

NOTICE WARNING CONCERNING COPYRIGHT RESTRICTIONS:
The copyright law of the United States (title 17, U.S. Code) governs the making of photocopies or other reproductions of copyrighted material. Any copying of this document without permission of its author may be prohibited by law.

A Unified Algorithm For Flowsheet Optimization

by

Y-D Lang, L. T. Biegler

EDRC-06-18-86 }

September 1986

A UNIFIED ALGORITHM FOR FLOWSHEET OPTIMIZATION

YD Laity and L. T. Biefler

Chemical Engineering Department
Carnegie-Mellon University
Pittsburgh, PA 15213

A UNIFIED ALGORITHM FOR FLOWSHEET OPTIMIZATION

V-D Lang and L. T. Biefler
Department of Chemical Engineering
Carnegie-Mellon University
Pittsburgh, PA 15213

A flexible algorithm (or flowsheet optimization) is developed on the FLOWTRAN process simulator. The optimization strategy combines both feasible and infeasible search approaches as well as the simpler black box approaches. While the most efficient optimization strategy is often problem dependent, this paper presents guidelines that show which strategy is more efficient for a given problem. Also embedded within the algorithm is a new Broyden strategy for efficiently converging even complex flowsheets, without computing a new Jacobian. This allows for strategies "in-between" the infeasible and feasible path procedures. A ratio test based on the Kuhn-Tucker convergence test automatically and adaptively adjusts the optimization strategy.

The implementation on FLOWTRAN is discussed in detail and a number of examples are run to illustrate the flexibility of the implementation as well as demonstrate the effectiveness of the adaptive optimization strategy.

SCOPE

Flowsheet optimization has been an important area for chemical process design and has its origins in linear programming work in the early 60s (see Griffith and Stewart (13)). With the increasing use of flowsheeting tools, process simulation has become easier and more widespread. Currently, on commercial simulators, however, the optimization strategy is either ad hoc (i.e. often approached as a series of case studies) or involves a detached optimization algorithm that supplies sets of decision variables as new parametric cases to the process simulator. This "black box" approach was used by Giddy and coworkers [1,12] and Friedman and Pinder [11].

Submitted to Computers and Chemical Engineering

April, 1986

with direct search optimization strategies, as well as by Challand [8] and Friedman and Puder [11] with more sophisticated gradient-based optimization strategies. In these studies any gradients that were required were evaluated by perturbing the decision variables and recalculating the entire flowsheet.

Recognizing that a complete flowsheet calculation is expensive for evaluating gradients, Isaacson [15] and Parker and Hughes [20] constructed reduced quadratic models by individual model perturbation at each base point. However, these required converged flowsheets for each trial point evaluation. Moreover, recent developments in nonlinear programming algorithms have cast flowsheet optimization in a new light. Using Successive Quadratic Programming (SQP) (Han [14], Powell [22]), Berna, Locke and Westerberg [2] demonstrated with equation solving simulators that flowsheet convergence and optimization can proceed simultaneously. A number of researchers have applied this concept to sequential modular simulators [5,9,16,17] with encouraging results. While differences exist among these studies in terms of calculating gradients and implementing the optimization algorithm all of them use an infeasible path approach to optimization; i.e. tear (or recycle) streams are solved simultaneously with the optimization problem using SQP to handle both tasks.

More recently, Biegler and Hughes [6,7] advanced the concept of feasible variants, i.e. converging the flowsheet between SQP iterations. On a limited number of test problems this strategy generally required fewer SQP iterations. Reasons for this are not clear although it is easy to argue that converging the flowsheet at each iteration may help to correct problems with SQP resulting from inaccurate gradients or an inefficient line search strategy (such as the one originally proposed by Han and Powell). In more recent studies [3,4], simply improving the line search algorithm and allowing for analytic gradient information where available also improved the performance of the infeasible path approach.

Finally, Eisala [18] indicated that the feasible variant approach may not always

be superior to infeasible path. This may be especially true if either the flowsheet is difficult to converge or the SQP algorithm has little difficulty in handling the infeasible path problem. Instead, he proposed a hybrid algorithm (IPI) where the flowsheet is partially converged using a fixed number of Wegstein iterations between SQP iterations. Interestingly, this approach sometimes worked well even when compared to infeasible path. However, no criteria were given on how to choose the number of Wegstein iterations for partial convergence or how to apply this algorithm on flowsheets where the Wegstein algorithm may be inappropriate for convergence.

In this paper we develop criteria for intermediate flowsheet convergence and demonstrate this approach on a number of test problems. More importantly, however, this paper presents a unified strategy for flowsheet optimization within a fairly compact and easy to implement structure. Interestingly, this structure incorporates all approaches discussed so far and because of its implementation provides a great deal of flexibility in developing optimization strategies tailored to difficult optimization problems.

CONCLUSIONS AND SIGNIFICANCE

A flexible and efficient optimization strategy has been implemented and evaluated using the FLOWTRAN simulator. Due to the structure of the algorithms and in-line FORTRAN capabilities, the optimization implementation allows the following solution options:

- "black-box" optimization
- simultaneous convergence of recycle streams and design constraints using either Broyden or Newton methods.
- infeasible path optimization (IP)
- complete feasible variant optimization (CFV)
- partially converged flowsheet optimization with an embedded Broyden algorithm (EBOPT)

In this paper we outline a simple algorithm for an improved "block-LS" algorithm for recycle stream problems. A detailed description is then presented for an enhanced Broyden method that partially converges flowsheets at intermediate iterations. In addition, a heuristic strategy is presented that signals when convergence is desirable or not. The resulting EBOPT (Embedded Broyden Optimization) method is fairly general and leads to the feasible path and feasible vonam algorithms as limiting cases.

The EBOPT strategy is compared to the infeasible path hybrid algorithm (IPH) developed by K. Saha and some theoretical advantages of EBOPT are demonstrated. In particular, EBOPT can generally converge more complex flowsheeting problems more efficiently because of its Broyden capabilities. Also, EBOPT is not as prone to line search failures as IPH is.

Finally, the capabilities of the optimization implementation are demonstrated on five example problems. The first problem is characteristic of black-box optimization while the second illustrates the flowsheet convergence capabilities afforded by the EBOPT and IP algorithms.

The last three examples give a comparison of four algorithms, IP, EBOPT, CFV and IPH, on reasonably difficult and realistic flowsheet optimization problems. On all problems EBOPT performs better than either IP or CFV. IPH performs best on one problem but suffers premature line search failures on the other two.

1. Preliminary Theory and Concepts

The flowsheet optimization problem is given by

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{(NIP)} \quad & \text{Min} \quad F(x,y) \\
 \text{St.} \quad & h(x,y) = y - w(x,y) = 0 \\
 & c(x,y) = 0 \\
 & g(x,y) \leq 0 \\
 & x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n
 \end{aligned}$$

$$y_l \leq y \leq y_u$$

- flowsheet decision variables
- y - guessed leaf stream variables
- w - calculated leaf stream variables
- F - objective function
- h - equality equations for converging the flowsheet
- c - additional equality constraints for optimisation
- g - inequality constraints

Examples of objective and constraint functions can be found in previous studies as well as in the case studies presented later in the paper. To solve this problem, the Successive Quadratic Programming algorithm essentially applies a modified quasi-Newton method to converge the optimally or Karush-Kuhn-Tucker (KKT) conditions of (MLP). To do this and maintain a consistent active set, the following quadratic program (QP) is solved at each iteration:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{(QP)} \quad & \text{Min} \quad \nabla T(x^l, y^l)^T d + 1/2 d^T B d \\
 \text{e.t.} \quad & b(x^l, y^l) + \nabla h(x^l, y^l)^T d = 0 \\
 & c(x^l, y^l) + \nabla c(x^l, y^l)^T d = 0 \\
 & g(x^l, y^l) + \nabla g(x^l, y^l)^T d \leq 0
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_l \\ y_l \end{bmatrix} + d \leq \begin{bmatrix} x_u \\ y_u \end{bmatrix}$$

Here B is a BFGS (see [10]) update matrix to the Hessian of the Lagrange function with respect to x and y. A detailed statement of this algorithm may be found in any of the above references and will not be given here. The version of the algorithm used in this implementation was developed in Biegler and Cuthrell [4] and includes the following features:

1. All efficient augmented Lagrangian-based line search strategy is used to guarantee global convergence and allow small steps in the region of the optimum. The latter property is not guaranteed by the implementations of Hsu (14) or Powell (22).
2. An automatic variable and constraint scaling strategy is included that gives good performance on flowsheeting problems. In addition a condition number is calculated for the Hessian matrix in QP1 to determine when the problem is ill-conditioned or poorly scaled.
3. Because of portability, space and availability constraints, the Hewlett-Packard subroutine VE02AD is used to solve the OP at each iteration. In Biegler and Couvillion (4) a more reliable and efficient OP code was used. However, there are no noticeable differences in function evaluations due to this substitution and, consequently, the FLOWTRAN implementation is not affected by this change.

This SOP algorithm forms the core of our unified optimization strategy.

To see how the optimization strategies compare from a geometric viewpoint, consider the sample flowsheet optimization problem in Figure 1a. Here only one decision variable, x , one tear variable, y , and only one tear equation, h , are required for the optimization problem. If one considers this problem from a case study perspective, one can trace a curve for $F(x)$ vs. x (Fig. 1b) where each point on the curve represents a converged flowsheet. Expanding this problem in terms of both x and y yields the contour plot in Fig. 1c. Note that the optimum lies on the solid line which represents the tear constraint and a nonlinear projection along this line gives the curve in Fig. 1b.

Using the case-study or "black box" approach the optimization algorithm is merely tied to the outside of the simulator and the simulator is responsible for converging the flowsheet for each evaluation of the optimization problem. Similarly, gradient calculations involve perturbation and convergence of the flowsheet for each decision variable. Thus, no information about flowsheet convergence is passed between the optimizer and simulator. In Figure 2 this can be seen in terms of the horizontal steps (in x) made by the optimizer and the vertical steps (in y) performed by the simulator. Note that these vertical steps usually represent flowsheet

convergence by slowly converging cycles until it is before the first time most time consuming part of the optimization routine.

Since the infeasible path approach provides information about the x - y surface and does not require flowsheet convergence until the optimum is found, movement occurs in both x and y as seen in Fig. 3a. This slip in x and y results from linearizing the constraints and approximating the surface contours as well as the curvature of the constraints. As seen above this approximation leads to a straightforward quadratic program. Gradients for (OP1) are found by perturbing the unconverged flowsheet. Also the expensive vertical steps for flowsheet convergence are avoided because flowsheet convergence is guaranteed as part of the solution to the optimization problem. In fact, as will be illustrated later, application of the infeasible path approach in the absence of degrees of freedom is equivalent to Newton's method.

To prevent an overextrapolation of the infeasible path approach it may be advantageous to ensure that the equality constraints be converged (or at least partially converged) at each iteration. Using the feasible variant approach, the path for x and y is given by Figure 3b. Horizontal steps from flowsheet convergence are introduced and one sees that the starting point for converging y is 0 is given by the OP and is considerably better than in the "black-box" approach. Interestingly, the OP that is created and solved at each iteration is exactly the same, and requires the same effort at each iteration, as with infeasible path. Note that with this strategy one assumes that the flowsheet can be solved readily by the cycle convergence algorithm.

In the next sections we develop a new approach for improving the performance of the optimization strategy. This strategy addresses some of the drawbacks with both infeasible path optimization and the feasible variant strategy and also links both strategies more closely in terms of a unified framework. Before presenting this

strategy, however, it is useful to discuss further the differences between feasible variants and "black box" (or case-study) optimization.

2. Black Box Optimization vs. Optimization in x and y

Comparing Figure 2 to Figures 3a and 3b one sees that the main disadvantage in the optimization path of the first figure is due to lack of interaction between x and the dependent variables, y , in the optimization step. In fact, the main difference between Figures 2 and 3b is simply that with the feasible variant approach y is initialized much closer to the converged flowsheet. Generally, this leads to more efficient recycle convergence. The improved path however requires flowsheet perturbations in x and y to create a larger QP problem at each iteration. Using SQP with the "black box" approach requires the solution of a much smaller QP:

$$(QP2) \quad \begin{aligned} \text{Min} \quad & \frac{dF^1}{dx} T d_x + \frac{1}{2} d_x^T B_x d_x \\ \text{s.t.} \quad & g(x^1) + \frac{dg^1}{dx} T d_x \leq 0 \\ & C(x^1) + \frac{dC^1}{dx} T d_x = 0 \end{aligned}$$

where $y = y(x^1) | h(x^1, y) = 0$

with the tear equations and tear variables removed. Note that the derivatives in the above QP are reduced gradients and require a converged flowsheet with each decision variable perturbation.

Because of the differences in the size of the optimization problem it is easy to see that the "black box" approach can be superior to the infeasible path or feasible variant methods when the number of tear variables greatly outnumbers the number of design variables and the flowsheet is not difficult to converge with conventional algorithms. The work per iteration for each approach can be approximated by:

Black Box

$$NFPI = NRP \cdot NX + NRC$$

Feasible Variant

$$NFPI = E \cdot NX + NY + NRI$$

Infeasible Path

$$NFPI = E \cdot NX + NY + 1$$

where,	NFPI	number of flowsheet passes per iteration
	NRP	number of recycle iterations to converge perturbations in decision variables
	NRC	number of recycle iterations to converge flowsheet at each new base point (vertical steps in Fig. 2)
	NX	number of flowsheet decision variables
	NY	number of flowsheet tear variables
	E	fraction of equivalent flowsheet passes required for decision variable perturbations (partial flowsheet passes)
	NRI	number of recycle iterations to converge flowsheet at new base point (vertical steps in Fig. 3b)

As seen from the above relationships, flowsheets with few degrees of freedom and many recycle components can be optimized more efficiently with the black box approach. Note also that NRI is expected to be less than NRC. This occurs because the y variables have better initialization with the feasible variant approach and, as will be seen later, more efficient recycle convergence algorithms can be used with feasible variants. With the black box approach it is easy, however, to reduce NRC and allow the optimization path to be similar to the one followed by the feasible variant approach. This simply requires keeping track of how the dependent variables, y , change with x .

Consider a perturbation in variable x and a completely converged flowsheet for that perturbation. For the tear constraints, $h(x,y) = 0$, we have to a first order approximation:

$$dh = 0 - V_h h_{lim} + V_h h' dy$$

where $dx_j = (0, 0, \dots, \Delta x_j, \dots, 0)$. Solving this equation for dy/A^* (give column j of the matrix $(-V_h M_x \setminus y^*)^{-1} V_h M_x^* y^*$). Therefore, simply by saving the response of the variables to all perturbations in x , i.e.

$$X = (dy/A^*, d_{y1}/M_{11}, \dots, d_{ym}/M_{mm})$$

$$- (V_h \setminus UV) V V / K J \setminus KV =$$

we can use the solution of (QP2), d^* , and write d_y as

$$d_y = Y d_x$$

Note from QP1 that this equation solves the linearization of the tear constraints and therefore leads to the step in x and y given in Figure 3b. Also, it is interesting to note this approach leads to the same step that is generated by the Reduced Feasible Variant (RFV) algorithm described by Biaglar and Hughes (7).

However, because flowsheet convergence is the outer loop to several levels of iterative calculations, the convergence error in the tear equations can be relatively large. Therefore, in order to calculate the Y matrix correctly, the perturbation size needs to be chosen accurately. If we include second order corrections and the convergence error, (in our tear constraints we can write:

$$dh = i - VA^* AJT \cdot (HA^{**}) + \nabla_y h^* \Delta y + O(\Delta x \setminus \Delta y) + O(\Delta y \setminus \Delta x)$$

Rearranging this expression gives an order of magnitude estimate for the errors in the Y matrix:

$$Y_j = (\nabla_y h^*)^{-1} [\epsilon / \Delta x_j - (\nabla_y h^*) + O(\Delta x_j) \cdot (X \setminus AK) + O(\Delta y \setminus \Delta x_j)]$$

Note that choosing a perturbation size too small leads to appreciable error due to convergence noise while a large perturbation size leads to an error due to second

order circuit. To avoid these problems, the number of Heronov NHP and NfIC may need to be large to force a small Δx . The Δx is $\Delta x = \Delta x_{min} \cdot \text{boctuit flow}^{****}$ convex (jcrxe elgoriime have only $unmm$ convex +nce $p^*op \setminus m \setminus i$ HJL lequtrrog MPi to be larger than it normally expects $\setminus J$ $\setminus tw$ simulatofv

3. Development of an Embedded Broyden Strategy

To summarize the previous material and to introduce this section, consider problem (NLP) again:

$$(NLP) \quad \text{Min} \quad FU(y)$$

$$\text{s.t.} \quad Mx(y) \cdot y - w(x,y) = 0$$

$$c(x,y) = 0$$

$$gU(y) \leq 0$$

$$y_1 \leq y \leq y_n$$

In the "black box" approach the y variables were eliminated and the constraints $hU(y) = 0$ were always satisfied. nmv for perturbations of x . The infeasible path (IP) and the complete feasible variant (CFV) strategies deal with (NLP) explicitly in the space of x and y and solve (QP1) at each iteration. In addition, CFV converges the equations $h(x,y) = 0$ by adjusting the y variables. $ifir$ (QP1) is solved. As mentioned above, it may be more efficient to $psri/shy$ converge the constraints $htx(y) = 0$ at each iteration since IP yields a converged flowsheet at the optimum anyway. Also, if an efficient and reliable equation solver can be applied, one can handle both h and c by converging them simultaneously.

In this section, we present an embedded Broyden approach for partial convergence within flowsheet optimization. This strategy incorporates the infeasible path and feasible variant approaches as limiting cases and can be viewed as a modification of the hybrid approach proposed by Kisala (18). In the previous section we observe that slowly converging recycle algorithms can lead to

inefficiency with the black box optimization algorithm. These algorithms (e.g. direct substitution) are also used in the feasible variant and hybrid approaches. Thus, for flowsheet that are difficult to solve, one can expect convergence problems at intermediate points.

When tear variables and constraints are part of the optimization problem, we have enough gradient information from QP1 to allow also for more efficient convergence routines. In particular, Broyden routines have been used with good results [9, 19, 21] in converging complex flowsheets, even those with additional design constraints. This section therefore addresses two points.

- 1 HOW can a Broyden algorithm be embedded within the optimization strategy to (partially) converge the flowsheet at intermediate points?
- 2 What criterion should be used to decide whether (partial) convergence is necessary at intermediate points?

3.1 An embedded Broyden algorithm

We now derive a modified Broyden algorithm for partial convergence at intermediate points. For convenience we will use only the tear variables, y , and tear equations, $n(y) > 0$, in presenting this derivation. Application of this method to additional design constraints, $c(y) = 0$, and additional dependent variables is straightforward.

To converge or partially converge the equality constraints, consider the step in Figure 4. At point C, the gradients and values of the objective and constraint functions are evaluated and QP1 is constructed and solved. The search direction from QP1 and a suitable stepsize leads to point D, from which the equality (i.e. tear and any design) constraints may be converged. If one were to apply a Broyden method to converge the dependent variables at this point one would want to have the Jacobian $(V^h)^T$ at point C to initialize the Broyden method. Since this is not available and it would be expensive to construct this information, we derive an update strategy based on the gradients evaluated at point C.

Let $H^k = [\nabla_{x,y}^T V^h]^T V^h$ at point C and consider the Broyden formula [10]

$$(H^k) \quad H^{k+1} = H^k + (q - H^k e) e^T / A$$

$$\text{where } A = \begin{bmatrix} \delta_x \\ \delta_y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x^{k+1} \\ y^{k+1} \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} x^k \\ y^k \end{bmatrix}$$

$$, \quad - h e^{T k} \nabla S - h \langle \nabla V \rangle$$

We note that this update relation can also be applied to the nonsquare matrix without violating any assumptions (see Dennis & Moré [10]) as to its derivation. Also from QP1 we see that the step from C to D is generated by $H^k d = -h(x^k, y^k)$. We can now apply the update formula to get H^1 at point D;

$$(B2) \quad H^1 = \begin{bmatrix} \nabla_x^T & \nabla_y^T \\ \nabla_x^T & \nabla_y^T \end{bmatrix} + \frac{U - H^0 \bar{e}}{\delta^T \delta} \begin{bmatrix} \delta_x \\ \delta_y \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \delta_x^T \\ \delta_y^T \end{bmatrix} + \frac{V^T (q - H^0 e) e^T}{\delta^T \delta} - \begin{bmatrix} u_x^1 \\ u_y^1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Starting from point D we keep x constant and only change y to converge the flowsheet; thus $\delta_x = 0$ for the following iterations. Applying (B1) to H^1 gives the following relations:

$$(B3) \quad H^{k+1} = \begin{bmatrix} u_x^1 \\ u_y^k \end{bmatrix} + \frac{(q - H^k e) e^T}{\delta_y^T \delta_y} \begin{bmatrix} \delta_y \\ \delta_y \end{bmatrix}$$

and

$$(B4) \quad \begin{bmatrix} u_x^1 \\ u_y^k \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ \delta_y \end{bmatrix} = -h(x^k, y^k)$$

Note that since J_{-} is determined by QP1 for the first step (i.e. H_0 does not affect J_{-}), in the later steps, we write the update formulae (B2), (B3) as:

$$H_k^1 = H_k^* \cdot [q - H^1 \setminus, i / i^1]$$

and

$$H_k^{1,1} = H_k^1 + [q - H_k^1 \setminus, i] \setminus_i^1 / \setminus_i^1 \setminus_i^1, \text{ for } k \geq 1$$

This expression can be simplified *mvmn* further by noting that

$$H_k^1 \setminus_i^1 = -M(x^0, y^1)$$

and

$$q - H_k^1 \setminus_i^1 = [M(x^0, y^{k+1}) - M(x^0, y^1)] + M(x^0, y^1)$$

if *u//* Broyden steps are taken. Also for the first step:

$$H^0 \setminus_i = H^0(\lambda d) = -\lambda M(x^0, y^0)$$

Therefore, the Broyden steps can be given by:

$$(B5) \quad H_k^1 = H_k^* \cdot [1 + \lambda^k \cdot \lambda^k] \cdot \setminus_i^1 / \setminus_i^1 \setminus_i^1$$

and

$$(B6) \quad H_k^{1,1} = H_k^1 + M(x^0, y^{k+1}) \setminus_i^1 / \setminus_i^1 \setminus_i^1, \quad k \geq 1$$

Note that when the line search in SOP allows a full step U-1). (B5) and (B6) differ only in the denominator of the second term. Also, note that in the absence of degrees of freedom (no *x* variables), these equations reduce to the conventional Broyden approach.

Testing of this approach on the problems given below shows that no more than *S* iterations are required to converge the flowsheet at intermediate points. As shown

with the conventional Broyden approach. Hits method also handles the sign constraint easily.

3.2 Criteria for using an extended Broyden method

As noted in previous studies, the choice of optimization strategy is often problem dependent. If the gradients are reasonably accurate and the flowsheet is only "mildly" nonlinear, then the infeasible path approach will converge smoothly. If, on the other hand, the flowsheet is highly nonlinear and difficult to converge (with complex units that are failure prone) then a feasible path approach with Broyden's method and appropriate safeguards could be more reliable and efficient. However, these characteristics are not always known *a priori*. Indeed, as shown by Kisala [18], partial flowsheet convergence may lead to more efficient performance in solving the optimization problem.

However, care must be taken in dealing with partial flowsheet convergence at each iteration. In particular, partial convergence can be detrimental to the search algorithm in determining the stepsize for the next point.

In the SOP algorithm, a given stepsize along the search direction, *d*, is accepted if a "sufficient" decrease is observed with some merit function, *p*. In the algorithms of Han and Powell, this function is the exact penalty function; in our algorithm an augmented Lagrange function is used. In either case, it is well known (see e.g. Han 114) that the search direction from QP1, *d*, is a descent direction for the merit function. Consequently, finding a nonzero stepsize is guaranteed, at least in theory, for the infeasible path algorithm.

For the feasible variant algorithms, one can also prove that a nonzero stepsize will be found during the line search. This can be shown because all points in the line search have converged equality constraints and the OP solution, from a feasible point, is also a descent direction for the line search function *f*.

However, lot flowsheets that are only partially converged, do not guarantee that a stepsize with a decreased merit function will be found. A simple illustration of this is given in Figure 5. From the QP base point at A, one sees the merit function can be viewed as a function of λ along the search direction found by OP1. Executing a fixed number of convergence iterations for a given stepsize, point B, say, may decrease or increase the objective function. In fact, for a fixed number of iterations, it is possible that the equality and inequality constraint infeasibilities may also increase. Consequently, it is possible that partial convergence may move the merit function value from point B to B'. Note that this behavior can occur arbitrarily close to point A, say, point C, and thus lead to a line search failure - even though perfectly reasonable stepsizes exist for infeasible path.

For this reason we apply partial convergence only after the line search algorithm finds a stepsize. In this way we can avoid line search failures and also save some work at intermediate points.

As further justification for this safeguard we note that, by itself, the infeasible path algorithm converges quickly and takes full steps in the neighborhood of the optimum. For this case, partial convergence is usually not necessary. On the other hand, at the beginning of the optimization, the search direction may overextrapolate and lead to a point that is difficult to converge. Here it would be inefficient to partially converge the flowsheet during the line search. Instead, allowing the line search algorithm to find a more reasonable point first will save some effort.

Even with this safeguard, one is still not guaranteed that partial convergence leads to better performance for the optimization. One way to measure the success of partially converged points would be to compare merit functions from iteration to iteration. However, one still needs to know if, a priori, partial convergence is desirable or even necessary at a given point. In the next section we develop a strategy for dealing with this task. We should mention that this strategy is based on

heuristics and, consequently, will not always guarantee improved performance compared to infeasible path. Nevertheless, the heuristic is encouraging.

Heuristic strategy for partial convergence

For SOP a common measure of Kuhn Tucker error (KTE) for problem INLP is given by (22):

$$KTE = \sum_i |v_i| \cdot X_i \cdot K_i^* + \sum_j |u_j^*| \cdot Z_j \cdot I_j^*$$

where u_i , v_i and λ^* are multipliers calculated for QP1 for g , h_i and c_i respectively. Also, $\theta(\lambda)$ is defined as $\max(0, \lambda^* x)$. Reducing KTE to within a zero tolerance is a necessary and sufficient condition for satisfying the KKT conditions for INLP. Now, from Figure 4, if SOP finds a step from point C to point D, one needs to determine if additional work is required by Broyden's method to move to point E. Since this method converges only c_i and h_j , a heuristic measure of how much improvement can be had is given by the ratio:

$$RAT = \left(\sum_i |v_i| \cdot h_i + \sum_j |u_j^*| \cdot c_j \right) / KTE$$

If this ratio remains small, intermediate convergence is not necessary. If it remains consistently large, however, full or partial convergence may help to speed convergence. To use this ratio we propose two triggers for intermediate convergence.

$$RAT > \epsilon$$

at point C, move to point D and converge c_i and λ^* (to point E, say) until the relation

$$RAT < \epsilon$$

is satisfied.

$$2) \quad \text{if } \left(\sum |v_i h_i| + \sum |r_i c_i| \right)_c / KTE_c \leq \epsilon,$$

but on moving to point D,

$$\left(\sum |v_i h_i| + \sum |r_i c_i| \right)_o / KTE_o > \epsilon,$$

use Broyden's method to converge (to point E, say) c_i and h_i so that (BR1) is satisfied.

Otherwise, both points C and D lie close to the constraints and intermediate convergence is not required. Note that by adjusting the ϵ 's, one can develop a full spectrum of methods between the infeasible path approach ($\epsilon_1=1, \epsilon_2=\infty$) and the feasible variant strategy ($\epsilon_1 \approx 0, \epsilon_2 \approx 0$).

In choosing these parameters, ϵ_1 should be set between zero and one to allow for partial convergence. ϵ_2 should be set small in order to avoid the first trigger at the next iteration. Our experience indicates that often very few Broyden iterations (1 or 2) are required to satisfy (BR1) even if ϵ_1 is small, (say 10^{-5}). ϵ_2 on the other hand, can be sufficiently greater than unity without hampering performance. This results because point C for the second trigger is sufficiently close to satisfying the constraints; a linearization from that point and a line search usually determine point D that is reasonably good without partial convergence. In fact, for the problems we solved, the second trigger for partial convergence was not necessary for good performance.

In addition to the above triggers we have also included the following conditions for intermediate convergence. First, if the current iteration is in the neighborhood of the optimum, applying Broyden iterations is usually not necessary since the constraints are close to being satisfied anyway. Therefore if $KTE_c \leq 10\epsilon$, say, where ϵ is the Kuhn-Tucker tolerance, we do not apply intermediate convergence.

Also, it is possible that the flowsheet may not converge at all at an intermediate point. Consequently, we impose a maximum number of iterations for intermediate convergence. In our case studies successfully converged intermediate points never required more than 5 iterations.

We conclude this section by emphasizing that the above strategy is based on heuristics that, from our limited experience, work reliably and efficiently. Since very little theory governs the concept of partial convergence, we used these guidelines in our implementation. In the next section we discuss how the constants ϵ_1 and ϵ_2 were chosen and give a statement of the algorithm.

4. Algorithmic Statement and FLOWTRAN Implementation

Using the concepts stated above we now present an algorithmic statement of the Embedded Broyden Optimization (EBOPT) strategy and outline the features and options used in the FLOWTRAN implementation. In the algorithmic statement we assume the reader is somewhat familiar with the SQP algorithm and will not dwell on its details. The reader is referred to [4] for the line search strategy and update formulae.

4.1 Algorithm

Step 0) Set the SQP iteration counter, $i=0$, and initialize the flowsheet with x^0 and y^0 . y^0 can be found by (partially) converging the flowsheet. Set ϵ as the Kuhn-Tucker tolerance.

Step 1) At (x^i, y^i) find the gradients for F, g, h and c with respect to x and y . This can be done by direct loop perturbation [6] or chainruling [3].

Step 2) Solve (QP1) given above to get the search direction d for x and y . Evaluate KTE and (BR) at iteration i using the expressions above. If $KTE_c \leq \epsilon$, stop.

Step 3) Perform a Unidirectional search with a suitable merit function, f , to find a stepsize, λ , along the direction, \hat{y}^k , such that $f(y^k + \lambda \hat{y}^k) < f(y^k)$.

Step 4) Set Broyden iteration counter $k \leftarrow 0$ and evaluate the flowsheet (or \hat{y}^k).

$$\| \sum_i |v_{ij}(x^{k+1}, \hat{y}^k)| + \sum_i |t_{ij}(x^{k+1}, \hat{y}^k)| / KTE_i \leq \epsilon,$$

or

$$KJE_i \leq 10\epsilon$$

set $y^{k+1} = y^k + \lambda \hat{y}^k$ and go to step 7.

Step 5) Set $y^* = y^k$ and apply the Broyden formulae (B5) and (B6) to y^k and (h.c.) until:

$$\sum_i |v_{ij}(x^{k+1}, y^k)| + \sum_i |t_{ij}(x^{k+1}, y^k)| / KTE_i \leq \epsilon,$$

then set $y^{k+1} = y^k$. If the above relation cannot be satisfied after five iterations ($w > 5$), set $y^{k+1} = y^k$.

Step 6) Evaluate the gradients at (x^{k+1}, y^{k+1}) as in step 1. Update the Hessian matrix for QP1.

Step 7) Let $k \leftarrow k+1$ and go to step 2.

4.2 FLOWTRAN Implementation

The optimization capability in FLOWTRAN was installed by writing a type 2 (convergence) block. The structure and argument list for this block, called SCOPT, was the same as the existing recycle convergence block, SCVW. Because we did not change any code in FLOWTRAN, we implemented direct loop perturbation as the most straightforward way for evaluating gradients. Since FLOWTRAN generates and compiles a FORTRAN main program at run time, it can easily accommodate in-line FORTRAN and user written subroutines as part of the input data. This, in turn, allows the optimizer to evaluate partial flowsheet passes if needed for gradient evaluation.

Aim: the user's specification of the optimization problem can be made simply by adding a few lines of FORTRAN to the input data for the optimization problem.

SCOPT handles up to twelve tear streams (as does SCVW), which it converges simultaneously, and up to a total of 40 decision and tear variables. Decision variables can be chosen from equipment parameters or feed streams. These variables are accessed through PUT statements that are common features in FLOWTRAN.

In addition, the user needs to specify a relative perturbation size (between 10^{-1} and 10^{-4} is recommended) and a relative Kuhn-Tucker tolerance (usually between 10^{-4} and 10^{-6}). It should be noted, however, that choosing a Kuhn-Tucker tolerance too small can result in line search failures and poor steps near the end of the run, because the gradients may not be accurate enough to satisfy the tolerance.

Another option in our implementation deals with the choice of tear variables. In most optimization studies, stream flow rates, pressure and specific enthalpy are chosen. Temperature is not chosen because for multiphase streams, enthalpy is not realizable from temperature alone. However, for single phase streams calculation of enthalpy from temperature is usually direct and a level of iteration and some convergence noise are eliminated in the perturbation step. Since perturbing the temperature for single phase tear streams can lead to more accurate derivatives, we have added a T/H option.

Finally the f_1 parameters need to be specified for the embedded Broyden algorithm. As mentioned above, f_1 , which defines the second trigger, can be fairly large. In our experience values of $f_1 > 3$ have still led to good performance and this trigger was always inactive. Consequently, we have not used this test either.

On the other hand ϵ_f was set, after some testing, to 0.01. As explained above, it takes surprisingly few Broyden iterations to satisfy this test. The most important

parameter for determining intermediate convergence is therefore ϵ_1 . Setting $\epsilon_1 = \epsilon_2 = 0$ in our implementation leads to a feasible variant approach. Setting $\epsilon_1 = 1.0$ yields the infeasible path approach and intermediate values of ϵ_1 allow partial convergence. In our testing, setting ϵ_1 to 0.4 yielded good results although this parameter is problem dependent. However, on many problems, examination of the output shows that performance of this strategy is not very sensitive to ϵ_1 . In Table 1, the ranges of ϵ_1 and ϵ_2 under which the same performance would be achieved are tabulated for the Embedded Broyden Optimization (EBOPT) strategy.

5. Example Problems

The following five example problems were solved by a number of approaches. A number of similar problems were solved in addition to these. However, for the sake of brevity, we chose this set because it represents what can be expected from the implementation in terms of performance and flexibility. The first problem is essentially a black-box implementation on a single unit. The second problem illustrates how the infeasible path and Broyden methods can be used to converge flowsheets. The last three problems deal with moderately-sized flowsheets, some with complex models. These allowed comparison of the embedded Broyden strategy (EBOPT) with a number of recent and efficient optimization strategies. Due to the flexibility of the algorithm and features of FLOWTRAN, none of these strategies was difficult to implement.

Problem 1 - Black Box Optimization

The first problem deals with a single unit optimization of a 25 tray distillation column with sidestreams. As illustrated in Figure 6, the distillation column problem, which is solved by a Thiele-Geddes model (FRAKB), seeks to maximize the degree of separation of its 5 components among its overhead, bottoms and sidestreams. The decision variables are the fraction of feed to the two sidestreams and the distillate.

The only constraints are bounds on the decision variables as well as bounds on the fraction of feed to the bottoms stream.

This problem is typical of many simple process optimization problems. Since there are no recycles, SQP deals with this model in "black-box" fashion and solves it completely each time it requires a function evaluation. Alternately, an entire flowsheet could easily have been treated instead of a single unit. The solution of this problem is also given in Figure 6. This problem was solved to a relative Kuhn-Tucker tolerance of 10^{-6} .

Note from Table 1 that the performance of the optimization algorithm is characteristic of the black-box approach. Because the model needs to be solved several times it is not surprising that over 16 Simulation Time Equivalents (STE's measured at the starting point) were required to optimize this three variable problem. Because of the tight tolerance, seven iterations appears to be reasonable for this case.

Problem 2 - Cavett Problem Simulation

To demonstrate the capability of the infeasible path and EBOPT methods for Newton and Broyden convergence, respectively, we selected a modified form of the Cavett problem, reported by Rosen and Pauls [23]. Here the number of stream components was reduced from 16 to 11. Figure 7 illustrates the flowsheet where Z1 and Z2 were chosen as tears and Table 2 lists problem data and the converged solution. This problem was first solved using the Wegstein convergence block in FLOWTRAN with all of the default options. In this case 13 iterations were required to converge the flowsheet to the default relative tolerance of 0.0005. Using the same tolerance, this flowsheet was also converged using the infeasible path (IP) and EBOPT methods in 4 and 6 iterations, respectively. However, comparing STE's for this problem shows that these methods are not competitive with Wegstein. The

EBOPT method requires 26 flowsheet passes to construct a Jacobian matrix at the first iteration, the IP method requires 10 consecutive Jacobian calculations at every iteration.

Because of the effort required for the initial Jacobian, Broyden's method may not always be competitive for solving simulation problems. Embedded within an optimization strategy, however, where the Jacobian is calculated anyway, the Broyden method performs much more efficiently.

For the next three examples we compare the IP and EBOPT strategies with the CFV (Complete Feasible Variant) [7] and IPH (Infeasible Path Hybrid) [18] algorithms. The last two algorithms were implemented by using FLOWTRAN's Wegstein convergence block to (partially) converge the flowsheet between SOP iterations. For IPH, two Wegstein iterations were used between every SOP iteration, as suggested by Kisala [18]. For CFV, the flowsheet was either converged to FLOWTRAN's default tolerance or until 30 Wegstein iterations had been exceeded.

On all problems relative tolerances of 10^{-4} were used for the Kuhn-Tucker error. All problems were recycle flowsheets with complex unit operations and nonideal thermodynamics.

Problem 3 - Ammonia Process A

This problem was adapted from Parker and Hughes [20] and has been used in other studies [9, 18]. The problem statement is given in Figure 8 and in (20). Because of different thermodynamic properties and fewer decision variables, values of the objective function are slightly lower in this study. The starting point and optimal solution for this problem are given in Table 3. As seen from Table 1, the double loop flowsheet with an equilibrium-based reactor is fairly easy to converge and optimize. Here the EBOPT and CFV approaches are close in performance, although EBOPT is slightly superior. Because no intermediate convergence was applied for the IP run, more iterations were required than with EBOPT. Interestingly,

EBOPT, with the heuristic strategy described in Section 3, only needed to use the Broyden strategy after iterations 1 and 3. After successful SOP runs, no intermediate convergence was required for this problem by itself.

Unfortunately for this problem, the IPH algorithm suffered a line search failure after 5 iterations. Restarting at this point resulted in a second line search failure after 3 additional iterations. In his study, Kisala [18] also reported a line search failure for Parker's ammonia problem. The reason for this, as explained in Section 3, may be that, because a fixed number of Wegstein iterations $M=9$ applied for each function evaluation in the line search, a descent direction cannot be guaranteed and this method can be prone to failure.

Problem 4 - Methylchlorobenzene Process

This problem is adapted from an example in the FLOWTRAN manual [24]. Using the default costs and prices in the costing blocks, the optimization problem illustrated in Figure 9 was formulated. Here six decision variables were chosen for the optimization. These are listed along with their initial and optimal values in Table 4.

Because this problem contained a rigorous (and often unreliable) absorber model and the FORTRAN code for FLOWTRAN was not available to us, we were unable to provide error returns to the optimization algorithm and thus continue in the event of unit convergence failures. Obviously, error returns are a necessary feature in the implementation of any flowsheet optimization strategy, and the lack of this capability reflected how we could solve this problem.

From the results in Table 1, one sees that the EBOPT strategy required less effort than either the CFV or the IP strategies. However, to prevent premature termination due to failure in the absorber block, intermediate recycle convergence was suppressed for EBOPT during the first two SQP iterations. The EBOPT algorithm

needed to apply Broyden's method only after iteration 4 in order to gain satisfactory performance.

Also, due to difficulties with the absorber, the IP algorithm could not be converged from the starting point for EBOPT. From a slightly different starting point (shown in Table 4), 12 iterations were required to satisfy a Kuhn-Tucker tolerance slightly above 10^{-6} . Again, because of the unreliable nature of the process units, a better and more consistent comparison could not be made.

The CFV algorithm required over 5 times the computational effort that EBOPT required. This represents the difficulty that SCVW has to converge this flowsheet at intermediate points. In fact, for SOP iterations 1, 2, 5 and 8, CFV required the maximum of 30 iterations without converging the flowsheet at these base points.

Again, as with the previous problem, IPH terminated with a line search failure after 12 iterations. This could be due to the descent direction line search problem explained in Section 3.

Problem 5 - Ammonia Process B

The flowsheet for this problem is given in Figure 10 along with the problem statement. The decision variables and their initial and optimal values are given in Table 5. Unlike problem 3, this ammonia process has a single loop design with 3 flash units. The unit operation and cost blocks for the reactor are taken from Chapters 9 and 10, respectively, of the FLOWTRAN manual. To make the problem more interesting, feed rates were chosen as decision variables and a constraint was imposed on the flow rate of the ammonia product. This type of constraint can be treated in a straightforward manner by all four of the algorithms compared.

Because of problems with error termination in FLOWTRAN, we suppressed the Broyden option for the first iteration in the EBOPT run. Even so, this run, as seen

from Table 1, required only 47% of the effort of the infeasible path algorithm. Only 4 Broyden iterations were applied in the first 4 iterations of the SOP iteration. However, the acceleration after the 3rd, 4th and 5th iterations were not effective (and also did not lead to closer points because they led to using more than 5 Broyden iterations without satisfying the ratio test. This illustrates the difficulty of converging this flowsheet from intermediate points.

Similar, but more pronounced results were encountered with the CFV algorithm. Here the convergence algorithm was unable to converge the flowsheet for the first three SOP iterations. For these points the maximum of 30 Wegstein iterations was exceeded and, consequently, CFV required a lot of computational effort. On the other hand, the IPH algorithm did very well for this problem. Because it uses a fixed number of recycle iterations at intermediate points, the progress of the optimization was better than IP, but none of the convergence problems encountered with CFV, or, to a lesser extent, with EBOPT, were observed here. Also for this problem there were no apparent difficulties with line search failures.

In summary, partial convergence of the flowsheet at intermediate optimization iterations led to better results on all of the recycle optimization problems than with either the IP or CFV algorithms. However, as shown in section 3, care must be taken to implement this strategy properly. Therefore, this study illustrates the potential of the EBOPT strategy for flowsheet optimization, although further work may be required to tune the algorithm for specific problems.

REFERENCES

- (i) Ballmen, S.K. and J.L. Caddy. "Optimization of Methanol Process by Flowsheet Simulation". *I&EC Proc. Des. Dev.*, 16, 3, p. 337. (1977)
- (2) Berna, T.J., M.K. Locke and A.W. Westerberg. "A New Approach to Optimal Design of Chemical Processes". *AIChE J.*, 20, 1, p. 37. (1980)
- (3) Biagler, L.T.. "Improved Infeasible Path Optimization for Sequential Modular Simulators. Part I: The Interface." *Comp. and Chem. Eng.*, 9, 3, p. 245. (1985)
- (4) Biagler, L.T. and J.E. Cuihrall. "Improved Infeasible Path Optimization for Sequential Modular Simulators. Part II: The Optimization Algorithm." *Comp. and Chem. Eng.*, 9, 3, p. 257. (1985)
- (5) Biagler, L.T. and R.R. Hughes. "Infeasible Path Optimization of Sequential Modular Simulators". *AIChE J.*, 28, 6, p. 994. (1982)
- (6) Biagler, L.T. and R.R. Hughes. "Optimization of Propylene Chlorination Process: A Case Study Comparison of Four Algorithms". *Comp. and Chem. Eng.*, 7, 5, p. 645 (1983)
- (7) Biagler, L.T. and R.R. Hughes. "Feasible Path Optimization for Sequential Modular Simulators". *Comp. and Chem. Eng.*, 9, 4, p. 379. (1985)
- [8] Challand, T.B.. "Computerized Optimization of Complete Process Flowsheets". *Chem. Eng. Prog.*, 79, 6, p. 65. (1983)
- [9] Chen, H-S and M.A. Stadtherr. "A Simultaneous Modular Approach to Process Flowsheeting and Optimization". *AIChE J.*, 31, 11, p. 1843. (1985)
- [10] Dennis, J.E. and J.J. Moré. "Quasi-Newton Methods. Motivation and Theory". *SIAM Review*, 19, 1, p. 46 (1977)
- (11) Friedman, P. and K.L. Pomeroy. "Optimization of a Simulation Model of Chemical Plants". *I&EC Proc. Des. Dev.*, 11, 4, p. 512. (1972)
- (12) Gaines, L.O. and J.L. Gaddy. "Process Optimization by Flowsheet Simulation". *I&EC Proc. Des. Dev.*, 15, 1, p. 206 (1976)
- [13] Griffith, R.E. and R.A. Stewart. "A Nonlinear Programming Technique for the Optimization of Continuous Processing Systems". *Mgt. Sci.*, 7, p. 319 (1961)
- [M] Han, S-P. "A Globally Convergent Method for Nonlinear Programming". *J. OpL and Appl.*, 22, 3, p. 297 (1977)
- (15) Isaacson, R.A. Ph.D. Thesis. University of Wisconsin. Madison (1975)
- [16] Jirapongphan, S. Sc.O. Thesis. Massachusetts Institute of Technology. Cambridge, MA (1980)
- (17) Kajaluoto, S. "Process Optimization by Flowsheet Simulation". Technical Research Center of Finland. Publication #20. (1984)
- (18) Kisala, T.P. Sc.O. Thesis. Massachusetts Institute of Technology. Cambridge, MA (1985)
- (19) Meicife, S.R. and J.O. Perkins. "Information Flow in Modular Flowsheeting Systems". *Trans. I. Chem. E.*, 66, p. 210. (1978)
- (20) Parker, A.L. and R.R. Hughes. "Approximation Programming of Chemical Processes". *Comp. and Chem. Eng.*, 5, 3, p. 123. (1981)
- (21) Perkins, J.D.. "Efficient Solution of Design Problems Using a Sequential Modular Flowsheeting Programme". *Comp. and Chem. Eng.*, 3, p. 375 (1979)
- (22) Powell, M.J.D.. "A Fast Algorithm for Nonlinearly Constrained Optimization Calculations". 1977 Dundee Conf. on Num. Analysis. (1977)
- (23) Rosen, E.M. and A.X. Pauls. "Computer Aided Process Design: The FLOWTRAN System". *Comp. and Chem. Eng.*, 1, 1, p. 11 (1977)
- (24) Seader, J.D., W.D. Sider and A.X. Pauls. *FLOWTRAN Simulation - An Introduction*. 2nd edition. CACHE Corp. (1977)

TAHU. 7. Convex Problem

No. Study (Lif	1111<IS 11 c 1'-Uli (LP)	rmirr	11-ii	OV	Solution						
					Value of Solutions	11	12	11	12	11	12
1. Disti 11JUUII											
Objective function	7.33361	—	—	—							
No. of Iterations	7	—	—	—							
CPU Time (second)	111.09	—	—	—							
STE's (6.74 seconds/SH.)	16.48	—	—	—							
					N_2	358.2	391.2	J3.2		37.2	318.2
					H_2S	339.4	508.9	263.6		200	339.4
					CH_4	2995.5	3602.5	646.0		548.3	2995.5
					C_2H_6	2395.5	3499.9	1524.2		1199.0	2395.5
					C_4	604.1	752.2	636.6		523.0	604.1
					S	1129.9	1212.3	1149.3		1082.4	1129.9
					NC_6	1764.7	1812.6	1771.0		1736.6	1764.7
					NC_7	2606.7	2636.3	2607.6		2589.6	2606.7
					NC_8	1844.5	1852.9	1844.0		1839.8	1844.5
					NC_{10}	831.7	832.4	831.6		831.3	831.7
					NC_{11}	1214.5	1215.0	1214.4		1214.2	1214.5
					T	120	118.3	71.55		120	120
					P	49	49	13		49	49
2. Convex problem											
Objective function	—	—	—	—							
No. of Iterations	4	6	—	13							
CPU Time (second)	461.27	145.19	—	36.86							
STE's (36.83 seconds/STE)	12.52	3.94	—	1.00							
3. Ammonia A											
Objective function	-3.67128	-3.67115	-3.966**	-3.67097							
No. of Iterations	11	7	8	6							
CPU Time (second)	1008.79	652.36	976.06	702.41							
STE's (68.27 seconds/STE)	14.78	9.56	14.29	10.29							
Ranges for x_1, x_2		$0.036 \leq x_j \leq 0.55$									
		$0.0018 \leq x_4 \leq 0.0186$									
4. MCB											
Objective function	-0.898925*	-0.897342	-0.91142*†	-0.89525†							
No. of Iterations	12	7	12	10							
CPU Time (second)	212.78	120.08	241.02	642.21							
STE's (19.83 seconds/STE)	10.73	6.06	12.15	32.33							
Ranges for x_1, x_2		$x_1 > 0.268$									
		$x_2 > 0.078$									
5. Ammonia B											
Objective function	-24.9421	-24.9270	-24.9380	-24.9277							
No. of Iterations	26	11	7	8							
CPU Time (second)	3604.56	1672.57	922.624	2480.77							
STE's (215.90 seconds/STE)	16.70	7.75	4.27	11.49							
Ranges for x_1, x_2		$x_1 < 0.443$									
		$0.0074 \leq x_2 \leq 0.0126$									

** «iraCeJat in[.asible point due to line search in1U,rc
 *** «iraCeJat in[.asible point due to line search in1U,rc

<u>Item</u>	<u>Optimum</u>	<u>Starting Pt.</u>
A. Objective Function	-3.67128	-3.23W
It Design Variables		
1. Inlet Temp of Kcactor	147.226	180
2. press of Kcactor	2980	3000
3. Inlet Tee? of High Pressure Flssh	-24.0	-24
4. Purge Frsctlon	0.0802432	0.10
3. Conversion of Nitrogen (X)	45.0	41.0
C. Tear Variables		
I. Flowrate		
N ₂	2193.02	2170.
N ₂	568.426	612.0
NH ₃	30.1334	16.3
Ar	85.7868	70.5
CH ₄	104.604	125.0
2. Temperature	289.883	215.0
3. Pressure	2950.0	3000.0

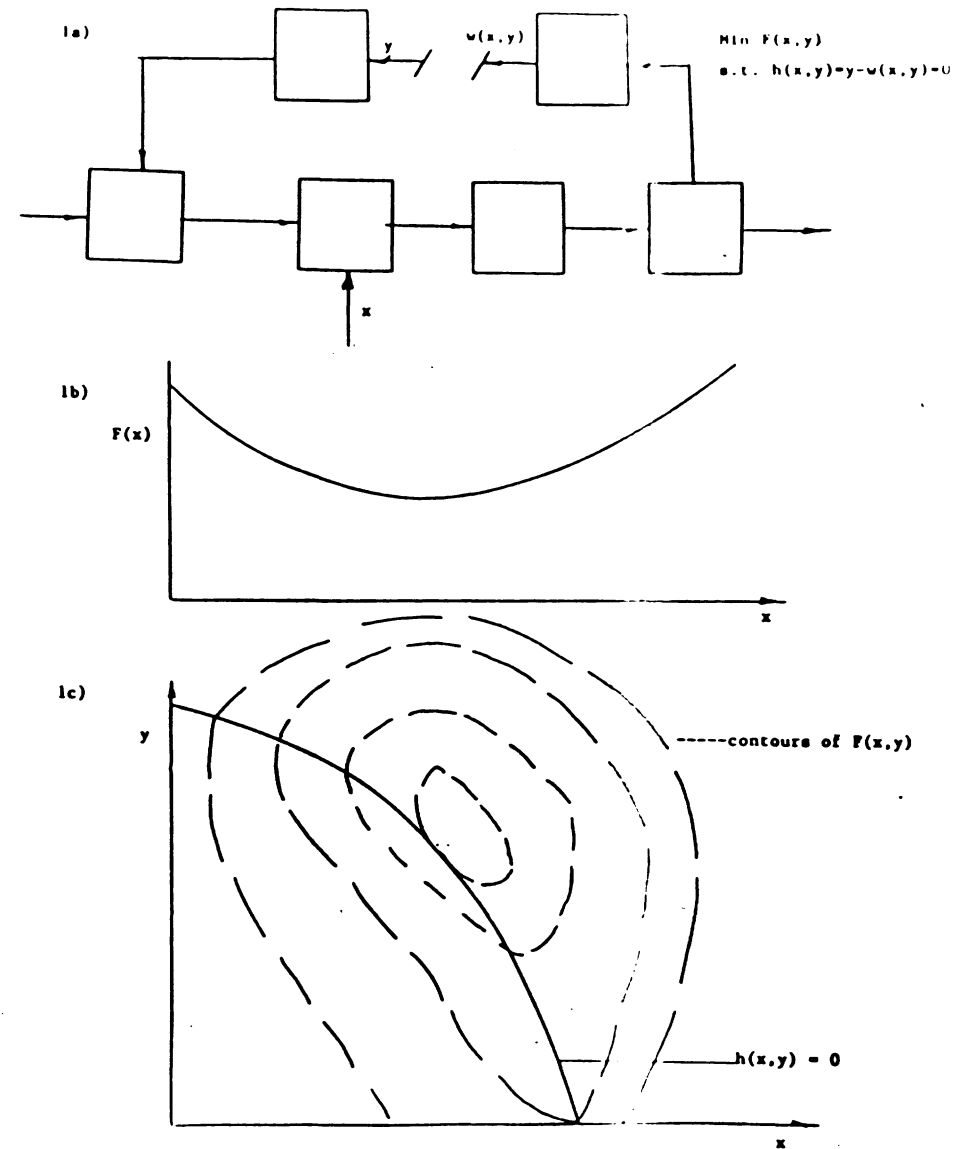
<u>Item</u>	<u>Optimum</u>	<u>Starting Pt</u>	<u>Initial</u>
A. Objective Function	-0.898925	0.W06/	-0 MO) ¹)
B. Design Variables			
1. lottos press, of Absorber (psls)	32.0401	32.0	32.0
2. Top press, of Absorber (psls)	31.0401	31.0	31.0
3. Spile Fraction of tecycle	0.377398	0.33	0.33
4. Split Frsctlon of Withdrawal	0.622602	0.67	0.67
5. Inlst T««p. of Flash	227.422	270.0	270.0
6. Outlet Tee?, of Hest Exchanger	100.0	120.0	120
C. Tear Variables			
Flowratcs:			
1. HCl	0.0	0.0	0.0
2. Benzene	0.623078	0.0	0.0
3. MCI	82.1304	80.0	90.0
Temperature	100.00	120.0	100.00
Pressure	50.0	50.0	50.0

TABLE 5. Result of Ammonia B Problem

No.	Item	Optimum	Starting Pt.
A.	Objective Function	-24.9421	-20.659
B.	Design Variables		
1.	Inlet Temp. of Reactor	400.0	400.0
2.	Inlet Temp. of 1st Flash	65.0	65.0
3.	Inlet Temp. of 2nd Flash	35.0	35.0
4.	Inlet Temp. of Recycle Compressor	75.3139	107.0
5.	Purge Fraction (Z)	0.814030	1.0
6.	Inlet Press. of Reactor	1984.69	2000
7.	Flowrate of Feed 1	2626.66	2632
8.	Flowrate of Feed 2	688.206	1648
C.	Tear Variables		
1.	Flowrate		
	N_2	1303.88	1648.0
	H_2	3921.21	3676.0
	NH_3	551.760	424.9
	Ar	183.708	143.7
	CH_4	2095.34	1657
2.	Temperature	75.3139	60
3.	Pressure	1901.49	1930

Figure 1

Simple Flowheet Optimization



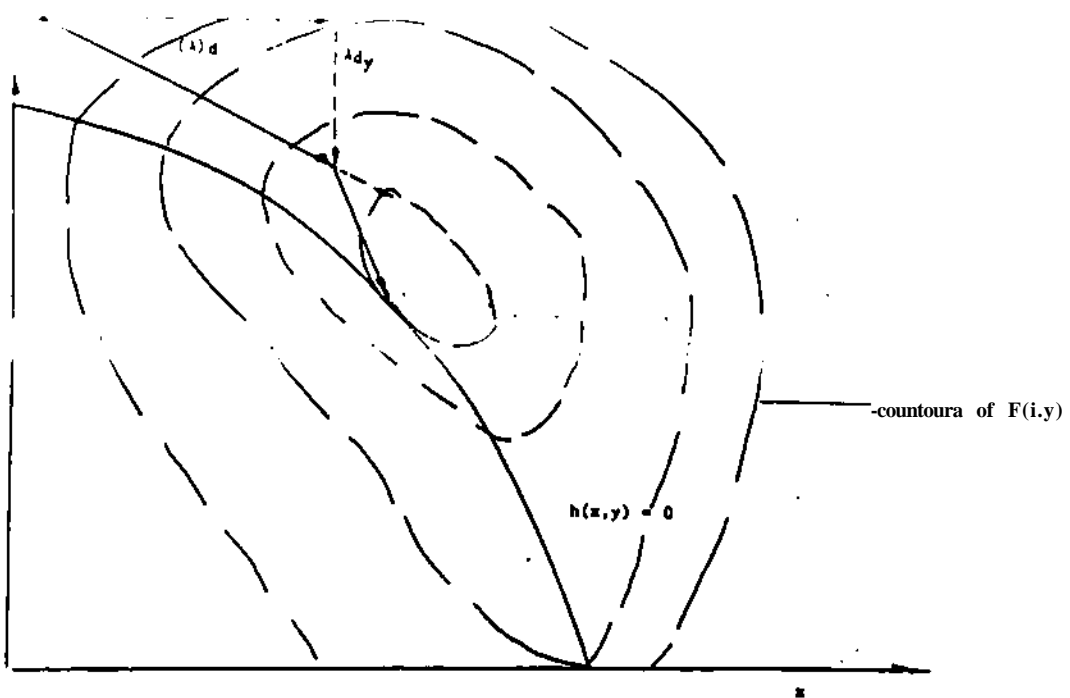


Figure 3a

Infinitesimal PathOP) Optimisation Strategy

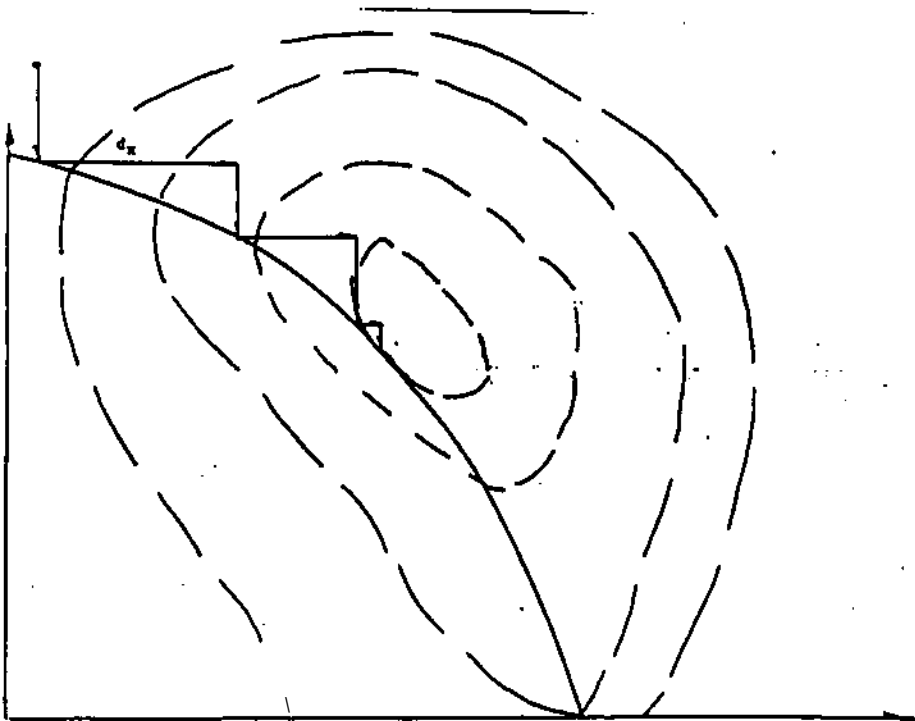


Figure 2

Black Box Optimisation Strategy

Figure 3b
Feasible Variance Optimization Strategy

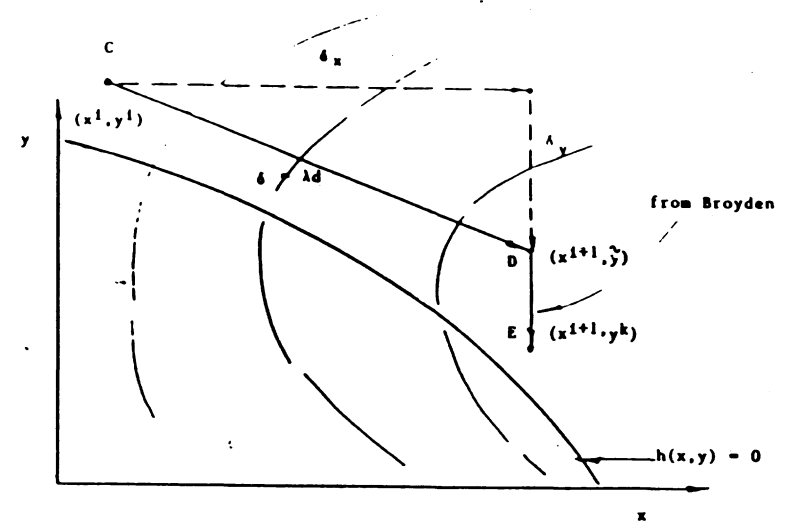
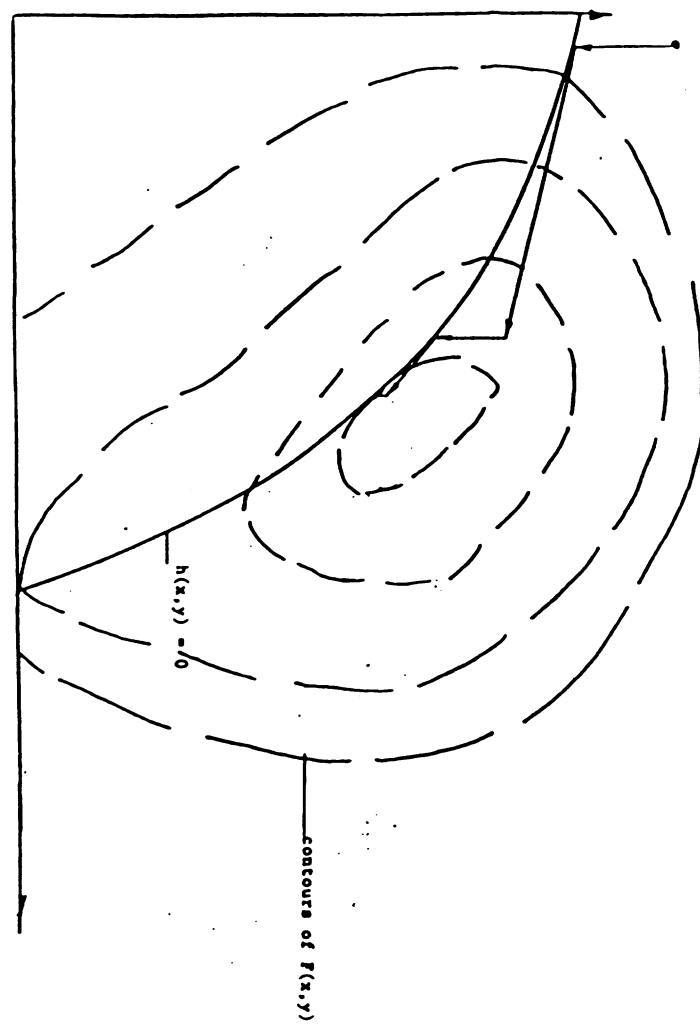


Figure 4
Partially Converged Strategy
for EBOPT

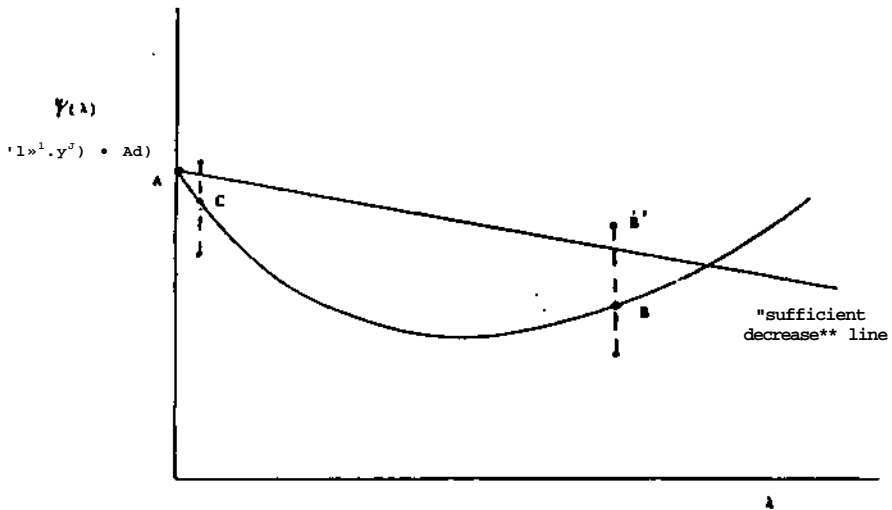
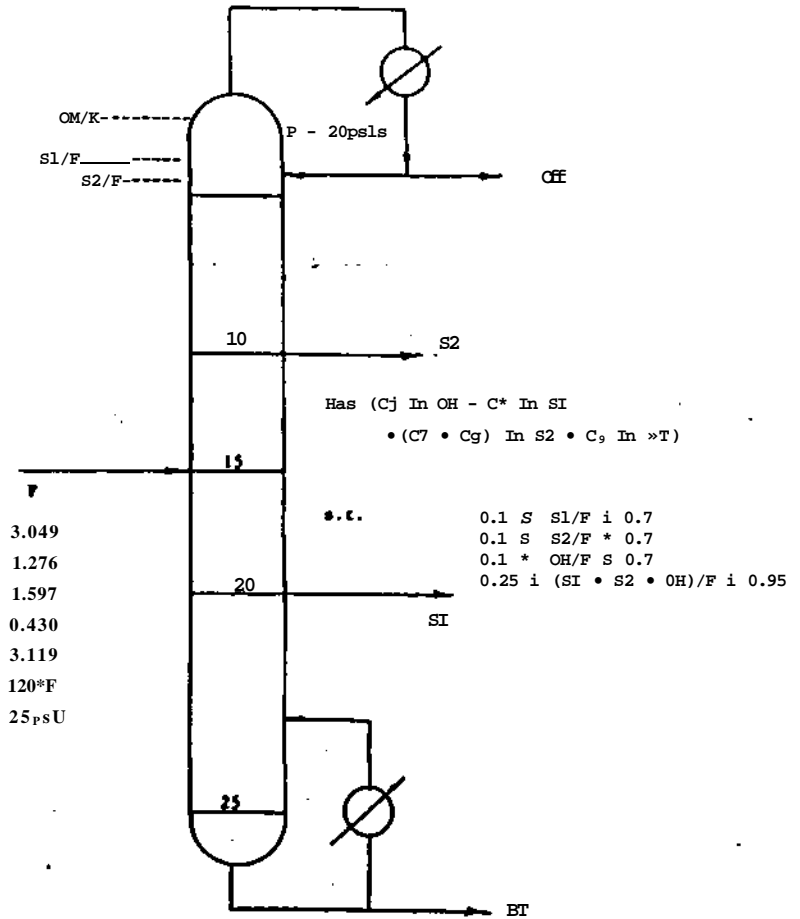


Figure 5
Source of Line Search Failures
with Partial Convergence



$C_5 - 3.049$
 $C_6 - 1.276$
 $C_7 - 1.597$
 $C_8 - 0.430$
 $C_9 - 3.119$
 $T - 120^{\circ}\text{F}$
 $P - 25\text{psU}$

Figure 6

Distillation CelusB Opclmlsacloo

Initial

Obj. Fen - 6. M2
 $S1/f - 0.2$
 $S2/F - 0.2$
 $OH/F - 0.3$

Optimum

Obj. Fen - 7.554
 $S1/f - 0.1$
 $S2/F - 0.2499$
 $OM/F - 0.3353$

Figure 10
Ammonia Proctst ft

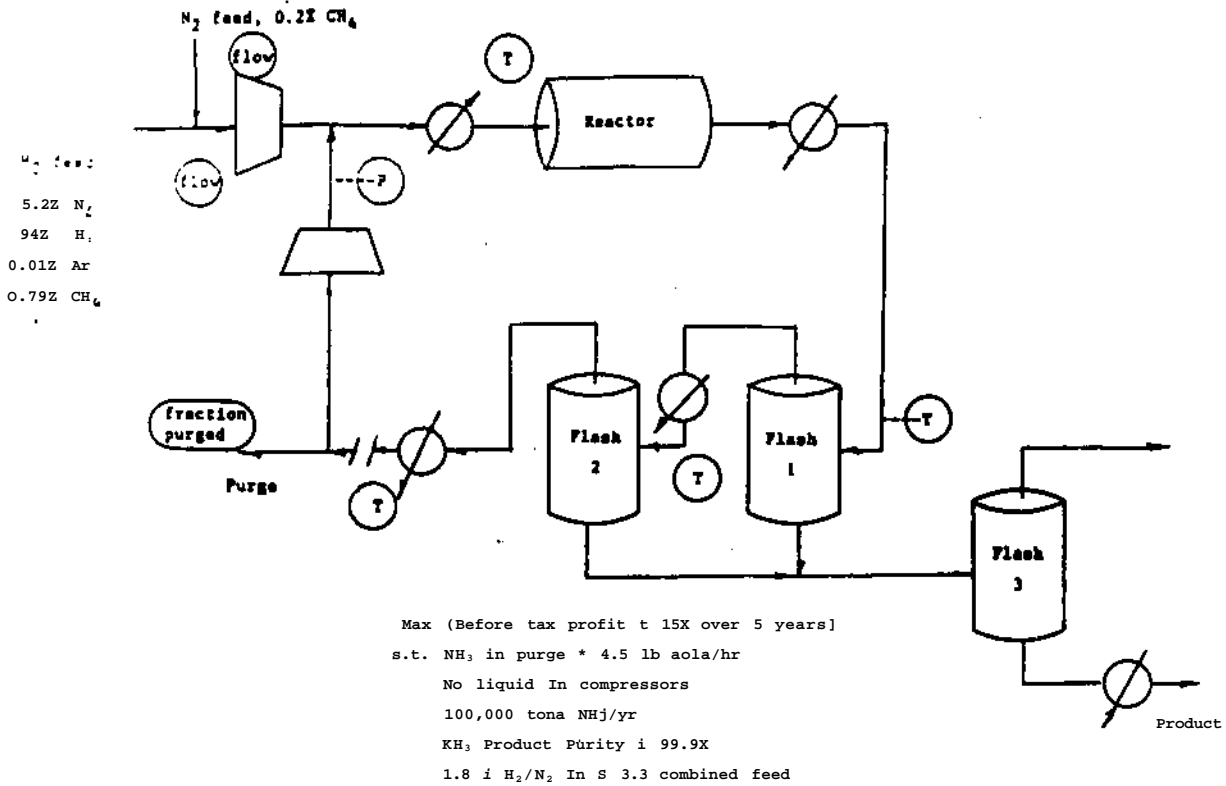


Figure 9
Ammonia Proctst ft

