.3441, 0.2262]$	\$/RIN	Lognormal
Capital and fixed costs			
Fixed capital investment ⁴	[388, 485, 727]	\$M	Beta PERT
Fixed operating expenses ⁴	[2.5, 3.0, 4.5]	$%$ of FCI	Beta PERT

Table B.4: APP Monte Carlo variables and distribution parameters

Variable	Nominal Range	Units	Distribution
Material and energy process outputs			
Fuel yield ⁴⁹	[49.3, 59.7, 61.2]	GGE/MT	Beta PERT
Material and energy prices			
Woody biomass ^{4, 25, 49}	[51.89, 66.05, 78.69]	M_{T}	Triangular
Catalyst costs ⁴⁹	[6.27, 1.04]	\$M	Normal
Wastewater treatment ⁴⁹	[28.6, 4.76]	\$M	Normal
Gasoline price in analysis start year $(2018)^{13}$	[1.68, 2.18, 3.53]	$\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}$	Beta PERT
Gasoline price growth rate projection ¹³	[0.85, 2.11, 2.33]	$\frac{0}{0}$	Beta PERT
Gasoline price yearly deviations ²⁰	[0, 0.3547]	$\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}$	Normal
Electricity price yearly deviations ¹⁴	[0, 0.00295]	$\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}$	Normal
Natural gas price yearly deviations ¹⁸	[0, 72.99]	S/MT	Normal
D ₄ $RINs3$	$[-0.3441, 0.2262]$	\$/RIN	Lognormal
Capital and fixed costs			
Fixed capital investment ⁴⁹	[418, 523, 785]	\$M	Beta PERT
Fixed operating expenses ⁴⁹	[4.08, 4.89, 7.34]	$%$ of FCI	Beta PERT

Table B.5: HTL Monte Carlo variables and distribution parameters

Variable	Nominal Range	Distribution				
Material and energy process						
inputs						
Utility for MSW pre-processing ^{8, 35, 36}	[0.06, 0.13, 0.15]	MJ/kg_{MSW}	Triangular			
Natural gas ²⁷	[6, 0.6]	g/kg _{PMSW}	Normal			
Petroleum coke ²⁷	[50, 5]	g/kg _{PMSW}	Normal			
Olivine $11, 23, 28$	[1.37, 2.07, 4.96]	g/kg _{PMSW}	Triangular			
Tar reforming catalyst ^{11, 12, 28}	[0.005, 0.006, 0.045]	g/kg _{PMSW}	Triangular			
Material and energy process						
outputs						
Fuel yield ^{30, 36, 42, 43}	[79.8, 91.5, 95]	GGE/MT	Beta PERT			
Scrap aluminum ²¹	[5.9, 14.1, 15.1]	g/kg _{MSW}	Triangular			
Scrap iron and steel ²¹	[3.2, 3.6, 26.7]	g/kg _{MSW}	Triangular			
Scrap glass ²¹	[29.6, 32.9, 45.2]	g/kg_{MSW}	Triangular			
Material and energy prices						
Gasoline price in analysis start year $(2018)^{13}$	[1.68, 2.18, 3.53]	$\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}$	Beta PERT			
Gasoline price growth rate projection	[0.85, 2.11, 2.33]	$\frac{0}{0}$	Beta PERT			
Gasoline price yearly deviations ²⁰	[0, 0.3547]	$\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}$	Normal			
Natural gas price yearly deviations ¹⁸	[0, 72.99]	M_{T}	Normal			
Electricity price yearly deviations ¹⁴	[0, 0.00295]	$\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}$	Normal			
Higher alcohols ^{6, 34, 37}	[1.28, 2.00, 3.00]	$\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}$	Triangular			
Petroleum \csc^2	[4.1046, 0.1886]	Based on MT	Lognormal			
Sulfur ⁴⁴	[4.5898, 0.3407]	Based on MT	Lognormal			
Scrap aluminum ^{23, 26, 29, 39, 39}	[772, 1858, 2457]	M_{T}	Triangular			
Scrap iron and steel ^{23, 26, 29, 39, 39}	[136, 342, 492]	M_{T}	Triangular			
Scrap glass ^{24, 29}	[7, 22, 30]	MT	Triangular			
Construction aggregates ⁴⁴	[7.82, 10.21, 18.36]	MT	Triangular			
Olivine ^{23, 34, 50}	[235, 255, 332]	MT	Triangular			
Tar reforming catalyst ^{23, 34, 50}	[12670, 15130, 20812]	MT	Triangular			
Alcohol synthesis catalyst ^{23, 34, 50}	[12915, 14244, 15696]	MT	Triangular			
Process water ^{23, 31, 32}	[0.10, 0.57, 0.73]	MT	Triangular			
D ₄ $RINs3$	$[-0.3441, 0.2262]$	\$/RIN	Lognormal			
Capital and fixed costs						
Fixed capital investment ³⁰	[206, 258, 387]	\$M	Beta PERT			
Fixed operating expenses ⁴¹	[6.4, 7.7, 11.6]	% of FCI	Beta PERT			

Table B.6: FT Monte Carlo variables and distribution parameters

Table B.9: Input feedstock rates and maximum fuel product outputs Table B.9: Input feedstock rates and maximum fuel product outputs

Table B.10: Fuel price correlations from historical U.S. Energy Information Administration (EIA) data

Fuel price	Correlation with gasoline price, x
Propane	$0.3762x + 0.0476$
Heavy oil	$0.8683x - 0.0330$
Jet fuel	$1.1698x - 0.0906$
Diesel	$1.1798x - 0.0786$

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Appendix C

Detailed MSP and NPV Results

C.1 MSP and NPV Monte Carlo Data

Pathway	TOUR OIL, MINT Median	Mean	Std. Dev.	Lower 5%	Upper $5%$
HEFA, Soybean oil	1.16	1.19	0.22	0.87	1.60
HEFA, Tallow	1.04	1.06	0.19	0.79	1.42
HEFA, Yellow grease	0.89	0.91	0.18	0.66	1.24
AF, Corn grain	1.64	1.66	0.25	1.30	2.10
AF, Sugarcane	1.43	1.47	0.26	1.10	1.96
AF, Herbaceous biomass	2.50	2.51	0.23	2.16	2.92
APP	2.05	2.07	0.23	1.73	2.48
HTL	2.75	2.78	0.45	2.09	3.58
FT	1.14	1.15	0.14	0.95	1.39
FPH	1.50	1.52	0.33	1.02	2.10

Table C.1: MSP (\$/L) results for each pathway

Pathway	Median	Mean	Std. Dev.	Lower $5%$	Upper 5%
HEFA, Soybean oil	-0.278	-0.281	0.205	-0.625	0.049
HEFA, Tallow	-0.199	-0.202	0.188	-0.517	0.100
HEFA, Yellow grease	-0.110	-0.112	0.181	-0.412	0.179
AF, Corn grain	-0.549	-0.552	0.209	-0.905	-0.216
AF, Sugarcane	-0.414	-0.420	0.209	-0.775	-0.099
AF, Herbaceous biomass	-1.044	-1.036	0.188	-1.336	-0.716
APP	-0.863	-0.854	0.171	-1.120	-0.560
HTL	-0.721	-0.716	0.181	-1.005	-0.408
FT.	-0.217	-0.210	0.139	-0.424	0.033
FPH	-0.351	-0.344	0.157	-0.583	-0.070

Table C.2: NPV (\$B) results for each pathway

Table C.3: MSP (\$/L) contribution results for HEFA and AF Table C.3: MSP (\$/L) contribution results for HEFA and AF

Table C.4: MSP $(3/L)$ contributionresults for APP, HTL, FT, and FPH

Table C.6: NPV (\$B) contributionresults for APP, HTL, FT, and FPH

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	MSP		NPV	
	Skewness	Kurtosis	Skewness	Kurtosis
HEFA Soybean oil	0.771	4.022	-0.202	3.142
HEFA Tallow	0.772	3.957	-0.145	3.071
HEFA Yellow grease	0.772	4.146	-0.096	3.005
AF Corn grain	0.711	4.036	-0.183	3.067
AF Sugarcane	0.838	4.186	-0.297	3.378
AF Herbaceous biomass	0.391	3.030	0.170	2.812
HTL	0.283	2.797	0.218	2.785
APP	0.418	2.932	0.133	2.712
FT.	0.337	2.753	0.259	2.816
FPH	0.381	3.196	0.300	2.778

Table C.7: Skewness and kurtosis results for baseline MSP and NPV kernel distributions

Note: The MSP and NPV results were fit to kernel distributions, a distribution used in cases when parametric distributions fail to properly describe the dataset. The positive skewness of the MSP results can be observed in the difference between the median and mean MSP for each case, with the median MSP slightly less than the mean MSP by $$0.01/L - $0.04/L$. The positive skewness of the capital investment distribution imposes the greatest influence on the positive skewness of the MSP distributions, and none of the pathways reveal symmetrical skewness results (skewness less than 0.25). A test for normality (kurtosis of 3) reveals that none of the MSP results can be described accurately by a normal distribution. Conversely, the NPV results demonstrate kurtosis values that conform closely with a normal distribution, with all values falling within 15% of 3. The NPV distributions reveal more varied skewness results, with AF from herbaceous biomass, HTL, APP, and FPH skewed positively due to the dominance of capital costs among contributors to variance and HEFA, AF from corn grain, and AF from sugarcane skewed negatively due to the dominance of feedstock among contributors to variance

Figure C-1: HEFA soybean oil MSP histogram $(\$/\rm L)$

Figure C-2: HEFA tallow MSP histogram $(\$/\mathrm{L})$

Figure C-3: HEFA yellow grease MSP histogram (\$/L)

Figure C-4: AF corn grain MSP histogram $(\$/\rm L)$

Figure C-5: AF sugarcane MSP histogram (\$/L)

Figure C-6: AF herbaceous biomass MSP histogram (\$/L)

Figure C-7: HTL MSP histogram $(\$/\rm L)$

Figure C-8: APP MSP histogram $(\$/\rm L)$

Figure C-9: FT MSP histogram (\$/L)

Figure C-10: FPH MSP histogram $(\$/\rm L)$

Figure C-11: HEFA soybean oil NPV histogram (\$B)

Figure C-12: HEFA tallow NPV histogram (\$B)

Figure C-13: HEFA yellow grease NPV histogram (\$B)

Figure C-14: AF corn grain NPV histogram (\$B)

Figure C-15: AF sugarcane NPV histogram (\$B)

Figure C-16: AF herbaceous biomass NPV histogram (\$B)

Figure C-17: HTL NPV histogram (\$B)

Figure C-18: APP NPV histogram (\$B)

Figure C-19: FT NPV histogram (\$B)

Figure C-20: FPH NPV histogram (\$B)

C.2 Contribution to Variance

Figure C-21: Contributions to variance for HEFA and AF pathways

Figure C-22: Contributions to variance for APP, FT, HTL, and FPH

Table C.8: NPV contributions to variance for each pathway Table C.8: NPV contributions to variance for each pathway

C.3 Detailed Sensitivity Analysis Results

Table C.9: Sensitivity analysis for HEFA soybean oil MSP and positive NPV probability

HEFA Soybean Oil						
		LMD			P(NPV>0)	
	Low	High	Baseline	Low	Baseline	High
Discount rate $\%$ (3.2, 15, 22)	1.07	1.27	1.19	21.8%	8.6%	3.5%
Feedstock cost \$/Mlb (225, 370, 525)	0.86	1.53	1.19	27.4%	8.6%	0.1%
Income tax rate $\%$ (0, 16.9, 39)	1.16	1.23	1.19	8.7%	8.6%	6.8%
Fuel yield GGE/MT (240, 304, 320)	1.50	1.12	1.19	2.2%	8.6%	12.2%
FCI % (80, 100, 150)	1.14	1.29	1.19	10.4%	8.6%	5.1%
Fixed Operating Cost, % of FCI (8, 11, 16)	1.17	1.22	1.19	9.1%	8.6%	6.9%

Table C.10: Sensitivity analysis for HEFA tallow MSP and positive NPV probability

	HEFA Tallow					
		$\angle LMD$			P(NPV>0)	
	Low	High	Baseline	Low	Baseline	High
Discount rate $\%$ (3.2, 15, 22)	0.95	1.15	1.06	31.2%	14.8%	6.6%
Feedstock cost \$/Mlb (194, 315, 445)	0.79	1.36	1.06	36.8%	14.8%	0.7%
Income tax rate $\%$ $(0, 16.9, 39)$	1.04	1.11	1.06	15.5%	14.8%	10.8%
Fuel yield GGE/MT (240, 304, 320)	1.35	1.00	1.06	3.7%	14.8%	17.8%
FCI % (80, 100, 150)	1.02	1.17	1.06	16.4%	14.8%	8.4%
Fixed Operating Cost, % of FCI (8, 11, 16)	1.05	1.10	1.06	14.4%	14.8%	11.2%

HEFA Yellow Grease						
		$\angle LMD$			P(NPV>0)	
	Low	High	Baseline	Low	Baseline	High
Discount rate $\%$ (3.2, 15, 22)	0.80	1.00	0.91	44.8%	27.7%	14.0%
Feedstock cost \$/Mlb (134, 250, 374)	0.65	1.19	0.91	57.6%	27.7%	3.3%
Income tax rate $\%$ (0, 16.9, 39)	0.89	0.96	0.91	28.4%	27.7%	19.7%
Fuel yield GGE/MT (240, 304, 320)	1.16	0.86	0.91	9.6%	27.7%	31.5%
FCI % (80, 100, 150)	0.87	1.02	0.91	29.8%	27.7%	16.6%
Fixed Operating Cost % of FCI (8, 11, 16)	0.90	0.95	0.91	26.6%	27.7%	21.5%

Table C.11: Sensitivity analysis for HEFA yellow grease MSP and positive NPV probability

Table C.12: Sensitivity analysis for AF corn grain MSP and positive NPV probability

AF Corn Grain						
		\$/L MD			P(NPV>0)	
	Low	High	Baseline	Low	Baseline	High
Discount rate $\%$ (3.2, 15, 22)	1.32	1.91	1.66	1.3%	1.9%	0.2%
Feedstock cost \$/kg (0.12, 0.18, 0.25)	1.38	1.96	1.66	1.4%	2.0%	0.0%
Income tax rate $\%$ (0, 16.9, 39)	1.60	1.79	1.66	1.6%	1.8%	1.4%
Fuel yield GGE/MT (45, 56.3, 59.3)	2.03	1.51	1.66	2.0%	1.5%	2.4%
FCI % (80, 100, 150)	1.53	1.97	1.66	1.5%	2.0%	0.3%
Fixed Operating Cost % of FCI (4, 6, 10)	1.62	1.74	1.66	1.6%	1.7%	1.1%

Table C.13: Sensitivity analysis for AF sugarcane MSP and positive NPV probability

	AF Sugarcane					
		/LMD			P(NPV>0)	
	Low	High	Baseline	Low	Baseline	High
Discount rate % (3.2, 15, 22)	1.07	1.76	1.47	26.9%	1.8%	2.6%
Feedstock cost \$/kg (0.02, 0.03, 0.05)	1.19	1.83	1.47	6.1%	1.8%	0.0%
Income tax rate $\%$ $(0, 16.9, 39)$	1.40	1.62	1.47	3.7%	1.8%	1.9%
Fuel yield GGE/MT (12, 15.2, 16)	1.78	1.32	1.47	0.1%	1.8%	8.3%
FCI % (80, 100, 150)	1.33	1.83	1.47	6.9%	1.8%	2.8%
Fixed Operating Cost % of FCI (4, 6, 10)	1.42	1.56	1.47	3.6%	1.8%	1.9%

AF Herbaceous Biomass						
		\$/L MD			P(NPV>0)	
	Low	High	Baseline	Low	Baseline	High
Discount rate % (3.2, 15, 22)	1.75	3.08	2.51	0.8%	0.0%	0.0%
Feedstock cost \$/kg (0.02, 0.06, 0.10)	2.20	2.84	2.51	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Income tax rate $\%$ (0, 16.9, 39)	2.37	2.81	2.51	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Fuel yield GGE/MT (33, 41.6, 44)	3.02	2.24	2.51	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
FCI % (80, 100, 150)	2.24	3.20	2.51	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Fixed Operating Cost % of FCI (4, 6, 10)	2.42	2.68	2.51	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%

Table C.14: Sensitivity analysis for AF herbaceous biomass MSP and positive NPV probability

Table C.15: Sensitivity analysis for HTL MSP and positive NPV probability

HTL Woody Biomass						
/LMD P(NPV>0)						
	Low	High	Baseline	Low	Baseline	High
Discount rate $\%$ (3.2, 15, 22)	1.11	3.92	2.78	54.6%	0.0%	3.1%
Feedstock cost \$/MT (40, 66, 100)	2.51	3.13	2.78	11.9%	0.0%	3.2%
Income tax rate $\%$ (0, 16.9, 39)	2.52	3.32	2.78	11.2%	0.0%	3.2%
Fuel yield GGE/MT (49.3, 59.7, 61.2)	3.57	2.69	2.78	1.2%	0.0%	11.3%
FCI % (80, 100, 150)	2.20	4.22	2.78	18.0%	0.0%	4.0%
Fixed Operating Cost % of FCI (2, 5, 10)	2.55	3.19	2.78	11.3%	0.0%	3.4%

Table C.16: Sensitivity analysis for APP MSP and positive NPV probability

APP Woody Biomass						
		\$/L MD			P(NPV>0)	
	Low	High	Baseline	Low	Baseline	High
Discount rate $\%$ (3.2, 15, 22)	1.26	2.67	2.07	11.6%	0.0%	0.0%
Feedstock cost \$/MT (40, 66, 100)	1.92	2.26	2.07	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Income tax rate $\%$ $(0, 16.9, 39)$	1.92	2.38	2.07	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Fuel yield GGE/MT (49, 62, 65.4)	2.61	1.92	2.07	0.0%	0.0%	0.1%
FCI % (80, 100, 150)	1.78	2.79	2.07	0.1%	0.0%	0.0%
Fixed Operating Cost % of FCI (2, 3, 6)	2.02	2.21	2.07	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%

	FT MSW					
		/LMD			P(NPV>0)	
	Low	High	Baseline	Low	Baseline	High
Discount rate $\%$ (3.2, 15, 22)	0.58	1.57	1.15	65.8%	7.9%	0.0%
Feedstock cost \$/MT (-55, 0, 55)	0.99	1.31	1.15	9.4%	7.9%	0.8%
Income tax rate $\%$ (0, 16.9, 39)	1.05	1.37	1.15	5.9%	7.9%	0.8%
Fuel yield GGE/MT (80, 91.5, 95)	1.21	1.05	1.15	1.0%	7.9%	7.4%
FCI % (80, 100, 150)	0.95	1.66	1.15	13.7%	7.9%	0.0%
Fixed Operating Cost % of FCI (4, 7.7, 15)	1.03	1.39	1.15	7.4%	7.9%	3.3%

Table C.17: Sensitivity analysis for FT MSP and positive NPV probability

Table C.18: Sensitivity analysis for FPH MSP and positive NPV probability

Pyrolysis Corn Stover						
	/LMD P(NPV>0)					
	Low	High	Baseline	Low	Baseline	High
Discount rate $\%$ (3.2, 15, 22)	0.61	2.13	1.52	33.2%	2.1%	0.1%
Feedstock cost \$/MT (55, 87, 120)	1.30	1.76	1.52	4.8%	2.1%	0.7%
Income tax rate $\%$ (0, 16.9, 39)	1.39	1.79	1.52	3.1%	2.1%	1.1%
Fuel yield GGE/MT (55, 80.4, 90.5)	2.53	1.24	1.52	0.0%	2.1%	7.4%
FCI % (80, 100, 150)	1.28	2.15	1.52	6.2%	2.1%	0.1%
Fixed Operating Cost % of FCI (2, 4, 8)	1.43	1.67	1.52	3.2%	2.1%	1.2%

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Appendix D

Policy Analysis Methods

D.1 Equivalence Value Assignment

To demonstrate compliance with the RVO, blenders and refiners buy and sell 38-digit RIN codes assigned to each gallon of biofuel. These RINs have different D-Code designations associated with the emissions mitigation potential of different biofuel production pathways. As the RVO increases, RINs for fuels produced from pathways that abate greater quantities of greenhouse gases become more valuable. D3 Cellulosic Biofuel RINs, for example, can only be earned by pathways that use a cellulosic feedstock and emit 60% fewer greenhouse gases than conventional fuels. As a result, D3 RINs are more valuable on a \$ per RIN basis than D5 Advanced Biofuel RINs, which have a less stringent feedstock requirement and require a 50% greenhouse gas reduction (ICCT, 2014). Where life-cycle emissions data is not available, this thesis refer to D-Codes assigned to these pathways by the EPA.

Figure D-1: RIN lifecycle from fuel production to purchase points (EPA, 2016)

Under the Renewable Fuel Standard (RFS), renewable fuel products are eligible for equivalence multipliers that increase the number of RINs earned per gallon. For example, depending on the LHV of the fuel, diesel could earn an equivalence value multiplier of 1.7. The number of RINs earned would then be subject to multiplication by 1.7. We assume that the proprietors of each pathway would apply for and earn the equivalence values commensurate with the LHV of each fuel product, according to the following equation:

$$
EV = \frac{R}{0.972} \times \frac{EC}{77,000}
$$
 (D.1)

where EV is the equivalence value rounded to the nearest tenth, R is the renewable content of the fuel (assumed to be 1 for each pathway) and EC is the energy content of the renewable fuel in Btu per gallon (LHV). Table D.2 provides the assumed LHV for each fuel product and the associated equivalence value. In general, any pathway that converts a cellulosic feedstock into fuel earns a D7 RIN for middle distillates and a D3 RIN for other fuels. Commercial HEFA plants that use oil feedstocks earn D4 RINs for middle distillates and D5 RINs for other fuels, and MSW conversion pathways with non-cellulosic feedstocks earn D5 RINs (EPA, 2016).

Historical price values for D4 and D5 RINs were collected from Bloomberg commodity datasets (Bloomberg, 2016a,b). D4 and D5 RINs correlate closely over time, so the price of D5 RINs in any given year was dictated by the following equation using the random result of a kernel distribution applied to D4 RIN price data:

$$
Price_{D5} = 0.813 \times Price_{D4} + 0.0811
$$
 (D.2)

Because D3 and D7 RINs only comprise 0.8% of the RINs generated in 2015, price data is less readily available (EPA, 2015b). As a proxy, we follow Stock's method of estimating D3/D7 RIN prices by adding the D5 RIN price to the Cellulosic Waiver Credit (CWC), an EPA price support for cellulosic fuels that equates to \$0.25 in real terms or \$3.00 in real terms minus the average yearly wholesale price of gasoline, whichever is higher (EPA, 2015a; Stock, 2015). We apply this method on a year-toyear basis, combining the stochastic D5 RIN value with the CWC determined from the GBM-estimated gasoline price. Equivalence values, which are RIN multipliers attached to each gallon of fuel, are calculated based off of the assumed energy content (LHV) of each product using the equation found in RFS2. The distributions for each RIN type based on the Bloomberg commodity data are shown in Figure D-2.

Figure D-2: RIN price distributions (\$/RIN)

Pathway	Fuel product	Earned D-Code	D-Code Classification
	LPG	D ₅	Advanced biofuel
HEFA	Naphtha	D ₅	Advanced biofuel
	Jet	D ₄	Biomass-based diesel
	Diesel	D ₄	Biomass-based diesel
			Advanced
	LPG	$D5/D3*$	biofuel/Cellulosic
			biofuel
			Advanced
	Naphtha	$D5/D3*$	biofuel/Cellulosic
AF			biofuel
			Biomass-based
	Jet	$D4/D7*$	diesel/Cellulosic
			diesel
			Biomass-based
	Diesel	$D4/D7*$	diesel/Cellulosic
			diesel
	LPG	$\overline{D3}$	Cellulosic biofuel
APP	Naphtha	D ₃	Cellulosic biofuel
	Jet	D7	Cellulosic diesel
	Diesel	D7	Cellulosic diesel
	Gasoline	D ₃	Cellulosic biofuel
HTL	Jet	D7	Cellulosic diesel
	Diesel	D7	Cellulosic diesel
	Gasoline	D ₅	Advanced biofuel
FT	Jet	D ₅	Advanced biofuel
	Diesel	D ₅	Advanced biofuel
	Gasoline	$\overline{D3}$	Cellulosic biofuel
FPH	Jet	D7	Cellulosic diesel
	Diesel	D7	Cellulosic diesel

Table D.1: Earned RINs for each pathway and feedstock

 $^{\ast} \text{D3} / \text{D7}$ RINs only earned for herbaceous biomass feeds
tock in the AF case.

Fuel product	LHV (Btu/gallon)	Equivalence value
LPG	84,950	1.1
Naphtha	111,520	1.5
Gasoline	115,983	1.5
Jet	125,800	1.7
Diesel	128,450	1.7

Table D.2: Assumed LHV and equivalence value for each fuel product

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