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How green is a lean supply chain?

By

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1. Introduction

Governments and industries are seeking ways to decouple economic development and growth from commensurate environmental burden. This 'green growth' philosophy was a central discussion at the recent United Nations Conference on Sustainable Development, also called Rio+20. Decoupling economic growth and environmental degradation is not an easy goal to achieve. Yet at the national level, examples to grow without corresponding increases in environmental pressure do exist [\(Dittrich et al.,](#page-40-0) [2012;](#page-40-0) [Vazquez-Brust and Sarkis, 2012\)](#page-42-0). At the organizational level, efforts that have utilized ecoefficiency, ecological modernization and 'win-win' principles support the feasibility of achieving these goals [\(Sarkis and Cordeiro, 2012\)](#page-42-1).

Investigations on the phenomena of jointly improving organizational environmental and economic performance have tended to focus on empirical studies to show that green growth results are realistic and achievable [\(Molina-Azorín et al., 2009;](#page-41-0) [Zhu and Sarkis, 2004\)](#page-43-0). However, such results do not inevitably occur without design, planning, and support. Research and development are required to help achieve these results and eventually contribute to decoupling economic and environmental growth [\(Fahimnia et al.,](#page-40-1) [2014\)](#page-40-1).

Green or environmentally sustainable supply chain management (SCM) has been viewed as one area where organizations and industry can make significant contribution to both economic and environmental development [\(Varsei et al., 2014\)](#page-42-2). Descriptive research utilizing empirical and case study research on forward sustainable supply chains (SCs) has seen substantial development over the past couple of decades. Normative, prescriptive, and quantitative modeling efforts on the forward SC have received significantly less attention [\(Seuring, 2013;](#page-42-3) [Seuring and Müller, 2008;](#page-42-4) [Srivastava, 2007\)](#page-42-5), although reverse logistics planning has received considerable investigation [\(Fahimnia et al., 2013d\)](#page-40-2). The call for development and utilization of economic and optimization approaches to further socially supportive research such as sustainable SC research has continued [\(Sarkis, 2012b;](#page-42-6) [Seuring, 2013\)](#page-42-3). We seek to contribute to this call for additional analytical and modeling normative research with our current study.

The specific focus of this study is on ecologically and economically balancing and optimizing material manufacture and movement across a multi-tiered SC. Our modeling effort is based on a real world situation that has actually encountered issues raised in this investigation. The complexity of the modeling effort limits how effectively these models can be solved. Efficient solution techniques are needed for solving complex green SC modeling efforts [\(Grossmann and Guillén-Gosálbez, 2010\)](#page-40-3). To address this complexity, we introduce a solution method, named Nested Integrated Cross-Entropy (NICE), that is able to find quality and relatively rapid solutions to the complex mixed-integer nonlinear model encountered in this study. The proposed model and the NICE solution procedure allows for investigating the locus of decision parameters that can prove useful to management seeking to balance the economic and environmental dimensions. One specific case situation, investigated in this paper, is studying various scenarios adjusting the SC 'leanness'.

We make several contributions to this important and growing field of green SCM. First, we introduce a multidimensional optimization model for tactical SCM that is applicable to real world situations. We then utilize a novel solution approach to provide quality solutions to this complex nonlinear problem within a relatively short model runtime. Our third major contribution involves the execution of this model to provide practical insights into the decision environment facing managers, focusing on critical issues related to the lean-and-green debate. These insights set the stage for additional investigation and model development in future research.

The remainder of the paper is composed of the followings sections. In Section 2 a background review of literature in this area and previous models which we use as a foundation is presented. Section 3 presents the mathematical model. Section 4 overviews the Nested Integrated Cross Entropy (NICE) solution method. Section 5 provides an execution of the model using real case data with results and initial analysis.

Section 6 provides a discussion of the results with a focus on the issue of SC leanness-versus-greenness. Section 7 is the concluding section which includes a summary of the study and results, research and managerial implications, model and study limitations, and guidance for future research.

2. Foundational Literature Background

Green SCM has been defined as the explicit consideration of ecological dimensions in the planning, operations, and management of SCs [\(Zhu and Sarkis, 2004\)](#page-43-0). Organizations are under varied and increasing pressures from a broad spectrum of stakeholders to manage their SC functions in more environmentally efficient and effective ways [\(Darnall et al., 2008;](#page-40-4) [Fahimnia et al., 2009;](#page-40-5) [Testa and Iraldo,](#page-42-7) [2010;](#page-42-7) [Zhu and Sarkis, 2007\)](#page-43-1). When adding the environmental and social concerns into modeling and management research effort, design, planning and management problems become geometrically more complex [\(Nikolopoulou and Ierapetritou, 2012\)](#page-41-1). The research and modeling for SCM optimization in general is a relatively non-trivial exercise [\(Fahimnia et al., 2013a\)](#page-40-6) and it becomes even more complex for greening of SCs. Organizations and researcher guidance is paramount to helping make practical and theoretical progress in this field.

One important factor in improving the tractability of the modeling for greening the SC is an explicit definition of the boundaries and flows of the problem [\(Sarkis, 2012a\)](#page-42-8). In this paper, we clearly define an important boundary to include forward SC participants including manufacturers, warehouses, and endusers. The flows in the model include materials, energy, and waste flows. Models for evaluating and optimizing environmental and economic performance of organizational operational activities can range from machines in a production center [\(Sloan, 2011\)](#page-42-9), to a large global closed loop SCM system [\(Hugo and](#page-41-2) [Pistikopoulos, 2005\)](#page-41-2). But, even the most comprehensive surveys show that the relative investigation of green SC topics with analytical modeling and optimization is secondary to qualitative and empirical studies [\(Seuring, 2013;](#page-42-3) [Seuring and Müller, 2008\)](#page-42-4). Although some emergent analytical modeling research for green SCM does exist, a vast majority of literature focuses on cost minimization objective and relatively fewer articles incorporate multiple objectives and explicitly integrate economic and environmental goals [\(Brandenburg et al., 2014;](#page-39-0) [Melo et al., 2009\)](#page-41-3).

Our modeling effort in this paper fits within the tradeoff mode of modeling literature. The literature that seeks to jointly model environmental and financial/business objectives is not extensive. Recent reviews have been completed by [Brandenburg et al. \(2014\)](#page-39-0), [Benjaafar et al. \(2013\)](#page-39-0), [Tang and Zhou \(2012\)](#page-42-10), and [Dekker et al. \(2012\)](#page-40-7). Most of this literature focuses on cost minimization as a financial objective. Profit maximization is the only other financial objective which requires consideration of sales revenue and pricing. Managing greenhouse gas emissions has been the most common environmental objective. This is not surprising given the greater global focus on carbon emissions as the primary contributor to climate change. Some of the bi-objective models focusing on cost and carbon emission minimizations have been presented b[y Ferretti et al. \(2007\)](#page-40-8), [Nagurney and Nagurney \(2010\)](#page-41-4), [Pinto-Varela et al. \(2011\)](#page-41-5), [Abdallah et](#page-39-1) [al. \(2011\)](#page-39-1), [Wang et al. \(2011a\)](#page-42-11), [Elhedhli and Merrick \(2012\)](#page-40-9), [Chaabane et al. \(2012\)](#page-39-2), [Pishvaee et al.](#page-41-6) [\(2012\)](#page-41-6), [Fahimnia et al. \(2013c\)](#page-40-10), and [\(Fahimnia et al., 2013d\)](#page-40-2). But, not all emissions studies are only on carbon. For example, [Nagurney and Nagurney \(2010\)](#page-41-4) use general emissions in a strategic network design problem, where a variety of emissions, even solid wastes, are used to design a green SC network. A couple of other studies, such as [Pinto-Varela et al. \(2011\)](#page-41-5) and [Yeh and Chuang \(2011\)](#page-42-12), utilize a set of green scoring or ecological indicators that are broader in perspective than carbon emission alone.

The preponderance of this literature uses numerical experiments or simulated data to validate the developed models (see for example [Ferretti et al. \(2007\)](#page-40-8), [Nagurney and Nagurney \(2010\)](#page-41-4), [Pinto-Varela et](#page-41-5) [al. \(2011\)](#page-41-5), [Abdallah et al. \(2011\)](#page-39-1), [Wang et al. \(2011a\)](#page-42-11), and [Elhedhli and Merrick \(2012\)](#page-40-9)). Only some of the more recent studies have incorporated real data from organizations and industry [\(Fahimnia et al.,](#page-40-10) [2013c;](#page-40-10) [Fahimnia et al., 2013d;](#page-40-2) [Mallidis et al., 2012;](#page-41-7) [Pishvaee et al., 2012\)](#page-41-6). There are also case or sector specific models such as [Ferretti et al. \(2007\)](#page-40-8) who present SC cost and environmental expressions for molten aluminum substitution into the SC. Even though specific to a particular industry case, the expressions can help set the foundation for other industries.

Apart from these initial classifications, the published works can also be discussed based upon the level of planning and analysis. The tradeoff between cost and emission performance has been a major focus in strategic SC decision making. Such modeling efforts may include green infrastructure modeling [\(Harris et](#page-41-8) [al., 2011\)](#page-41-8), green SC network design, particularly in closed-loop situations [\(Chaabane et al., 2012;](#page-39-2) [Elhedhli and Merrick, 2012;](#page-40-9) [Frota Neto et al., 2008;](#page-40-11) [Wang et al., 2011b\)](#page-42-13) as well as studies with a narrower focus on specific SC operations such as green supplier selection [\(Bai and Sarkis, 2010;](#page-39-3) [Lee et](#page-41-9) [al., 2009;](#page-41-9) [Yeh and Chuang, 2011\)](#page-42-12) and transport mode selection [\(Hoen et al., 2014\)](#page-41-10). These models only capture a broad, strategic dimension and thus the levels of analysis present very aggregate solutions. Integrating tactical and operational product level considerations in these modeling efforts is relatively immature (see for example [Fahimnia et al. \(2014\)](#page-40-1), [Fahimnia et al. \(2013d\)](#page-40-2), and [Pan et al. \(2013\)](#page-41-11)).

We also realize that multi-objective SCM modeling efforts result in major complexity and that a model, to be accepted by industrial practitioners and researchers, needs to arrive at quality solutions in a relatively tolerable length of time. The opportunity to investigate various scenarios and parameters requires improved solution procedures. The use of linear solvers such as CPLEX has made this possible where small and medium size problems can be presented in a linear form [\(Dhaenens-Flipo and Finke, 2001;](#page-40-12) [Fahimnia et al., 2013a;](#page-40-6) [Ferrio and Wassick, 2008;](#page-40-13) [Gunnarsson et al., 2007\)](#page-41-12). Alternatively, various heuristics methods have been proposed for tackling large and nonlinear models that are difficult or impossible to solve optimally using the standard solvers [\(Esmaeilikia et al., 2014a;](#page-40-14) [Fahimnia et al.,](#page-40-15) [2013b;](#page-40-15) [Jayaraman and Ross, 2003;](#page-41-13) [Naso et al., 2007;](#page-41-14) [Yang et al., 2007\)](#page-42-14). The design of such heuristics is generally problem specific and a generic heuristic method may not fit the purpose for solving all ranges of combinational optimization problems [\(Esmaeilikia et al., 2014b\)](#page-40-16).

As evidenced by the many issues and potential dimensions of green SC research, this study aims to address, in some form, the various gaps and limitations in the current literature. We clearly bound our decision environment to focus analysis on a critical aspect of the SC which includes the production, storage, and delivery of products, the three core elements in almost all SCs. Our explicit focus is on the forward SC, which has received less modeling investigation than reverse logistics aspects of environmentally oriented modeling [\(Seuring and Müller, 2008\)](#page-42-4). We also focus on tactical SC planning which has received less modeling attention compared to strategic design of networks. In addition, we provide a more comprehensive evaluation of environmental factors (by considering carbon emissions, energy and wastes as model objectives) and jointly balance these efforts against economic concerns. Balancing these dimensions can help organizations decide how far they should take each based on organizational, community, and competitive pressures and requirements, a very important step towards decoupling economic growth and environmental degradation at the SC level. Finally, we take advantage of the binary and nonlinear structure of our mathematical model and introduce a modified Cross-Entropy (CE) method to solve the encountered model in this research. To the best of our knowledge, this is one of the early attempts in applying CE in solving optimization problems in the context of SCM, and especially in green SCM literature.

3. Model Development

The schematic view of the proposed SC under investigation is shown in Figure 1. Multiple product types (*i*) are produced in different manufacturing plants (*m*) by travelling through a set of machine centers (*g*). Older and more outdated machinery makes a plant cheaper to run, but is less energy/carbon efficient and generates more production waste. Finished products are then distributed to end-users in dispersed geographical locations (*e*) through a set of established warehouse (*w*). Different truck sizes can be used in transport including small, medium, and heavy trucks. Smaller trucks are leaner (smaller lot size deliveries) requiring less storage space in warehouses, but may be economically and environmentally inefficient to use. The choice of small, medium or large warehouses determines the available storage space at each location.

Fig. 1. The boundaries of the SC under investigation

The objective is to determine the tactical planning decisions, including production and distribution allocation strategies for the next planning horizon *T* (comprising *t* time periods) in a way to minimize the overall SC cost while reducing the negative environmental impacts (i.e. carbon emissions, energy consumption, production and storage waste generation). A multi-objective optimization model is developed in which the first objective concerns the economic dimensions of SC and the next three objectives focus on the associated environmental aspects.

The following key assumptions are considered for the purpose of mathematical modeling:

- Variety of product types (*i*) to be produced is known.
- Number, location, and capacity of plants (*m*) and warehouses (*w*) are known.
- Number and location of end-users (*e*) are known.
- Demand is deterministic and the aggregate demand for all product types in the concerned periods is assumed to be known for the next planning horizon.
- The forecasted demand for each product has to be satisfied, sooner or later, during the planning horizon. A penalty cost is incurred if the demand for a certain product at one period is backordered. The backlog/backordered demand must be satisfied in the subsequent periods before the end of the planning horizon.
- Capacity limitations for regular time and overtime production (capacity hours of machine centers), capacity of raw material supply, limitations in storage capacity at manufacturers and warehouses as well as distribution capacities are known.
- The required workforce is hired on casual/temporary bases. The hourly-paid wages are higher in the first period after plants opening due to the training costs and hiring/admin fees. The rates will remain unchanged for the succeeding periods from the second period.
- Transportation costs and emission rates are available for small, medium and heavy trucks.
- End-users are the locations where products are delivered to the final customers with no space to store the products.
- Carbon emission, energy consumption and waste generation rates are available for processing products on each machine center. These costs are generally functions of the machine's useful life, processing time and manufacturing technology used.
- Carbon emission, energy consumption and waste generation rates are available for storing products in plants and warehouses.

3.1 Parameters and decision variables

Indices used in this model include *i* for product type, *m* for manufacturing plant, *g* for machine center, *w* for warehouse, *e* for end-user and *t* for time period. The input parameters are given in Appendix A. The continuous and binary decision variables include the followings:

Decision variables:

Binary Decision variables:

 $G_{mt} = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{If } m \text{ operates in } t \\ 0, & \text{Otherwise} \end{cases}$ 0, Otherwise $G'_{wt} = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{If } w \text{ is open in } t \\ 0 & \text{Otherwise} \end{cases}$ 0, Otherwise

We also use the following auxiliary binary variables to assist in formulating variations in warehouse sizes and truck types.

3.2 Formulation of objective functions

Using parameters and decision variables defined in Section 3.1, the four objective functions can be formulated as a mixed-integer nonlinear programming (MINLP) model. *Objective function 1* (Equation 1) is the cost function that expresses the manufacturing, transport, inventory holding and backlog costs. The nonlinear components appear in terms 3 and 4 of Equation 1.

$$
Z_{l} = \sum_{m} \sum_{t} o_{mt} G_{mt} + \sum_{w} \sum_{t} o'_{wt} c_{wt}^{oc} G'_{wt} +
$$

\n
$$
\sum_{i} \sum_{m} \sum_{t} [(\sum_{g} p_{igmt} \{l_{igmt} G_{m(t-1)} + l_{igmt}^{1st}(1 - G_{m(t-1)})\} + r_{imt} + \alpha_{imt})Q_{imt}] +
$$

\n
$$
\sum_{i} \sum_{m} \sum_{t} [(\sum_{g} p_{igmt} \{l'_{igmt} G_{m(t-1)} + l'_{igmt}^{1st}(1 - G_{m(t-1)})\} + r_{imt} + \beta_{imt})Q'_{imt}] +
$$

\n
$$
\sum_{i} \sum_{m} \sum_{t} h_{imt} X_{imt} + \sum_{i} \sum_{w} \sum_{t} h'_{iwt} c_{iwt}^{hc} Y_{iwt} +
$$

\n
$$
\sum_{i} \sum_{j k \in \{mw, we, me\}} \sum_{t} \tau_{ijkt} c_{ijkt}^{tc} F_{ijkt} + \sum_{i} \sum_{e} \sum_{t} s c_{iet} S_{iet}
$$
 (1)

Where:

$$
c_{wt}^{oc} = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{If } w \text{ is set to a small size} \\ cm_{wt}^{oc}, & \text{If } w \text{ is set to a medium size} \\ c l_{wt}^{loc}, & \text{If } w \text{ is set to a large size} \end{cases}
$$
(2)

$$
c_{iwt}^{hc} = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } w \text{ is set to a small size} \\ cm_{iwt}^h, & \text{if } w \text{ is set to a medium size} \\ c l_{iwt}^{hc}, & \text{if } w \text{ is set to a large size} \end{cases} \tag{3}
$$
\n
$$
c_{i jkt}^{tc} = \begin{cases} 1, & F_{i jkt} \leq stc_i \\ cm_{i jkt}^t, & stc_i < F_{i jkt} \leq mtc_i \\ ch_{i jkt}^{tc}, & mtc_i < F_{i jkt} \leq htc_i \end{cases} \quad jk \in \{mw, we, me\} \tag{4}
$$

Using the axillary variables, the step functions in Equations 2-4 can be mathematically formulated as:

$$
c_{wt}^{oc} = G_{wt}^{s} + cm_{wt}^{oc} G_{wt}^{m} + cl_{wt}^{oc} (1 - G_{wt}^{s} - G_{wt}^{m}) \t G_{wt}^{s} + G_{wt}^{m} \le 1 \t (5)
$$

\n
$$
c_{iwt}^{hc} = G_{wt}^{s} + cm_{iwt}^{hc} G_{wt}^{m} + cl_{iwt}^{hc} (1 - G_{wt}^{s} - G_{wt}^{m})
$$

\n
$$
c_{ijkt}^{tc} = G_{ijkt}^{ts} + cm_{ijkt}^{tc} G_{ijkt}^{tm} + ch_{ijkt}^{tc} (1 - G_{ijkt}^{ts} - G_{ijkt}^{tm}) \t jk \in \{mw, we, me\} \t and \t G_{ijkt}^{ts} + G_{ijkt}^{tm} \le 1 \t (7)
$$

Objective function 2 (emission function in Equation 8) formulates the generated carbon pollution in manufacturing, transport and inventory holding.

$$
Z_2 = \sum_i \sum_g \sum_m \sum_t p_{igmt} a_{igmt} \left(Q_{imt} + Q'_{imt} \right) + \sum_i \sum_m \sum_t a_{imt}^m X_{imt} + \sum_i \sum_w \sum_t a_{iwt}^w c_{iwt}^a Y_{iwt} + \sum_i \sum_{j k \in \{mw, we, me\}} \sum_t a_{ijkt}^{ce} c_{ijkt}^c F_{ijkt}
$$
\n(8)

Where:

$$
c_{iwt}^{a} = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } w \text{ is set to a small size} \\ cm_{iwt}^{a}, & \text{if } w \text{ is set to a medium size} \\ ct_{iwt}^{a}, & \text{if } w \text{ is set to a large size} \end{cases}
$$
(9)

$$
c_{i\hat{j}kt}^{ce} = \begin{cases} 1, & F_{imwt} \leq stc_i \\ cm_{i\hat{j}kt}^{ce}, & stc_i < F_{i\hat{j}kt} \leq mtc_i \\ ch_{i\hat{j}kt}^{ce}, & mtc_i < F_{i\hat{j}kt} \leq htc_i \end{cases}
$$
(10)

The mathematical formulation of the step functions 9 and 10 can be given as:

$$
c_{iwt}^{a} = G_{wt}^{s} + cm_{iwt}^{a} G_{wt}^{m} + cl_{iwt}^{a} (1 - G_{wt}^{s} - G_{wt}^{m})
$$

\n
$$
c_{i\ jkt}^{ce} = G_{i\ jkt}^{ts} + cm_{i\ jkt}^{ce} G_{i\ jkt}^{tm} + ch_{i\ jkt}^{ce} (1 - G_{i\ jkt}^{ts} - G_{i\ jkt}^{tm})
$$

\n
$$
jk \in \{mw, we, me\}
$$
 (12)

Objective function 3, energy function, is presented in Equation 13 which formulates the consumed energy

in manufacturing and inventory holding in plants and warehouses.

$$
Z_{3} = \sum_{i} \sum_{g} \sum_{m} \sum_{t} p_{igmt} b_{igmt} \left(Q_{imt} + Q'_{imt} \right) + \sum_{i} \sum_{m} \sum_{t} b^{m}_{imt} X_{imt} + \sum_{i} \sum_{m} \sum_{t} b^{w}_{iwt} c^{b}_{iwt} Y_{iwt}
$$
\n(13)

Where:

$$
c_{iwt}^{b} = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{If } w \text{ is set to a small size} \\ cm_{iwt}^{b}, & \text{If } w \text{ is set to a medium size} \\ c l_{iwt}^{b}, & \text{If } w \text{ is set to a large size} \end{cases}
$$
(14)

The mathematical formulation of Equation 14 is presented in Equation 15.

$$
c_{iwt}^b = G_{wt}^s + cm_{iwt}^b \, G_{wt}^m + \, cl_{iwt}^b \, (1 - G_{wt}^s - G_{wt}^m) \tag{15}
$$

Objective function 4 (waste function) is presented in Equation 16 formulating the generated wastes in manufacturing and inventory holding in plants and warehouses.

$$
Z_4 = \sum_i \sum_g \sum_m \sum_t u_{igmt} \big(Q_{imt} + Q'_{imt}\big) + \sum_i \sum_m \sum_t u_{imt}^m X_{imt} + \sum_i \sum_w \sum_t u_{iwt}^w c_{iwt}^u Y_{iwt} \tag{16}
$$

Where:

$$
c_{iwt}^{u} = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{If } w \text{ is set to a small size} \\ cm_{iwt}^{u}, & \text{If } w \text{ is set to a medium size} \\ c l_{iwt}^{u}, & \text{If } w \text{ is set to a large size} \end{cases}
$$
(17)

The step function in Equation 17 can be mathematically presented as:

$$
c_{iwt}^u = G_{wt}^s + cm_{iwt}^u G_{wt}^m + c l_{iwt}^u (1 - G_{wt}^s - G_{wt}^m)
$$
\n(18)

The goal of the proposed optimization model is to minimize the value of Z in Equation 19.

$$
Z = \rho_1 Z_1 + \rho_2 Z_2 + \rho_3 Z_3 + \rho_4 Z_4 \tag{19}
$$

3.3 Model constraints

The proposed model is subject to the following constraints:

1. Capacity constraints:

• Restrictions on raw material supply:

$$
Q_{imt} + Q'_{imt} \le \gamma_{imt} \qquad \forall i, m, t \qquad (20)
$$

• Production capacity constraint (machine center capacity limitation) for regular-time and overtime production:

$$
p_{igmt} Q_{imt} \leq \lambda_{igmt} \qquad \& \quad p_{igmt} Q'_{imt} \leq \lambda'_{igmt} \qquad \qquad \forall i, g, m, t \qquad (21)
$$

• Stack buffer capacity restriction in manufacturing plants:

$$
X_{imt} \le hc_{imt}^m \qquad \qquad \forall i, m, t \tag{22}
$$

• Warehouse capacity restriction:

$$
Y_{iwt} \le hc_{iwt}^{ws} G_{wt}^s + hc_{iwt}^{wm} G_{wt}^m + hc_{iwt}^{wl}(1 - G_{wt}^s - G_{wt}^m) \qquad \forall i, w, t \tag{23}
$$

• Maximum allowed shortage at end-users:

$$
S_{\text{iet}} \leq S_{\text{iet}}^{\text{max}} \qquad \qquad \forall \ i, e, t \tag{24}
$$

2. Balance constraints:

• Inventory balance at plants:

$$
X_{imt} - X_{im(t-1)} = Q_{imt} + Q'_{imt} - \sum_{k \in \{w,e\}} F_{imkt} \qquad \forall i, m, t \qquad (25)
$$

• Inventory balance at warehouses:

$$
Y_{iwt} - Y_{iw(t-1)} = \sum_m F_{imwt} - \sum_e F_{iwet} \qquad \forall i, w, t
$$
 (26)

• Inventory balance at end-users:

$$
\sum_{j \in \{m, w\}} F_{ijet} = d_{iet} - S_{iet} + S_{ie(t-1)} \qquad \forall i, e, t \tag{27}
$$

• Demand satisfaction constraint:

$$
\sum_{m} \sum_{t} (Q_{imt} + Q'_{imt}) = \sum_{e} \sum_{t} d_{iet} + \sum_{m} \eta'_{im} - \sum_{m} \eta_{im} + \sum_{w} \varphi'_{iw} - \sum_{w} \varphi_{iw} \quad \forall i \quad (28)
$$

- *3. Emissions, energy and waste constraints:*
	- Emissions generation constraint in manufacturing plants:

$$
\sum_{i} \sum_{g} p_{igmt} a_{igmt} \left(Q_{imt} + Q'_{imt} \right) + \sum_{i} a_{imt}^{m} X_{imt} \leq a_{mt}^{maxm} \qquad \forall m, t \qquad (29)
$$

• Emissions generation constraint in transport:

$$
\sum_{i} \sum_{j} \sum_{k \in \{mw, we, me\}} c_{ijkt}^{ce} a_{ijkt}^{ce} F_{ijkt} \le a_t^{maxa} \qquad \forall t
$$
\n(30)

• Emissions generation constraint in warehouses:

$$
\sum_{i} a_{iwt}^{w} c_{iwt}^{a} Y_{iwt} \leq a_{wt}^{maxw} \qquad \qquad \forall w, t \tag{31}
$$

• Energy use constraint in manufacturing plants:

$$
\sum_{i} \sum_{g} p_{igmt} b_{igmt} \left(Q_{imt} + Q'_{imt} \right) + \sum_{i} b_{imt}^{m} X_{imt} \leq b_{mt}^{maxm} \qquad \forall m, t \qquad (32)
$$

• Energy use constraint in warehouses:

$$
\sum_{i} b_{iwt}^{w} c_{iwt}^{b} Y_{iwt} \leq b_{wt}^{maxw} \qquad \qquad \forall w, t \qquad (33)
$$

• Waste generation constraint in manufacturing plants and warehouses:

$$
\sum_{g} \sum_{m} u_{igmt} \left(Q_{imt} + Q'_{imt} \right) + \sum_{m} u_{imt}^{m} X_{imt} + \sum_{w} u_{iwt}^{w} c_{iwt}^{u} Y_{iwt} \leq u_{it}^{max} \quad \forall \ i, t \quad (34)
$$

- *4. Other constraints:*
	- Inventory level of finished products at stack buffers (Equation 35) and warehouses (Equation 36) at the start and end of the planning horizon $(t=0$ and $t=T$):

$$
X_{im0} = \eta_{im} \qquad \& \qquad X_{imT} = \eta'_{im} \qquad \qquad \forall i, m \qquad (35)
$$

$$
Y_{i w 0} = \phi_{i w} \qquad \& \qquad Y_{i w T} = \phi'_{i w} \qquad \qquad \forall i, w \qquad (36)
$$

• Restrictions on decision variables:

$$
0 \le Q_{imt} \le G_{mt}M \qquad \& \qquad 0 \le Q'_{imt} \le G_{mt}M \qquad \qquad \forall i, m, t \tag{37}
$$

$$
0 \le F_{imwt} \le G_{mt}M \qquad & 0 \le F_{imwt} \le G'_{wt}M \qquad \forall i, m, w, t \tag{38}
$$

$$
0 \le F_{iwet} \le G'_{wt} M \qquad \forall i, w, e, t \qquad (39)
$$

$$
0 \le F_{imet} \le G_{mt} M \qquad \forall i, m, e, t \qquad (40)
$$

4. The Nested Integrated Cross Entropy (NICE) method

Cross Entropy (CE) is a simulation-based optimization method initially proposed for estimating probabilities of rare events [\(Rubinstein, 1997\)](#page-41-15). It was eventually redesigned and used to solve both combinatorial and continuous optimization problems [\(Rubinstein, 1999\)](#page-42-15). CE starts with an initial probability distribution over a feasible region, for instance, a uniform distribution, and then updates the distribution adaptively based on a random sample collected from the feasible region. Such a revision process should converge to some degenerate distribution that assigns a probability of 1 to an optimal solution. Technical details on the CE method can be found in [\(Rubinstein and Kroese, 2004,](#page-42-16) [2007\)](#page-42-17).

To help explain the CE method, let us consider the following binary nonlinear programming (BNLP) model:

Minimize $f(x)$ subject to $Ax \leq b$ and $x \in \{0,1\}^k$

where $f(x)$, A, and **b** are, respectively, nonlinear (non-convex) objective function, matrix of coefficients, and right hand side vector. All vectors are assumed to be vertical. Matrices, vectors, and scalars are respectively, denoted by capital, bold-small, and small fonts. If they involve randomness, the last two items will be switched to capital letters. For instance, X and X denote a random variable and a random vector, respectively. The concept of the CE method is to generate points adaptively from the feasible region $\{x | Ax \leq b\}$ such that, eventually, samples converge to an optimal solution. For this purpose, we define a probability vector p such that its i^{th} element is the probability that the random variable X_i is equal to one in an optimal solution. That is:

$$
p_i \coloneqq \Pr(X_i = 1).
$$

The CE process starts with an initial probability vector \boldsymbol{p} and adaptively generates samples from the

feasible region according to the probability vector \boldsymbol{p} and concurrently updating it. This learning process will continue until a termination rule is met (e.g., vector \boldsymbol{p} converges to an almost zero-one vector). A major contribution of the CE method was introducing the updating scheme in the learning procedure. A standard CE method for the proposed BNLP model follows the following four-step algorithm:

Step 1. Choose an initial probability vector p_0 with elements uniformly distributed, that is

$$
p_i := \frac{1}{2} \qquad \text{in which } i = 1, 2, \dots, \kappa.
$$

Generate *n* random solutions $X_1, X_2, ..., X_n$ with respect to probability vector p_0 . Obviously, each *random vector* X_i is a vector of length κ with random elements $X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_{\kappa}$. Each of the random vectors X_i may or may not be feasible with respect to the feasible region $\{x | Ax \leq b\}$. Eliminate infeasible solutions from the sample and keep only the feasible ones. Sort the feasible solutions in ascending order with respect to their objective values. Now, consider the best m solutions where *m* is a ρ fraction of generated feasible solutions ($0 < \rho \le 1$). The latter is called *elite sample*.

Step 2. Use the best *m* generated feasible solutions found in previous step and calculate p_1^* and p_1 by applying the following equations:

$$
p_{i,1}^{*} = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{(1 \le j \le m : X_j \ni i)} 1 \text{ for all } i = 1, 2, ..., \kappa,
$$

$$
p_1 = (1 - \alpha)p_0 + \alpha p_1^{*},
$$

where summation over " $(1 \le j \le m: X_j \ni i)$ " denotes summation over the set of all elite solutions X_i that the element X_i is equal to 1 and α is a fixed smoothing parameter chosen from the interval $(0,1)$.

Step 3. Generate *n* new solutions $X_1, X_2, ..., X_n$ with respect to probability vector p_1 and repeat Step 1 and Step 2 again with p_0 and p_1^* replaced with p_1 and p_2^* , respectively. Denote the final solution by p_2 . Denote the corresponding probability vector at stage t by p_t .

Step 4. If for any $t > r$ and some r (say $r = 5$) the best found solution does not change, Stop and

introduce it as a local optimal solution. Otherwise, repeat Steps 2-4 again.

The main issue with this algorithm is the acceptance/rejection decision, that is, cutting off the generated infeasible solutions and keeping only feasible ones from region $\{x | Ax \leq b\}$. If the rejection ratio is high (due to the geometric structure of the feasible region), the algorithm may cost a lot to ensure that, on average, there is significant number of feasible solutions in each sample. This issue is resolved in the modified CE method presented in this section.

Successful applications for the CE method have been reported in different optimization problems such as buffer allocation [\(Alon et al., 2005\)](#page-39-4), capacitated lot-sizing [\(Caserta and Rico, 2009\)](#page-39-5), vehicle routing [\(Wang and Qiu, 2012\)](#page-42-18), project scheduling [\(Bendavid and Golany, 2011\)](#page-39-6), network design [\(Altiparmak and](#page-39-7) [Dengiz, 2009\)](#page-39-7) and multi-objective optimization [\(Bekker and Aldrich, 2011\)](#page-39-8). To the best of our knowledge, our study is the first attempt investigating the application of the CE-method in a SC planning and optimization problem. Further, the effectiveness of the CE algorithm (in terms of runtime and solution quality) against the well-known evolutionary algorithms, such as Genetic Algorithms and Simulated Annealing, and against branch-and-bound algorithms in large-scale optimization problems have been investigated in some of past studies [\(Alon et al., 2005;](#page-39-4) [Altiparmak and Dengiz, 2009;](#page-39-7) [Caserta](#page-39-9) [et al., 2008;](#page-39-9) [Jung-Chieh et al., 2011\)](#page-41-16).

The MINLP model presented in this paper has the following generic structure:

Minimize $f(x, y)$

subject to $A\begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} \le b$ and $x \in \{0,1\}^k$, $y \ge 0$,

where $f(x, y)$, A and **b** are, respectively, a nonlinear (non-convex) objective function, a matrix of coefficients, and the right hand side vector. The main difference between this model and the initial BNLP model is the inclusion of a continuous vector y . In addition, in this model, decision variables are a

combination of binary and continuous variables (i.e. elements of vectors x and y). We define this model as a combined nonlinear programming (CNLP) model.

We initially attempted solving the proposed CNLP problem with the standard CE method explained above. The first was to generate continuous variables. One may suggest constructing a parametric probability density function for these continuous variables (analogous to binary variables) and update the parameters adaptively at each iteration. However, this approach can significantly increase the number of generated infeasible solutions with respect to the feasible region $\begin{Bmatrix} x \\ y \end{Bmatrix}$ \mathbf{y}) |A $($ $\begin{aligned} \begin{cases} x \\ y \end{cases} \end{aligned}$ $\leq b, y \geq 0$. Eshragh et al. [\(2011\)](#page-40-17) developed an algorithm to solve a CNLP model called the Projection-Adaptive Cross Entropy (PACE) method. Using the specific structure of the proposed CNLP model, binary variables were fixed to reduce the CNLP to a linear programming model. If it is infeasible, then the generated binary solution is discarded, otherwise optimal values of continuous variables with respect to the fixed binary variables are found by solving the resulting linear programming model.

We tried to adopt the same PACE approach, but then we encountered another problem. When randomly generating the binary decision variables and binary auxiliary variables, it was observed that all the generated solutions are infeasible in the first iteration. In other words, no feasible solution could be generated in iteration 1 for exploitation in the CE updating scheme in the successive iterations. To resolve this problem, we propose a new algorithm called the *Nested Integrated Cross Entropy (NICE)* method. NICE begins with dividing the binary variables involved in our MINLP model into two categories:

- Type I. Binary decision variables including G_{mt} and G'_{wt} corresponding to opening/closing plants and warehouses at each period;
- Type II. Auxiliary binary variables corresponding to step-functions of transport lot-sizing options (truck sizes) and inventory holding capacity options (warehouse sizes).

Nested generation of binary variables Type I: By setting all elements of the binary vectors G and G' equal

to 1, our MINLP problem can have a feasible solution. This is when all plants and warehouses are open in all periods and so the SC operates at the full capacity. From a managerial perfective, this may not be wise decision to make, but it allows the use of all possible resources and capacities to satisfy the market demand (that is a feasible solution to the problem). Likewise, setting all elements of the binary decision variables G and G' equal to zero will undoubtedly result in our MINLP model becoming infeasible as the market demand cannot be satisfied in all periods. This observation became the motivation for generating the binary decision variables in a *nested* way.

We define a variable ω representing the number of Type I binary variables equal to zero. At the outset (iteration 1), ω is set equal to zero (that is all binary variables in vectors G and G' equal to 1). At each iteration, A sample of G and G' is generated such that each sample has exactly ω zero-elements. For this, we randomly choose ω elements of binary variables in vectors G and G' (according to their updated distributions based on the standard CE method) and set them equal to zero. The remaining elements are set equal to 1. Doing so, the majority of the generated solutions in early iterations are feasible. As ω becomes larger in the later iterations, the number of infeasible solutions grows such that eventually almost all the solutions in the sample are infeasible. The algorithm can be stopped at this stage being confident that further increase in the value of ω cannot improve the quality of the best found solution as no more feasible solutions can be generated.

Integration of the CE method with CPLEX solver: Through nested generation of binary decision variables Type I and projecting them in the proposed MINLP model, the nonlinear problem is reduced to a MILP model with linear objective function and constraints. The reduced model that contains the auxiliary binary variables (corresponding to the step-functions of truck sizes and warehouse sizes) can be solved using the CPLEX integer programming solver. The integration of the proposed nested CE algorithm with CPLEX will form the *Nested Integrated Cross Entropy (NICE)* algorithm. The four-step process of the proposed NICE algorithm is described below:

- Step 1. Set $\omega = 0$ where ω is the number of binary variable Type I equal to zero in each generated random solution (i.e. all binary variables Type I are equal to one). Use CPLEX to find an optimal solution for the resulting MILP model and set it as the best found solution.
- Step 2. Set $\omega = \omega + 1$ (i.e. one more binary variable is set equal to zero in each generated random solution). Use the standard CE algorithm to generate sample of binary variables Type I and project them in the MINLP model. The MINLP model is reduced to a MILP model. Discard those samples that make the model infeasible and keep the feasible ones. If no feasible solution is generated, go to Step 4.
- Step 3. Use CPLEX to solve the resulting MILP models generated in Step 2. If the best solution among those optimal solutions is better than the best found solution in previous iterations, then replace the former with the latter. Return to Step 2.
- Step 4. Stop and claim that the best found solution is a local optimal solution for the proposed MINLP model.

5. Model Implementation: A Case Analysis

5.1 The case company parameters

The case company, STA, is located in Australia. With over 40 years of manufacturing experience, STA is involved in the production and distribution of a wide range of tanks (e.g. steel/metal water tanks and farm storage tanks), high and low-pressure cylinders (e.g. automotive LPG and CNG cylinders) and other types of domestic/commercial metal containers. STA has three manufacturing plants in South Australia, Queensland and Victoria ($M=3$), each equipped with five machine centers ($G=5$). Plant 1, the largest of the three, has older machinery that is less expensive to operate, but is less energy-efficient and generates higher levels of carbon emissions and waste. Plant 2, the smallest of the three in size, is in an intermediate position in terms of production costs and emissions rates, and plant 3 has the highest operational costs but is the most efficient in the use of energy and materials.

Finished products are delivered to five retailers or customer locations across five Australian states (E=5) through six warehouses $(W=6)$. Warehouses are leased annually based on the projected storage requirement (choice of small, medium and large warehouses). Due to the substantial difference between the storage capacity of small and medium warehouses, the initial model runs revealed that that the use of small warehouses in all six locations throughout the year cannot fully satisfy the forecasted demand. Holding costs and energy/carbon efficiency rates vary from one warehouse to another based upon the rental rates, insurance costs, salaries and labor availability, material handling equipment used, and energy sources available (this also explains the differences in cost and emission rates for storing products in plants). The maximum difference in holding costs is about 30% between the cheapest (South Australia) and the most expensive (New South Wales) alternatives. Emissions and energy consumption rates differ as much as 40% between the least green (Queensland) and greenest (Victoria) warehouses.

In transport, three truck types can be used for the direct and indirect shipment of products from plants to retailers. Small trucks have a maximum load-carrying capacity of two tons, medium trucks can handle up to four tons, and heavy trucks carry a maximum of six tons. For different truck types in different routes, per unit shipping costs and carbon emission rates can be as much as 20% and \$40%, respectively. For a given route and truck type, the emission rates are calculated assuming full truckload shipping and using average travelling speed at each route (see [Fahimnia et al. \(2013c\)](#page-40-10)). Loading and unloading emissions are not taken into consideration. Planning horizon is one year comprising 12 one-month periods (T=12). Production, inventory holding and transportation emission and energy consumption rates are assumed to remain unchanged during the planning horizon. Our analysis focuses on the SC planning for four of STA's nationally recognized product types including a kind of LPG cylinder, two most popular types of small and medium metal water tanks, and a medium metal farm storage tank (I=4).

Other production and distribution characteristics are described below.

- STA is currently leasing medium size *warehouses* in all six locations. For STA's relatively bulky products, a medium size warehouse can store an average of two small truckloads while a large warehouse can hold up to five loads. Small warehouses have shown to be unable to provide the required storage needs for the complete demand satisfaction.
- Small, medium and heavy *truck types* are the available transport alternatives. STA has been using a mixture of the three truck types with small trucks used in about 90% of all transports.
- A *carbon price* of \$23 per ton of emission has recently been introduced by the Australian Government, implementation of which was commenced in July 2012. No emission cap has been introduced by the scheme and we accordingly impose no emissions limit to STA's manufacturing, storage and transportation operations.
- *Electricity* is considered as the primary energy source at STA manufacturing plants. Electricity is consumed in all production stages including welding, machining, forming, deep drawing, trimming, piercing, rolling, bolting, riveting and crane operations. Likewise, in warehouses, electricity is regarded as the sole energy source used for heating/cooling, lightings and lift-truck operations.
- *Electricity prices* vary from one location to another ranging from 21.5 cents/kilowatt-hour (c/kW-h) in Victoria to 24.3 c/kW-h in Queensland to 28.5 c/kW-h in South Australia.

The proposed mathematical model along with the NICE solution method was coded in MATLAB 7.13 recalling CPLEX for solving the related linear models. The multiple objective functions of the proposed mathematical model are converted into one weighted-sum objective function by expressing the emission, energy and waste values in equivalent dollar amount. Therefore, in Equation 27, ρ_I is set equal to 1, $\rho₂$ is the cost of emissions per kg, ρ_3 is the cost of energy per kW-h, and ρ_4 is the cost of waste per unit. Local energy prices (part of ρ_3) are addressed through the adjustment of the energy usage in plants and warehouses. A sample size of 100 is used in all the experiments. With three manufacturing plants, six warehouses and 12 time periods, the number of binary variables for opening/closing plants and warehouses $(G_{mt} + G_{wt})$ is equal to $(3+6)^*12=108$. According to the NICE procedure outlined in Section 4, the first iteration seeks to find best possible production/distribution allocation strategies when all plants and warehouses are open (108 open plants/warehouses). The next iteration randomly closes one of the open plants/warehouses and finds the best value of Z (Equation 27) by solving the resulting linear model. This value is then compared to the best in-hand solution. The termination condition is the iteration that finds no feasible solution in the sample of 100 solutions (i.e. the ratio of infeasible solutions to the sample size is equal to 1).

5.2 Case study decision scenarios

We present the numerical results in three scenarios representing the possible integration of two warehousing and three transport decisions. These decision scenarios are developed to show the application of our model and solution method in tactical SC planning and to aid the greenness-versusgreenness discussion in Section 6. The aim is to determine optimal production and distribution allocation strategies in three warehouse-transport scenarios (WTSs). The storage and trucking characteristics of each WTS are shown in Table 1.

WTS1	Medium inventory holding capacity	Small/medium lot size deliveries
(the lean situation)	(medium warehouses)	(small/medium trucks)
WTS ₂	Large inventory holding capacity	Small/medium/large lot size deliveries
(the centralized situation)	(large warehouses)	(small/medium/heavy trucks)
WTS3 (the flexible situation)	Medium/large inventory holding capacity (medium/large warehouses)	Small/medium/large lot size deliveries (small/medium/heavy trucks)

Table 1 The warehouse-transport scenarios (WTSs)

A medium warehouse can store an average of two small truckloads while a large warehouse can hold up to four loads. Larger warehouses impose more expensive opening costs but have more inexpensive holding costs per item and are more environmentally efficient on a per unit basis. Specific opening costs, holding costs and energy/carbon efficiency rates are known for each warehouse size at each location. In transport, small, medium and heavy trucks have the load-carrying capacity of two, four and six tons respectively. This enforces that a medium size warehouse can only be fed by small or medium trucks (as in WTS1). Conversely, heavy trucks are assumed to supply warehouses with the minimum capacity to hold one heavy truckload. This would give a large warehouse the choice of being served by either truck types (as in WTS2). Specific shipping cost and carbon emission rates are available for each truck type. WTS3 will have the flexibility of leasing either medium or large warehouse at each location. However, the decision of leasing a medium or large warehouse at each location remains unchanged during the planning horizon (i.e. fixed annual leasing period).

A primary aim of this scenario set is to provide an analysis and discussion on whether SC *leanness* results in more *greenness*. The three scenarios can be evaluated from a lean perspective through the expected levels of inventory held in the SC. Smaller vehicles and warehouses are expected to be limited in the inventory they can carry, which would be emblematic of a leaner SC. Allowing for larger warehouses and trucks only is a relatively less lean scenario, representing a more centralized situation. Based on the definition of lean that focuses on average inventory levels, the leanest scenario is WTS1, the least lean is scenario WTS2, and WTS3 is more of a hybrid situation. Of course, we recognize that lean practice is based on more than just average inventory levels, but it is an important, if not the most important, dimension of organizational leanness [\(Carvalho et al., 2010;](#page-39-10) [Pettersen, 2009;](#page-41-17) [Shah and Ward, 2007\)](#page-42-19).

5.3 Case Results

Detailed numerical results from the model implementation for the three WTSs are presented in Appendix B. For each scenario, the numerical results include the iteration number, number of feasible solutions at each iteration, overall SC cost (from Equation 27), best found solution and the iteration at which it is found, as well as the values of four objective functions and their constituting elements. Table 2 summarizes the numerical results and outlines the characteristics of the local optimal solution for each of the three scenarios. Also included in the numerical results are the average warehouse capacity utilization and truckload utilization. This will provide some insights for the leanness-versus-greenness discussion in Section 6. Model runtime for each scenario varies between 15 and 20 minutes for a sample size of 100.

	Overall SC cost $(\$)$	Generated emissions (kg)	Consumed energy $(kW-h)$	Generated wastes (units)	No of 'zero' binary variables	Average warehouse capacity utilization (%)	Average truckload utilization (%)
WTS1	32,488,231	26,358,552	2.930.322	846	24	$71.5 (+/- 3%)$	$81.1 (+/- 5%)$
WTS ₂	31,600,746	23.491.646	2,837,776	824	23	$79.7 (+/- 3%)$	$82.5 (+/- 4%)$
WTS3	31,482,940	23.185.519	2.663.075	765	22	$83.3 (+/- 4%)$	$89.7 (+/- 4%)$

Table 2 Solution characteristics at the local optimal point for the three WTSs

6. Discussion – To be Lean or Not?

We start our discussion by illustrating in Figure 2 how the model converges to the local optimal solution for the three WTSs. The local optimal solution (lowest hit) is marked for each scenario. As discussed in Section 4, each iteration generates an additional zero binary variable (i.e. at each iteration, one more random plant/warehouse is closed in a random period) and finds the optimal solution to the resulting linear model. The model terminates when it finds no more feasible solution to the problem. At this point no more plants/warehouses can be closed (i.e. no more binary variables can be set equal to zero). The local optimal solution is where the SC cost is the lowest, after which no more improvement can be observed in the value of objective function Z (Equation 27). For instance, in WTS3, the demand can still be satisfied by closing the plants and warehouses in 34 instances (in Table B3, 34 iterations indicate 34 randomly closed plants/warehouses). However, the local optimal solution in this case is found in iteration 22 which implies that closing plants and warehouses in more than 22 instances produces no better solution. WTS3 hits its lowest found cost quicker than WTS1 and WTS2. WTS1 produces the worst figure in terms of both the solution quality and convergence speed.

The NICE method aims to satisfy the given demand by utilizing the available resources (i.e. it closes as many plants and warehouses in all periods as practicable to generate a feasible solution). With this rationale, one can safely assume that the approach is able to produce quality local optimal solutions as it uses the minimum possible resources to fulfil the demand. What we don't know at this time is the quality of the solutions found when compared to other solution methods. Our goal for this paper was to introduce the NICE method and its application in solving a real SC planning problem. Future research can focus on evaluating the performance of the NICE method against the more established heuristic algorithms in solving a range of small, medium and large nonlinear SC planning test problems.

Fig. 2. The convergence of overall SC cost in three WTSs

We now focus our analysis on the numerical results for SC costs which we split into non-environmental and environmental costs. Figure 3 shows the non-environmental costs for each of the three scenarios. The non-environmental costs include the cost of production, distribution and backlog excluding their corresponding environmental costs. Production cost is at its lowest in WTS2, while WTS3 shows the lowest distribution and backlog costs. Production, distribution and backlog costs are at their highest in WTS1, the leanest situation. Backlog cost (which can be viewed as a measure of customer service level) is reduced in WTS2 and even more in WTS3, the most flexible option. This is sensible as demands can be fulfilled more effectively when more flexible transport and warehouse options are available. There is about 16% difference in service level between the worst and best performing scenarios, corresponding to lead and flexible situations, respectively.

Fig. 3. Comparison of non-environmental costs in three WTSs

The overall environmental costs for each scenario include the costs of carbon emissions, energy consumption and waste generation. Figure 4 compares the environmental costs at the local optimal point for three WTSs. While WTS3 incurs the lowest cost of carbon, energy and waste, WTS1 results in the highest environmental cost. WTS2 results in slightly better performance than WTS1. Overall, these results point to a situation where lean practices are actually more detrimental to environmental performance. But, the least lean, more centralized larger warehouse and larger truck delivery situation for WTS2, performs only slightly better. The hybrid situation, allowing for the largest range of sizes, performs the best. The methodology takes advantage of these looser constraints allowing for a better choice balancing the waste costs and lessened carbon emissions per unit from larger warehouses against fewer emissions from larger truck deliveries. This finding indicates that the organization can take advantage of integrated lean and centralized situations for more efficient environmental performance. A strictly lean situation is shown be the worse alternative at the tactical planning level for this organization.

From the trends in Figure 3 and 4, it can be understood that more efficient economic and environmental performance may be resulted when a greater choice of warehouse sizes and transport modes are available. This result is not surprising due to fewer constraints on the choices available. In real world practice, the more varieties and choices available, the easier it is to improve. Yet, greater choice and variety may typically result in greater initial design costs, less continuity and standardization, and other costs of building flexibility into a system design.

Fig. 4. Comparison of the environmental costs in three WTSs

Studies on the relationship between lean practices and green outcomes date back to when issues of relating manufacturing strategy and environmental concerns in organizations were evolving [\(Maxwell et](#page-41-18) [al., 1993;](#page-41-18) [Sarkis, 1995\)](#page-42-20). Arguably, lean and green paradigms overlap by focusing on waste reduction and lead time reduction techniques [\(Dües et al., 2012\)](#page-40-18). Most studies with a lean and green focus target efficient use of energy and resources and the reduction of waste [\(Carvalho et al., 2010;](#page-39-10) [King and Lenox,](#page-41-19) [2001;](#page-41-19) [Larson and Greenwood, 2004;](#page-41-20) [Yang et al., 2011\)](#page-42-21). There is however evidence that not all lean efforts can be positively related to environmental performance [\(Rothenberg et al., 2001;](#page-41-21) [Zhu and Sarkis,](#page-43-0) [2004\)](#page-43-0). Our results fall within this scope, but with a clear focus on tactical SC planning decisions. In this context, Cholette and Venkat [\(2009\)](#page-39-11) showed that SC design and planning, especially with respect to transportation links and warehousing activities, can cause substantial variation in energy consumption and carbon emissions. While the focus on carbon emissions at the operational planning level has yet to be thoroughly investigated, our model provides a valuable exploratory tool for this purpose.

The lean-and-green debate argues that tradeoffs may exist depending on the environmental objective (waste reduction, carbon emission, energy consumption) and the SCM strategies (production, transportation, warehousing) of the lean practice. Thus, a decomposition of the costs and their location along the SC may provide greater insight into the lean-and-green debate. Noting this situation, we introduce Figure 5 which sets WTS1 as the baseline and illustrates the incremental percentage improvements in SC cost components by scenarios WTS2 and WTS3.

Fig. 5. Incremental changes in SC cost components compared to the baseline of WTS1

Figure 5 shows that the lean situation (WTS1) performs worse than the other two scenarios. In a more careful examination, we see that WTS1 actually performs better than both other scenarios on production function emissions (6.7% and 3.8% better performance than WTS2 and WTS3 respectively). Producing in smaller lot sizes to fill smaller trucks and warehouses reduces production emissions in this scenario. This

result seems counter-intuitive since one of the aspects of smaller lot sizes in lean manufacturing is a greater number of set-ups which is typically non-value-adding. Larger production lot sizes will cause greater production emissions on average, if setup time is not considered. Future modeling efforts at the operational level can focus on the effects of setup time and number of setups to provide a clearer picture of the tradeoffs for production emissions (here, we focused on tactical aspects).

The centralized situation with a lean based transport and a non-lean based warehousing (WTS2) is more economically and environmentally efficient compared to the lean situation (WTS1). In the best case scenario, WTS3 results in smallest production/transport costs and least environmental impacts as it is more flexible both in transport and warehousing. This finding may be highly dependent on many factors such as the warehouse opening costs, economic and environmental cost of storage, the availability of different transport modes, as well as the shipment costs and emission rates.

One expected result that seems to hold is that distribution emissions are much improved in less lean scenarios (26.6% in WTS2, 26.3% in WTS2). This result is expected because in the lean situation smaller truck delivery sizes imply more and smaller deliveries with less emission efficient vehicles on a per unit basis. A similar reasoning is given for distribution energy use. But, the difference between WTS2 and WTS1, and WTS3 and WTS1 is much pronounced. This is a situation where greater truck-size flexibility allows WTS3 to more effectively eliminate less-than-truckload deliveries and waste. This is evidenced by nearly 90% average truckload utilization in WS3 (see Table 1). The situation of less efficiency due to limited larger truck size with WTS2 is clearer when comparing the distribution waste values. WTS2 is worse than WTS1 by 7.8%, whereas WTS3 is better than WTS1 by 11.7%.

Thus, we can see the tradeoffs a little more clearly overall in these situations. What we do not know at this time is the relative importance of each of these environmental performance results other than as a cost basis. Organizations can adjust the importance of each environmental dimension by assigning greater costs (objective function coefficients) to specific types of environmental emissions. These values are

bound to change depending on industry, location and organization. For example, if the production and distribution waste is attributed to a hazardous or toxic material, then these wastes would get a much higher priority and thus larger coefficients. At this time, in Australia where the case company is located, carbon emissions are becoming a critical policy issue. Carbon taxes and a carbon trading market will make the situation a bit more dynamic, which points to allowing for the greatest flexibility in designing the SC. However, flexibility has value in situations where uncertainty exists. As the carbon taxes and carbon markets stabilize, organizations may seek to focus more on their business efficiencies as optimization of environmental emissions would be stabilized and optimized.

All these recommendations are based on assumptions that were considered for the development of the model and solution technique. Our analysis was at a tactical level with limited linkage to operational decisions and perspectives which may cause variation in the outcomes. Hierarchical linkage is a definite direction for future planning and design of an environmentally sound SC. Additional tweaking of the model, such as setup time delineations and delivery time and work flexibility costs, may provide additional nuanced evaluations from both economic and environmental perspectives.

7. Conclusions

This paper presented a multidimensional MINLP model for green SCM at the tactical planning level. The model can be used to explore tradeoffs between cost and environmental degradation including carbon emissions, energy consumption and waste generation. We took advantage of the model structure and introduced the NICE method, a CE-based solution technique, to solve the encountered MINLP model. Using real data from an actual SC, we showed how the model can be utilized to provide practical insights in a tactical SC decision environment facing operations, logistics and SC managers.

Our exploratory analysis focused on investigating critical issues related to the lean-and-green debate. While some lean interventions may inadvertently result in green benefits, especially through waste and lead time reductions, we found not all SC lean practices at the tactical planning level are in line with greening strategies and tactics. In fact, a strictly lean situation was shown be the worst environmentally sustainable alternative when compared to centralized (less lean) and flexible SC situations. We showed how organizations can take advantage of SC agility through integrated lean and centralized situations for more efficient environmental performance.

These results may however hold for the tactical SC planning only. Modeling efforts at the operational level that can investigate the effects of setup time and number of setups may provide a clearer picture of the tradeoffs between these situations. In addition, applying the model to strategic design issues, such as centralized versus decentralized warehousing and manufacturing designs, is a fertile direction for future research to answer more cost versus environmental tradeoffs. The dynamic nature of government policies and industrial competitiveness can also be integrated into future models as various emergent policies and markets evolve.

While we have shown the utility of our complex mathematical model and solution approach, our study is not without limitations. Although the model is realistic, and we have shown its application to a real world situation, some organizations may find that the data requirements and complexity of the model cumbersome. Allowing for model modular design and testing these models to identify the sensitivity of the results may allow for greater acceptance of the model. In the application of the model to the particular case of the lean-and-green debate, it was found that additional nuanced and detailed aspects of the model can be enhanced. This limitation is the opposite of our first limitation, in that additional complexity and considerations of the model can benefit additional study of various tradeoff questions facing policy makers and organizations. The NICE method can be more thoroughly tested against other established heuristics for solving nonlinear mathematical programming models. Our goal for this paper was to introduce this technique and future research directions would be to evaluate the efficiency of the NICE method and how to improve its performance.

The investigation of the influence of organizational decisions on sustainability of industries and communities is gaining increasing importance. The development and availability of new models and tools can help address many of these concerns. Given the multiple contributions of this work, we set the stage for additional and important future research directions, including new model and solution extensions, and

potential for new applications and exploratory analyses.

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Appendix A Input parameters

Appendix B Detailed numerical results for three WTSs

Table B1 Numerical result for warehouse-transport scenario 1 (WTS1)

Table B2 Numerical result for warehouse-transport scenario 2 (WTS2)

How green is a lean supply chain? Fahimnia, Sarkis and Eshragh

