

An assessment of sustainable process technology adoption in the
Dutch chemical industry

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"Never spoil a good crisis."

– **Marco Guiseppin**

Foreword

This master thesis represents the finalisation of the Master Management of Technology (MOT) at the Delft University of Technology. The two years of study have provided me with an integral view of the development and impact of technologies in companies and society. My MOT experience, which includes an exchange and a prolonged thesis period, enabled tremendous personal growth.

Throughout the study, guidance was provided by Roland Ortt and Linda Kamp of the Technical University Delft. I want to take this opportunity to thank Roland for his enthusiastic guidance and personal advice. He has exceeded in his role as first supervisor by being an uplifting sparring partner and supportive once personal challenges arose. Furthermore, I would like to thank Linda for her analytical view of the work and assistance in finding conceptual and linguistic improvements. Although her role as second supervisor should limit her involvement in the research, she went above and beyond to reacquaint herself with the study after I had recovered. Thank you.

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I owe considerable gratitude towards Frans van der Akker of the Institute of Sustainable Process Technology (ISPT). Though not financed or hosted by the ISPT, it provided this work with access to the people of multiple Dutch universities and industrial leaders. A special thanks go to Alco Kieft, Marjan Minnesma, Peter de Jong and the other interviewees who wish to remain anonymous. Their time, dedication and openness have added valuable details and knowledge to this work.

This work is written for professionals in the chemical industry and academics familiar with adoption theories. Essential insights from both contexts of the industry and adoption research are explained thoroughly. However, sometimes it is chosen to use understandable language rather than specific terms to increase the understandability of this work.

Rotterdam, Augustus 2021

Otto Tobé

List of abbreviations

B2B	Business to business
B2C	Business to consumers
CEO	Chief Executive Officer
CO ₂ -eq	Carbon dioxide equivalent, a measure of environmental damage of different greenhouse gasses related to that of CO ₂
DOI	Diffusion of Innovation
EU ETS	European Emission Trading System
GHG	Greenhouse gas
IPCC	The Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change
ISPT	Institute for Sustainable Process Technologies
I(C)T	Information (and Communication) Technology
REP	Refunded Emissions Program, pollution control program of Sweden which started in 1992
S-curve	S-shaped curve used to describe the cumulative adoption of a technology or product
SME	Small and Medium Enterprise
SSI	Sectorial System of Innovations
TAM	Technology Acceptance Model
TIS	Technological Innovation System
TPB	Theory of Planned Behaviour
TRA	Theory of Reasoned Action
TOE	Technology-Organisation-Environment framework
SPT	Sustainable Process Technology
ST systems	Socio-technical systems

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Executive summary

The chemical industry needs to quickly adapt to deal with climate change's environmental and economic challenges. The chemical industry is a sizable contributor to climate change. On the other hand, their contribution to financial stability and growth is considerable. Adopting sustainable process technologies is the most promising solution for the industry as the current processes are the leading cause of emissions. Process technology refers to the machines used to separate, purify or react raw materials into desired products. The sector, however, experiences a multitude of barriers toward sustainable process technology adoption. For example, an oligopolistic industry is being chained up in a somewhat rigid value chain and requires enormous monetary investments for process changes. Combined, these contribute to an emphasis on incremental innovation in the industry focus on cost reduction. If radical innovation occurs, it is typically done in collaboration with governments, suppliers and knowledge institutes to keep costs and risks manageable. The dependencies on others hinder the industry's ability to adapt and implement sustainable process technologies quickly.

This thesis aims to formulate a model that describes the adoption decision of a production firm in the chemical industry. It focuses on the adoption criteria at play, the relative importance of these criteria and the influence that actors of the production companies' environment (further referred to as context) have on adoption. Research conducted for this thesis is done through the lens of the sectoral view, focussing on organisational level criteria and interactions. The Netherlands has a sizable presence of industrial activity. As such, this context is used for this study.

The chemical industry is not the only sector that is required to go through radical technological changes. As such, the adoption of technologies has been studied in other fields too. A bibliographical analysis of adoption theories has found a network of five cornerstone theories of adoption, with the work by Rogers at its centre. In his book 'Diffusion of Innovation', he formulated, among others, the S-shaped curve of diffusion and the notion of innovation attributes and organisational level adoption. The other cornerstone theories build on one of these models.

1. Driven to quantify the S-curve, Mathematical modelling of diffusion theory emerged with the promise of giving the s-curve more predictive value.
2. Some researchers focussed on accumulating attributes a technology or organisation needs to increase the chance that adoption will be successful. These efforts are combined under the heading of legitimisation of innovative behaviour theory.
3. The third theory expands on the processes within organisations during adoption. The Theory of Reasoned Action and the Technology Acceptance Model use extensive surveys to determine what motivates people, with TAM focussing on incorporating software into their workflow.
4. In contrast to the theories mentioned above, some researchers found little overlap between adoption in the context they studied and the work of Rogers. The determinants of innovation adoption through an econometric perspective argue that adoption of an innovation is dependent on the context given the wide variety of social systems. The leading model in this branch of literature is the Technology, Organisation and Environment (TOE) model.
5. Finally, recent efforts were made to aid governmental decision making concerning the adoption of mainly climate-related technologies. These theories combine under the umbrella of Innovation System (IS) theories. IS theories describe the effects of industry networks, regulation and other adoption system actors. Furthermore, it proclaims an alternative adoption theory based on development in niches.

The organisational level focus of this thesis, together with the specific context of the chemical industry, inspired us to choose the Technology-Organisation-Environment (TOE) framework to describe the adoption of sustainable process technologies (SPT) in the chemical industry. During the creation of this thesis, it seemed no prior work applied TOE to the chemical industry. Therefore, the TOE framework is combined with industry-specific adoption criteria. These criteria are obtained from a bibliographic analysis of decades of research into the adoption of process technologies. This systematic literature review yielded twenty-two adoption criteria, divided into six clusters. These clusters are 1. Market pressure (e.g. market stakeholders), 2. Legitimacy pressure (e.g. coercive pressure), 3. Information characteristics (e.g. uncertainty), 4. Firm characteristics (e.g. available resources), 5. Technology characteristics (e.g. relative advantage) and 6. Network characteristics (e.g. network membership).

Fu et al. (2018) focussed on the adoption criteria of the global process industry. By taking a smaller scope, this research aims to gain a more fine-grained view of the factors influencing the adoption of sustainable process technologies for the Dutch chemical industry. As such, the study set out to consolidate the empirically derived adoption criteria of the chemical industry and a peer-reviewed adoption framework. To this end, semi-structured interviews are held with various technology managers and directors working in production facilities in the chemical industry. The interviews allow us to simultaneously investigate the suitability of the framework whilst also exploring novel insights. For the latter, the emphasis lies on the discovery of adoption criteria and their relative weights. At the start of the interview, the vital introductory information such as informed consent and agreeing on definitions are clarified. Next, the interviewees discuss adoption criteria through both unaided and aided questioning. The research uses the Institute for Sustainable Process Technology (ISPT) to obtain access to the industry leaders in the Netherlands. This organised industrial innovation network links research managers and CTOs from the different industries in the Netherlands with each other, governments and research institutions. The interviewees for this research come from five different companies in the chemical industry with widely varying sizes and product markets. Finally, the interviewee had to have at least five years' experience in a relevant management position.

The interviewees provided three primary insights. The first insight is a new set of adoption criteria provided by the interviewees. The criteria do match, but a key difference is noticed. The main difference between the two seems to be that the interviewees provided much more specific examples of adoption criteria. Product quality, safety and sustainability clarify what the more abstract 'relative advantage' entails in the context of the chemical industry when considering sustainable process innovations. This finding is relevant because it implies that well-known adoption criteria in the literature are applicable or valuable in specific conditions only, i.e. when the potential customers lack the knowledge to use industry-specific criteria.

Furthermore, this insight is fascinating as, overall, general adoption model literature criteria are purposely vague. Vague formulation of the adoption criteria is helpful to help potential customers evaluate radical innovations that they do not fully comprehend. However, managers seem to know the exact criteria for assessing sustainable process innovations in the chemical industry.

The second insight from the interviews concerns the tendency of adoption criteria to change in importance in particular situations. This variation is an essential addition to the existing literature in which adoption criteria are generally applicable and equally important across various adoption situations. The interviews identified four dimensions that demarcate adoption situations: three continuous technological dimensions and one discrete contextual dimension. The three continuous dimensions are process legacy, technology newness and technology impact. The technical dimensions can variate between two extremes. For process legacy, these extremes are implementing the

technology on a greenfield or in an existing process. Technology newness, on the other hand, varies between new technologies or well-known ones. The technological impact can vary between auxiliary and main process technologies. Finally, the discreet dimension is that of the market environment. This study found three distinct market environments, namely bulk chemicals, speciality chemicals and the pharmaceutical market. Although one company can operate in different markets, the technology under consideration is usually bought to serve in one of these three. The relative weights of the adoption criteria change following the position of the adoption situation on the different dimensions.

The first technical dimension is process legacy. It refers to the prior existence of a process or factory. The adoption is considered a process improvement if a technology is adopted to work inside an already existing process. If the technology is built on a new site, it is referred to as greenfield technologies. During the development and adoption of greenfield process technologies, the people involved are often more open to new ideas. Typical for process improvements is that they have much less business case and regulatory uncertainty because the market and regulation is well known. As is evident from the level of risk aversion in the industry, newly discovered technologies have different adoption criteria than more mature technologies.

The second adoption dimension is technology newness. Mature technologies are those that are widely available and used in various industries. The experience of the suppliers reduces the risks of failure.

Finally, technological impact refers to the place of technology on the production process. The more impact a specific technology has on the production process, the more attention and scrutinisation it receives from the decision-makers. If a pump fails, it is often quite effortlessly replaced. On the other hand, failure of the reactor can considerably worsen product quality and is less easily replaced.

The contextual dimension refers to the types of markets in which the products are sold. For instance, pharmaceutical markets have much stricter regulation and certification requirements than material markets, meaning that novel technologies take even more time to be validated.

The third insight of this thesis is the importance of the adoption system. The adoption system refers to the businesses and organisations that influence production companies in their adoption decisions. The adoption system of the chemical industry consists of regulators, clients, competitors, engineering firms, development firms and feedstock suppliers. The collaboration with multiple stakeholders is of utmost importance when considering SPT adoption.

In conclusion, the TOE framework with industry-specific adoption criteria seems to fit adoption in the chemical industry. However, due to the varying adoption situations in the chemical industry, it is crucial to consider the adoption dimensions. This work contributes to the literature in multiple ways. First, sustainable process technology adoption literature devotes much effort towards identifying factors that determine adoption. However, general adoption theory has not yet been employed as a theoretical basis of the research. This work introduces the theories to the sustainable process technology adoption field. The study area can progress beyond investigating individual factors and embrace the complexity of adoption recognised in general adoption research. Second, this work contains a literature review of adoption and diffusion research based on bibliographic proximity. At the time of writing, such fine-grained review is unavailable. It is, however, highly complementary to the bibliographic review methodology. Furthermore, the system dynamics identified in this work imply that all system actors, not primarily governments, can initiate and carry through strategic interventions in the transition away from fossil fuels.

The model proposed has been conceived within the scoping of the research. Therefore, there are some limitations to it. First of all, this research focussed on Dutch production firms. Although it is

important to reiterate this work in different countries, I expect only slight changes. Future research can add adoption criteria in more corrupt countries or countries where interpersonal relations are managed differently. However, the source of adoption criteria used for this research and the international nature of the industries ensures a high level of generalisability. A second question is the usability of this model in other sectors. The answer here is twofold. First of all, the model is built on the assumption that different contexts provide different adoption criteria. As such, it seems contradictory to assume this particular model can be used in another industry. However, the insight that adoption criteria weights can differ according to some dimensions can considerably improve adoption models in other sectors. However, industries that use similar technologies might benefit from this model. Think, for instance, of the energy sector or heat pumps in the built environment.

This study found a multitude of adoption criteria from the interviews conducted in this work. Future research could focus on finding the weight of these criteria. Whilst doing this, it is essential to consider the adoption dimensions. It could be interesting to find out what influence the different dimensions have on adoption. Particular interest should go to the weight of the novel sustainability criteria compared to other currently dominant criteria such as financial measures and technology characteristics.

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1. Introduction

Our climate is in decline. International climate organisations have become increasingly convinced about the human contribution to the rising sea levels and global warming. One contributor to climate change has been working on this challenge for quite some time. Emissions from industrial processes (i.e. chemical or physical transformation of materials) contribute about 78% CO₂-eq to the total GHG emissions. A fraction that did not decrease in more recent times (IPCC, 2015). Yet despite the efforts made so far, the amount of greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions has been growing 1.3 to 2.2% CO₂-equivalent per year over the previous ten years (IPCC, 2015). Following this data, it is evident that the chemical industry is a sizeable contributor to the global climate crisis.

The emissions themselves are not the only problem that the industry has to face. Oil and gas are being consumed in large quantities and are expected to run out by 2042, followed by coal about 70 years later (Shafiee & Topal, 2009). The chemical industry has grown dependent on these fossil resources to produce goods (Biol, 2019; IPCC, 2015). A crisis is lurking on the horizon, and swift action is needed. The primary source of emissions and fossil fuel use in the chemical industry are the processes. Consider, for instance, the amount of emission coming from a fertiliser factory. It uses natural gas as both the raw material as well as the energy source. Changing these practices is possible by using sustainable process technologies (SPT).

Although plenty of SPTs are available, the industry does not seem to adopt them (Biol, 2019; Díaz López & Montalvo, 2015). Two reasons for this behaviour exists. Either the climate challenges are ignored, or other pressures stop the firm from acting. Considering the first, it is not irrational for a firm to resist a disruptive innovation that threatens its core process (M. Minnesma, personal communication, 10 April 2019). An example of this behaviour was the denial of climate change, and subsequent actions, by oil companies at the end of the 20th century. This attitude allowed oil companies to continue their polluting process without taking climate saving measures (Grasso, 2019). A more recent strategy is to delay the transition or lobby for solutions compatible with current operations. Examples include carbon capture and storage or proposing natural gas as a transitional fuel (Fu et al., 2018; M. Minnesma, personal communication, 10 April 2019).

Companies that risk losing their business have different priorities than the ones that have a way forward. For the latter, a wide variety of barriers to adoption exist. The industry consists of a small number of multinational companies which have to invest considerable sums of money in changing their processes. New firms with new technologies rarely make it to market, given the high entry costs and the tendency for larger firms to buy out new ones. Moreover, as part of a rigid supply chain, the chemical industry experiences a high linkage to other organisations. Production facilities typically create raw material for other businesses, e.g. plastic pellets that end up in consumer electronics producers. Therefore, they depend on the specific product requirements of their clients. These barriers cause a slow response to the challenges, even though companies are willing to change (Wesseling & Van der Vooren, 2017).

It seems evident that the adoption of sustainable process technologies faces both technological challenges and organisational ones. These challenges have received attention from researchers in recent years. However, this study has identified some crucial gaps in the literature.

1.1. Knowledge gaps and problem statement

A framework describing SPT adoption is needed to help the industry overcome the challenges of the energy transition. A suitable framework could support managers in selecting appropriate SPTs and aiding communication between organisations in the chemical industry. This study found two ways to describe adoption in the chemical industry. The first focussed on collecting factors that determine the adoption of SPTs directly. The second way to describe adoption is by considering what work has been by researchers in different industries.

Scientific knowledge gaps

Over the past few decades, numerous scholars have tried to identify the factors that determine the adoption of sustainable process technologies. Their conclusions have led to a list of twenty-two factors determining adoption (Fu et al., 2018). The research focuses on adoption criteria applicable worldwide and in various industries, including the semiconductor and manufacturing industry. As such, this work lacks insights specific to the Dutch context and the chemical industry specifically. Furthermore, insights from research of transitions in other industries might provide new criteria or mechanisms of adoption to the industry-specific research. A comprehensive framework can correlate the plentiful and loose elements discovered by SPT adoption research and link them to the organisational decision-making process. Furthermore, a framework allows for the insights of this thesis to be applied in different contexts.

Of course, the chemical industry is not the only sector that comes to mind when you consider transitions. Other industries, too, underwent substantial changes and were studied by the scientific community. The agriculture and information systems contexts received the most attention from researchers. These studies provided valuable insights into the perceived characteristics of innovations and the ability for an organisation to adopt new technologies (Davis, 1989; Rogers, 2003; van Oorschot et al., 2018). Since research in these fields has been progressing for a much longer time, they might serve as sources from which frameworks can be lend.

Regrettably, most of the frameworks derived from these contexts do not fit the particularities of the chemical industry. For instance, Rogers (1962) is considered the cornerstone of adoption research, particularly through his contributions on which factors influence the adoption decision (van Oorschot et al., 2018). In Rogers work, originating from corn seed technology, he suggests that individuals or organisations decide to adopt a technology based on perceived attributes of a technology (Rogers, 1962). This emphasis on perceived attributes does not comply with the observations done in the chemical industry. The industry is dictated more by external pressures, such as regulation, than the work of Rogers suggests.

Furthermore, the potential adaptors, i.e. managers in the chemical industry, are knowledgeable enough to formulate the attributes required of the innovation. As such, perceived attributes of a technology are not necessarily relevant (Fu et al., 2018; Wesseling et al., 2017). Furthermore, the importance of global trends and domain characteristics, such as oligopolistic markets and the political power of the adopter, are not fully acknowledged in mainstream adoption theories (Wesseling et al., 2017).

There is a large context-dependency in which particular adoption models apply (Downs & Mohr, 1976; Fu et al., 2018). The first challenge for this research is to compose an adoption framework that suites the adoption of process technologies in the chemical industry.

Problem statement

The knowledge gaps identified above amount to the following condensed problem statement.

Given the prospect of irreversible climate change and the depletion of fossil fuels, the chemical industry needs to adopt sustainable process technologies quickly. This pending transition poses an enormous challenge, especially given the notoriously slow adoption rates in the industry (Biol, 2019; Díaz López & Montalvo, 2015; Shafiee & Topal, 2009). It is currently unknown what technology adoption criteria and theories suit the chemical industry's challenging characteristics effectively. These challenges include substantial investment cycles, rigid supply chains, and a close relationship between production firms and their adoption systems.

1.2. Research questions

This thesis aims to tackle the problem described above. The central question of this study is:

"What factors influence the adoption decision of sustainable process technologies by production companies in the chemical industry?"

This question can be broken down into four sub-questions.

1. To what extent do cornerstone adoption theories apply to sustainable process technology adoption?
2. What decision criteria are of importance when production companies adopt sustainable process technologies?
3. How do organisations other than the focal production firm influence the adoption decision of the production company in the chemical industry?
4. How do the technical characteristics and market environment change the relative importance of adoption criteria?

1.3. Scoping of the research

However much time and effort one puts into works like this, it is never possible to describe every aspect of a challenge. Therefore, some initial scoping decisions have been made and should be understood by the reader.

This thesis applies a sectoral view. Using a sectoral view means one considers organisations according to their relevance for a particular product or sector. Examples of sectors are the car industry, the agricultural industry, or the chemical industry (Malerba, 2006). Of course, the sectoral innovation system approach, of which the sectoral view is a derivative, is imperfect. A vulnerability of this approach is the chance to exclude relevant actors in new market/product combinations. This limitation is less imperative in the chemical industry as it is a mature market environment. Therefore, the industry is expected to have a relatively stable set of firms and organisations. However, future developments in the industry, such as implementing the circular economy, can create new product/market combinations and therefore have a different set of actors.

This research will limit the level of analysis to that of the organisation. That is, this work focuses on the interaction between organisations, not those within them. The collection of actors in the chemical industry is referred to as the adoption system. Therefore, inter-organisational decision-making processes and political disputes are not considered in this work in depth. Nevertheless, through problem recognition and the absorptive capacity to name a view, internal politics does determine the

eventual adoption of innovations (Cohen & Levinthal, 1990; Rogers, 2003). Therefore, this study simplifies internal politics to one-dimensional factors which influence the adoption process.

Furthermore, empirical work for this thesis is executed in the Dutch context. The Netherlands has a well developed and active chemical industry, focusing on sustainability. Therefore, it is suitable for this research. Furthermore, the Dutch chemical industry has been investigated in multiple scientific and governmental research efforts. These investigations yield a more holistic domain description which further strengthens the contributions of this work. However, results obtained in the Dutch context do not necessarily translate to other countries. This limitation, and the other ones described above, are further elaborated on in the discussion.

1.4. Research methodology

This research uses a multiple research methodology, an overview of which is given in Figure 1. First, to assess the managerial problems surrounding sustainable process adoption, unstructured interviews are held with different researchers and engineers from the Dutch chemical industry. These professionals are selected based on their affiliation with the Institute of Sustainable Process Technologies (ISPT). The ISPT is a Dutch organisation providing industry, government and knowledge institutions to develop and introduce sustainable technologies in the Dutch process industry. Simultaneously, the study searched through peer-reviewed papers, NGO publications and governmental reports describing the innovation characteristics and challenges of the chemical industry. The challenges identified by both professionals and the preliminary search provide social and managerial relevance to this work.

Next, extensive literature research is done to identify cornerstone adoption theories. The goal is to obtain an overview of adoption criteria and -mechanisms to describe adoption in the chemical industry. However, these models insufficiently cover how adoption works in the industry. Therefore, other industry-specific adoption criteria are required to apply the general adoption theories in the chemical industry. These criteria are obtained from a bibliographic analysis of decades of research into the adoption criteria of SPTs. The most suitable adoption model and SPT adoption criteria are combined to form a new framework through reasoning and peer discussions. This conceptual framework aims to more holistically describe the determinants of adoption applications for the chemical industry.

Finally, semi-structured interviews are used to illustrate the usefulness of the model. The insights from the interviews eventually lead to a context-specific adoption model for the Dutch chemical industry.

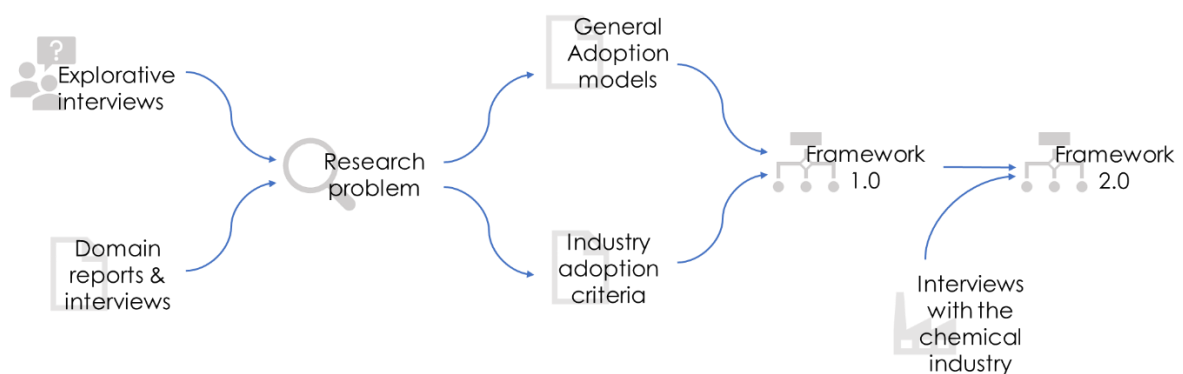


Figure 1 Research flow diagram

1.5. Report navigation

The explorative interviews and research problem have been explained in this introductory chapter. The second chapter dives into the characteristics that make the chemical industry such an exciting domain to study. This chapter identifies some social-economic characteristics of the chemical industry and is written to assist readers who are less known with the industry's dynamics. The third chapter attempts to ground the observations about the chemical industry in cornerstone adoption theories. First, it summarises cornerstone theories on adoption and exposes the limitation of the theories by exposing them to industry-specific adoption barriers. Based on the insights from the theories, a novel framework on process technology adoption can be found in chapter four. Chapter five introduces the empirical consolidation methodology used for this research, semi-structured interviews. It explains the interview structure, researcher preparation and selection procedure. The context and results of the interviews are given in chapter six. Chapter seven presents the final version of the framework. The chapter describes the logic of the framework and its usefulness for managers and society. The concluding remarks about the adoption criteria in the chemical industry can be found in chapter eight. The same chapter elaborates on the framework's contributions and limitations, research methodology, and future research objectives.

2. The process industry domain

This chapter aims to familiarise the reader with the characteristics of the chemical industry. The characteristics mentioned in this chapter are crucial to understanding a lot of the motivation for decisions made in this research. Readers who are familiar with the history and markets of the industry are referred to this chapters' summary.

Adopting sustainable process technologies is an essential part of obtaining the goals expressed in the climate agreement signed by the Dutch government (Stork et al., 2018). In the Netherlands, the chemical industry constitutes a sizable part of the economic activities. Next to exciting technological challenges, the chemical industry has to operate under extraordinary market conditions. These conditions differ much from ideal market conditions as commonly found in economic textbooks (Wesseling et al., 2017). Before the industry's intricacies can be understood, one must be familiar with the history and actors involved. Precisely this is done in the first two sections. As it turns out, regulatory intervention is an essential driver of innovation for the chemical industry (Fu et al., 2018). The industry has a special relationship with governmental organisations (Wesseling et al., 2017). The third section describes the relationship between the industry and governments and its implications.

2.1. Introduction to the chemical industry

Figure 2 below depicts the value chain of the chemical industry. For the sake of clarity, the figure has been simplified by omitting recycling and circular processes. First, resources are extracted from the earth by material and energy suppliers. The resources are made to react or purified to produce basic materials which are sold to manufacturing companies. Who, in turn, create products for end-users

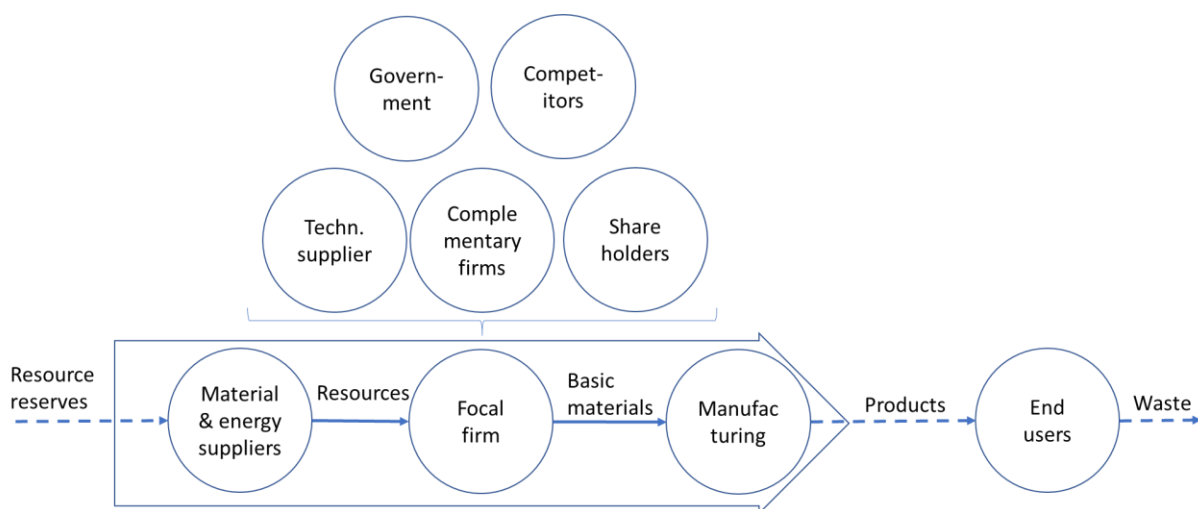


Figure 2 The value creation system of the chemical industry, with the chemical plant as focal firm – adopted from Wesseling et al. (2017)

The value chain described above results in an interwoven relationship between production firms and clients. Manufacturing companies and, by extension, the end-users set the desired quality of the basic materials and, therefore, dictate how production firms can make changes in their production process. Additionally, the chemical plant has many interactions with actors outside their direct value chain. Governments, shareholders, complementary firms and technology suppliers can directly influence the internal processes of the factory. Even competitors can play a crucial role in developing new technologies (Wesseling et al., 2017). From the interviews the following two examples were found. For example, new wastewater emission regulation forces a starch production facility to research high tech

water treatment solutions. Because competitors or even dairy producers are exposed to the same law, they collaborate with a membrane designer to find a solution. Another example comes from a government-supported CO₂ sharing program between a considerate CO₂ emitter and a greenhouse farmer. The program is set up and agreed upon by the parties involved. However, the shareholders of one of the companies do not see sufficient value in the plan, and it was therefore not executed. The following section further explains the relationships between these actors and the production facilities by discussing the history of the chemical industry

2.2. The history of the chemical industry

Typically, production firms in the chemical industry operate in international markets, dictated by volatile prices. Companies entering the market are often taken up by the incumbent firms or competed out of the market. Exiting the market is associated with high sunk costs, as initial investments needed to build a factory are high. Furthermore, the size of the industry is a consequence of the economy of scale. As a result, large multinationals control a large percentage of the production capacity (Crompton & Lesourd, 2008). The investment cycles typically range between twenty and forty years, with investments in efficiency improvements every four to fifteen years (Black et al., 2013; Fishedick et al., 2014).

After the extraordinary production growth of the 1950s to 1970s, increasing competition and market saturation forced the industry to concentrate its efforts to increase efficiency. From the 1990s onward, three strategies to deal with the ever-decreasing profit margins emerged. First, companies could quit operations. Since these companies no longer serve the chemical industry, the two remaining strategies provide a clear industry division. Companies can choose to produce speciality- and bulk chemicals (Cussler & Moggridge, 2011).

The second strategy to deal with the market environment is to decrease costs and focus on bulk chemical production. Production facilities could minimise costs by cutting on research and aiming their attention to produce commodities efficiently and larger volumes. The commodities (a.k.a. bulk chemicals) are characterised by limited product differentiation and high price competition. Bulk chemicals are commonly sold globally, exposed to governmental support schemes to increase production in China and India (Haley & Haley, 2013). The high (fixed) costs and inflexible production processes associated with bulk chemicals leave companies incapable of reacting to the volatile market prices, resulting in occasional losses (Wesseling et al., 2017). The characteristics that are common with this strategy are depicted in Figure 3 on the next page.



Highly centralised, efficient and incumbent production process



Operational on global- and oligopolistic markets



Volatile product prices



Limited opportunity for product differentiation



Exposed to governmental support schemes and trade barriers

Figure 3 Market characteristics of the chemical industry focussing on bulk chemicals after the 1990s

Because of the likeliness to lose money from time to time, a growing trend in Europe is to go for the third strategy, producing speciality chemicals. Speciality products are usually made in collaboration with (business) customers and experience much less price elasticity due to the importance of product quality, timing and trust. Competition in this market results from materials that compete for similar final products such as plastics and aluminium for car parts (Barnett & Clark, 1996; Wesseling et al., 2017). Figure 4 summarises the characteristics of the markets.



Small volume production for specific customers



Intense customer relationships



Stable, higher prices through leveraging expertise



Product differentiation but competing with other materials

Figure 4 Characteristics of specialised product markets

A unique market environment for speciality chemical producer is the pharmaceutical market. Pharmaceuticals, too, are produced in small quantities and are sold at relatively high prices. However, contrary to bulk chemicals market, the pharmaceutical industry emphasises product innovation. Moreover, the involvement of regulatory organisations is quite different. Medicines are manufactured and sold with a much higher level of scrutinisation from supervising bodies, dramatically affecting the adoption process. For example, a plastic producer can freely decide what machinery is used to mix different materials. However, a similar machine used for pharmaceutical ingredients requires various

certifications before it can be used. The chemical industry and regulatory organisations have an intricate relation. The following section will elaborate on them and highlight how governments can support sustainable process technology adoption.

2.3. Chemical industry markets and the regulatory system

Figure 5 presents an overview of the relationship between actors of the chemical industry. The arrows depict the association between the governance- and industry actors. In the Netherlands, the chemical industry has a close relation with governmental institutions. Local regulators describe and enforce local air-, water- and soil pollution regulations. Local regulators control pollution by threatening to retract production licences. Simultaneously, local governments perceive the chemical industry as having economic importance by providing jobs, taxes and stability. This awkward relationship often results in voluntary emission agreements that enforce the business-as-usual conditions. International governmental organisations, too, create regulations or guidelines for the chemical industry. An example of this situation is the commonly applied 'best available technology' regulation, which does not encourage radical transitions and does not considerably alter the industry's development trajectory (Ashford, 2005; Schoenberger, 2009). Internationally, chemical plants use this position to exert pressure on governments. This is done either directly or through lobbying groups. Lobbying groups often take the stance of their most conservative member and manipulate the politicians so that their clients' interests remain protected (Wesseling et al., 2017). An example is the lobbying for coal-powered electricity by groups that also includes energy producers from natural gas. Another example of lobbying groups is the legal proceeding of Urgenda against the Dutch government to take more responsibility for climate change (M. Minnesma, personal communication, 10 April 2019).

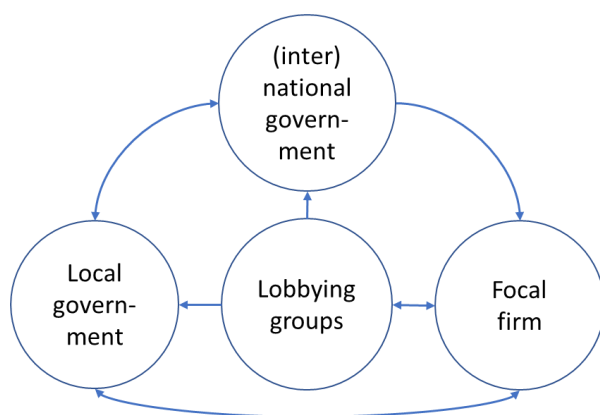


Figure 5 Relations between governments and production facilities

Governments and adoption support

Currently, the most considerable influence of national governments is observed in developing technology road maps for the industry (Wesseling & Van der Vooren, 2017). The roadmaps are an essential tool, as they give insight into the vision and regulation for the coming years or decades. Combined with the long payback times expected in the process industry, the roadmaps determine what processes are installed in the factories built today (Wesseling & Van der Vooren, 2017). Next to setting a vision, governments also impose environmental laws. Regulation is not, per definition, effective for all clean technologies. Facing stringent regulations and time pressure, companies prefer to adopt easily implemented end-of-pipe technologies over technologies that considerably alter their process (Bonilla et al., 2015; Demirel & Kesidou, 2011). A recent study into the Dutch alkali- and salt industry revealed that, although governmental policy can positively influence adoption, the effect is

limited. Production firms aim to reach emission standards but still mention initial investment costs and technical feasibility as limitations for adoption. However, the government could reduce emissions by focussing on electricity generation. This is because production firms mention electrification as the primary solution for decarbonisation (Scherpbier, 2018; Stork et al., 2018).

2.4. Types of sustainable process technologies

Throughout this work, six categories of sustainable process technologies are identified. These types are 1) End of pipe technologies, 2) Energy/material substitution, 3) CO₂/emission reduction, 4) Energy/material efficiency, 5) Recycling and 6) General sustainable technologies. For this study, general sustainable technologies refer to articles that combine technologies from some of the other categories. The definitions of these categories are shown in Table 1 below.

Table 1 Categories of sustainable process technologies – Adopted from Fu et al. (2018)

Technology category	Definition
<i>End of pipe technologies</i>	End of (exhaust) pipe technologies add extra equipment to address pollutants after their generation. E.g. Scrubbers or filters.
<i>Energy/material substitution</i>	The substitution of input materials or energy. E.g., the use of green energy or biobased feedstock.
<i>CO₂/emission reduction</i>	Technologies that reduce emission only, i.e., do not increase efficiency. E.g., combustion modification technology
<i>Energy/material efficiency</i>	Technologies that increase the efficiency of material or energy usage. Typically goes hand in hand with emission reduction. E.g., better process control or changing equipment.
<i>Recycling</i>	The recovery and reuse of material both on the side or outside the production facility. E.g., the production of valuable side products.
<i>General sustainable technologies</i>	General sustainable technologies are those that transpired the strict classification provided.

It should be noted that not all researchers use this categorisation. For instance, categories like energy efficiency and recycling are sometimes combined, even though a clear distinction exists. The combination decision by others explains the need for the general sustainable technology category. Overall, CO₂ emission reduction and energy material efficiency technology are more widely investigated than material/fuel substitution technologies and recycling. Two other methods of cleaner production are sustainable management, i.e. good housekeeping, and product modification. As these two approaches are not strictly technological, they are not used for this analysis (Fu et al., 2018).

2.5. Chapter summary

As noticed in the introductory chapter, the chemical industry needs to quickly adapt to climate change's environmental and economic challenges. This industry, however, experiences a multitude of barriers toward sustainable process technology adoption. Examples are the highly centralised operations and large monetary dedications. A summary of the industry characteristics is given in Figure 6 below. The figure lists the characteristics of all three market environments, so they are more clearly contrasted.






	Bulk chemicals market	Speciality chemicals and pharmaceutical market.
	Highly centralised, efficient and incumbent production processes.	Typically produced on a small scale.
	Operate on global- and oligopolistic markets, new firms experiencing high entry barriers.	Production in close collaboration with the client. New firms experience high entry barriers.
	Long investment cycles, high sunk costs. Volatile product prices.	Long investment cycles, high sunk costs. More stable prices with higher markups.
	Limited opportunity for product differentiation.	Competition comes from other types of materials.
	Exposed to governmental support schemes and international trade barriers. Simultaneously, subsidies support basic research and lobbying efforts from industry alter rules and regulations.	Products are less exposed to international competition. Pharmaceuticals production and dealing are heavily regulated.
	Focus on incremental technology or process innovation aimed to enhance productivity. Radical innovation is done in collaboration with many industry actors, including competitors and regulators.	Speciality chemical producers, and particularly pharmaceutical firms, focus on product improvement.

Figure 6 Overview of characteristics of the chemical industry

Climate change provides a clear need for the industry to adopt new and potentially disruptive innovations. Luckily the chemical industry is not the only industry facing radical changes. How and why technologies diffuse through a market has been of interest to scholars for many years. The answer to the industry's problem might lay in the diffusion of technology literature discussed in the next chapter.

3. Literature study on theories of adoption

The previous chapter introduced the characteristics of the chemical industry. However, these characteristics alone do not explain how sustainable process technologies are adopted in the chemical industry. Insights on the adoption of sustainable process technologies might be deduced from the research done in other sectors. The adoption of innovations has been studied in different contexts for some time now. This chapter elaborates on the cornerstone theories of technology adoption.

Although many theories of adoption are proposed, only a few stand the test of time. This section examines these theories, known as the cornerstone theories of adoption research. This chapter results from an extensive literature review based on the bibliographic analysis executed by van Oorschot et al. (2018). More precisely, the cornerstone theories are identified through co-citation analysis. Co-citation analysis works by clustering papers with similar references. The most commonly cited works within a cluster could be considered central to that cluster. The bibliographic analysis complements the literature review by providing structure whilst ensuring a broad selection of theories is considered.

Remarkably, one researcher is prominent to adoption research. Rogers (1962) has left an imprint on the field with his vision on adoption. Expanding on the insights from Rogers, four research clusters have been identified. These clusters are (van Oorschot et al., 2018):

- A) Mathematical modelling of diffusion theory,
- B) The legitimization of innovative behaviour,
- C) Theory of Reasoned Action and the Technology Acceptance Model and,
- D) The determinants of innovation adoption through an econometric perspective.

To properly assess the mechanisms proposed, an in-depth review is done for each cluster. It should be noted that co-citation analysis has a natural bias towards old publications (Boyack & Klavans, 2010). This is due to older publications having more time to inspire the work of other authors and hence have more references. For instance, the more recent innovation system theory can provide valuable insights into innovation adoption during transitions (van Oorschot et al., 2018). Therefore, a fifth cornerstone theory is introduced:

- E) Innovation system theories.

This chapter is constructed as follows. First, each of these cornerstone theories is discussed. Starting with the foundational ideas of Rogers and followed by the clusters as listed above. The second paragraph compares the theories and highlights the arguments scholars use to separate the models. In the third section, their suitability for the context of the chemical industry is assessed. The fourth paragraph introduces the innovation system standard in the industry. Innovation and adoption are two highly linked concepts. To understand the adoption of sustainable process technologies, one first has to become acquainted with how they are developed.

3.1. Cornerstone theories of innovation adoption

Interestingly, one authors' work is in the centre of the adoption research network. Between 1962 and 2003, Everett Rogers published multiple books. These books popularised the terms adoption and diffusion. Ryan & Gross (1950) were the first who formalised diffusion research in the 1940s. However, Rogers, one of Ryan & Gross' graduates, popularized and created the foundation for their ideas in a complete theory. Adoption refers to the act of acquiring an innovation. Diffusion is the process that describes how an innovation spreads through a social system (Rogers, 1962).

The foundation of adoption research and the S-curve of diffusion

Innovation adoption research originated from the early 1900s when Gabriel Tarde introduced the Laws of imitation (Tarde, 1903). It stated that imitation is the main element in social cohesiveness, which, together with opposition and adaptation, better define society than economic utility or division of labour. Years later, widespread recognition of adoption research was obtained after Rogers introduced the diffusion of innovations theory (Rogers, 1962). According to innovation diffusion theory, communication channels and perceived attributes are required for an innovation to be adopted successfully. Other crucial elements of diffusion are the timing of events and the social system (Rogers, 2003).

Communication channels, timing and the social system

Diffusion theory describes how and at what rate an individual or organisation adopts an innovation. Most innovations have an S-shaped adoption rate, representing the cumulative number of sold products over time. This characteristic S-shape results from the consumers' innovativeness. Innovativeness is the relative tendency to adopt innovations and consists of five categories: Innovators, early adopters, early majority, late majority and laggards. These categories adopt the technology in chronological order. The S-shaped curve of adoption is the cumulative result of the normally distributed adopter categories. Figure 7 below depicts the relation between the buying behaviour of consumers and the resulting cumulative curve. However, consumer innovativeness is not the only reason for buying behaviour. Other factors, too, determine the S-shaped curve. Knowledge about the innovation is obtained through communication channels, typically mass media or interpersonal channels. Mass media is vital in spreading awareness, while interpersonal channels usually persuade an individual to adopt an innovation (Rogers, 1983).

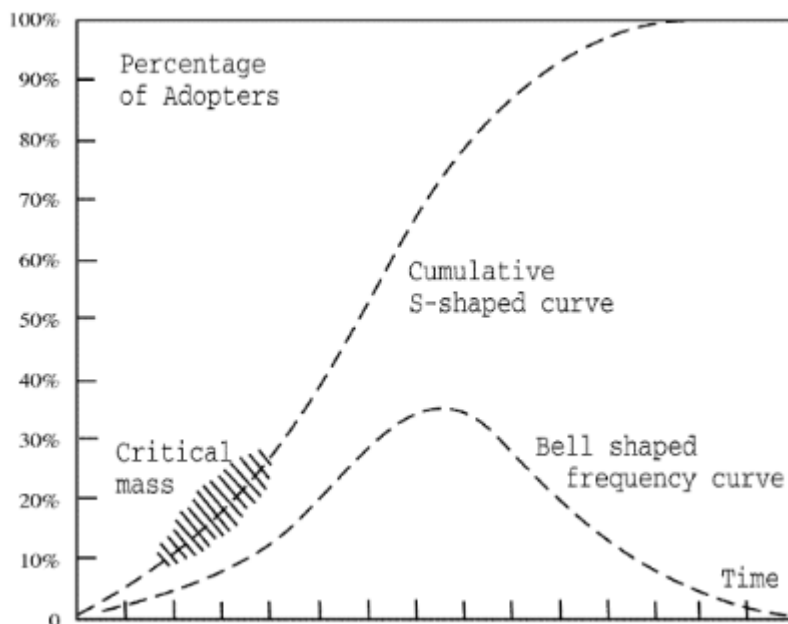


Figure 7 Cumulative number of adopters of innovation by time and critical mass - (Rogers, 2003) p. 246

Attributes of innovations

Much diffusion research studies the differences in the innovativeness of people, i.e. the adopter categories characteristics. However, less effort is devoted to the characteristics of the innovation

itself. Diffusion researchers tend to regard all innovations as equivalent units for their analysis, a dangerously incorrect simplification (Fleiter et al., 2012; Fu et al., 2018). This is not only true for regular adoption research. A similar observation was done in the previous chapter. However, perceived attributes are an essential explanation for the rate of adoption. The five most defining attributes are relative advantage, compatibility, complexity, trialability, and observability. These attributes are explained in Table 2 below.

Table 2 Definition of the innovation attributes and their relation to adoption rates. Adopted from Rogers (1983).

Innovation attribute	Definition
<i>Relative advantage</i>	The degree to which an innovation is perceived as being better than the idea it supersedes, often expressed in monetary terms, social prestige or other ways. What expression of advantage is more important is determined by the characteristic of the adopter. Status might be more important for the early half of the adopters than it is for the late half.
<i>Compatibility</i>	The measure of how well an innovation fits in the social-cultural values and beliefs, previously introduced ideas and a perceived need for innovations. Framing an innovation to be compatible with the adopters increases the acceptance and adoption rate.
<i>Complexity</i>	The relative difficulty to understand and use innovation and negatively affects the rate of adoption.
<i>Trialability</i>	The ability to try out and experience the innovation, typically through pilot setups or interpersonal communication channels. By displaying the innovation tailored towards the adopter, the adoption rate is increased.
<i>Observability</i>	The level of exposure to the innovation. The more observable an innovation is, the higher its adoption rate.

A fitting lesson drawn from the notion of attributes concerns preventive innovations. Innovations that prevent events from happening, such as explosions or leakage, usually have a non-event as a result (Rogers, 1983). They have a low immediacy and perception of reward and thus create little relative advantage. This makes preventive innovations inherently slower to diffuse, especially in comparison to their counterpart incremental innovations. Examples of such innovations are pollution reduction technologies. This mechanism might be why coercive pressures from the government are seemingly effective in the chemical industry. This serves as another example of why incremental innovations are so predominant in the chemical industry.

The innovation process within organisations

In his work, Rogers proposes a differentiation between the individual and organisational diffusion process. *Organisations* are individuals who work together to achieve a common goal, structured by hierarchy and division of labour. Organisations, like individuals, can be categorised by their innovativeness. The attributes that determine an organisation's innovativeness are the attitude of the leader towards change, centralisation, complexity, formalization, interconnectedness, organizational slack, size, and system openness. These attributes are displayed in Table 3 below.

Table 3 Attributes of an organisation determining their innovativeness. Adopted from Rogers (1983).

Innovativeness attributes	Definition
Leaders' characteristics	The attitude towards change from the leader(s) or individuals in the organisation.
Centralization	The degree to which power and control in a system are concentrated in the hands of relatively few individuals.
Complexity	The degree to which an organization's members possess a relatively high level of knowledge and expertise, usually measured by the members' range of occupational specialities and their degree of professionalism (expressed by formal training).
Formalization	The degree to which an organization emphasizes its members' following rules and procedures.
Interconnectedness	The degree to which interpersonal networks link the units in a social system.
Organizational slack	The degree to which uncommitted resources are available to an organization.
Size	The number of employees or money available to a firm. Though often accounted for in research, it is probably a proxy measure for other attributes.
System openness	The degree to which individuals within the organisation relate to others outside the organisational boundaries.

An observed paradox is an ambivalent relationship between organizational structures and the phase in the innovation subprocesses. A highly formalised organisation facilitates implementation yet hampers initiation. All types of organisational innovation adoption processes contain two subprocesses: initiation and implementation (Rogers, 1983). An overview of these processes is given in Figure 8 below. The initiation stages are agenda-setting and matching. The implementation stages are redefining/restructuring, clarifying and routinizing. Agenda setting evolves from an organisational problem definition that creates a perceived need for innovation. This problem originates from a performance gap between the expected and actual performance of the organisation. Matching is the stage at which a particular innovation is linked to the defined problem. Restructuring of the organisation and innovation takes place to fit the organisation and innovation more closely together. Both the organisation and innovation change during the innovation process. Clarifying is the gradual spread of the newly created meaning through the organisation. The final step of the innovation process is routinisation, in which the innovation is fully incorporated into the organisation (Rogers, 1983).

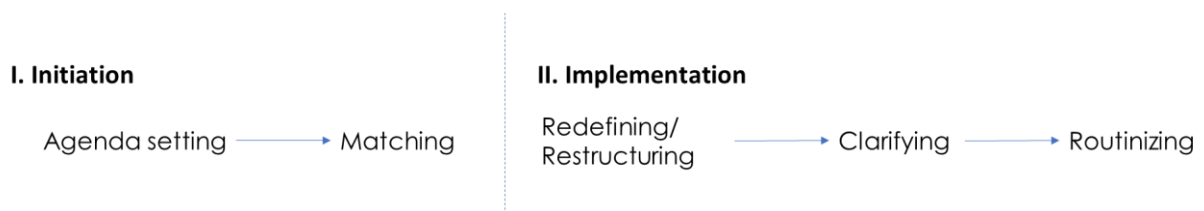


Figure 8 Organisational adoption process of innovations - adopted from Rogers (1983)

Mathematical modelling of diffusion theory

Consider being a young professor living in the 1960s. So far, several explanations for the s-curve of adoption have been given. Mansfield (1961) proposed that the process of imitation determines the adoption curve, while Rogers (Rogers, 1962) proposed a compelling literary argument that the timing of adoption is related to the number of previous buyers in the social system. A mathematical model was proposed by Bass (1969) to quantify these arguments and to see the potential of forecasting adoption success.

Contrary to the work of both Rogers and Mansfield, customers were segmented into *innovators* and *imitators*. Innovators adopted new technologies irrespective of the number of other adopters, distancing the model from the arbitrary assumptions that this venturesome group represents the first two and a half per cent of the social system. On the other hand, the adoption timing of imitators is directly related to previous purchases made by others. The adoption timing of innovators and imitators result in an exponentially growing adoption rate. To counter this, a maximum number of purchases is assumed. Finally, as more imitators bought the new technology, the exponential growth changes to an exponential decline resulting in an S-shaped curve (Bass, 1969).

This initial setup has been improved upon over time, allowing the more recent models to include cultural differences, various stages of diffusion and the successive generations of an innovation (Meade & Islam, 2006). Nevertheless, the influence on the world's economy of developing countries or web-based applications, to name a few, remain difficult to anticipate (Peres et al., 2010).

Researchers noticed a systemic limitation to this line of work. Most mathematical models of adoption focussed on individual customers and consumer goods. Furthermore, most research had a pro-innovation bias. It assumed that innovations would benefit adopters. This, however, is not always the case. Other forces governed organisational adoption. Over time, they realised that institutions and culture have a role to play in the adoption behaviour of firms (Abrahamson, 1991).

Legitimization of innovative behaviour

Oorschot et al. (2018) identified a third cluster. Institutional theory and legitimization of innovative behaviour. Institutional Theory (IT) argues that an innovation's regulative, normative and cultural-cognitive legitimacy determines its acceptance within an organisation (Abrahamson, 1991). This cluster is characterised by its focus on the forces that dictate the behaviour of firms on an aggregate level. That is, which innovations are adopted and how firms create innovations. It should be noted that many different, often contradictory, theories fall under this heading (van Oorschot et al., 2018).

For example, equilibrium scholars argue that, similarly to the net birth rate and carrying capacity of natural habitats, adoption is shaped by the forces of legitimisation and competition that interact. The initial competitive advantage of a technology drives firms to adopt it. However, the size of the initial investment and the decreasing competitive advantage related to wide spread adoption of technology introduce competition to the adoption mechanism, eventually stagnating the adoption of the innovation (Geroski, 2000). In time, scholars identified what legitimising and competing market or company characteristics exist. On an aggregate level, the communication of information and firm features (e.g. size and ability to obtain and apply new knowledge) determine organisational adoption behaviour (Karshenas & Stoneman, 1993).

Still, some organisations fail where others succeed. The evolutionary economic theorist has another explanation for what mechanism is behind technology creation. Consider the launch of a new product, let say the digital photo camera. Initially, the innovation is a radical one, all companies involved in

developing photos, the chemical suppliers and front offices are all out of a job. New products need to be developed to suit this new market. Once a dominant design is in place, the resources aim to improve the manufacturing processes to create a competitive advantage. These technology cycles could explain the delays observed when new concepts are introduced to the market (Tushman & Anderson, 2004; Utterback, 1994).

The above-described research has solid theoretical grounds. Yet, inevitably, it has some vulnerabilities. First, the proposed theories contradict each other on an analytical level. Some theories emphasise the availability of the technology to determine adoption, whilst others find the characteristics more compelling. However, acquiring an innovation does not necessarily lead to its actual use. This final argument was particularly interesting for scholars of the technology acceptance model, who wanted to explain the failing adoption of computer systems by individuals within organisations (Chuttur, 2009).

Theory of Reasoned Action and the Technology Acceptance Model

Academic interest to describe the adoption of computer systems in organisations surged from the 1970s onward as an increasing amount of adoptions gone wrong. The Technology Acceptance Model (TAM), proposed by Fred Davis (1985), has become very popular, especially for Information System research (Chuttur, 2009; Lee et al., 2003).

TAM was based on the Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA), as proposed by Fishbein and Ajzen (1975). The TRA suggest that two subjective determinants determine an individuals' behaviour. The first is by evaluating the consequences of an action, referred to as *attitude toward behaviour*. The second determinant is the opinion of people important to the decision-maker, known as the *Subjective Norm*. Thus, your behaviour is based on your evaluation of conduct and that of your peers.

Davis (1985) applied TRA in the context of information systems acceptance and created TAM. The aim was to develop a model that describes when new computer programs were used. In his model, Davis simplified the TRA. He left out the subjective norms and simplified the types of consequences an individual uses to evaluate behaviour. To test the proposed model, Davis conceived several psychometric scales used in psychology (Davis, 1989). After several iterations on the model, hundreds of study subjects and comparisons with competing models, the final version of the TAM was defined. The relations are shown in Figure 9 below. TAM proposes that users' actual system use can be explained by using perceived ease of use and perceived usefulness. It is hypothesised that the attitude towards using is a good determinant of the eventual use of the system. The systems design characteristics are represented by external variables and are expected to influence users' beliefs directly.

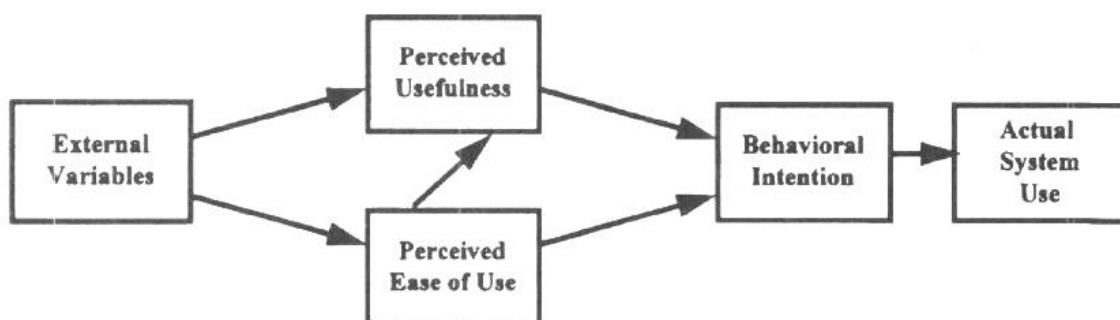


Figure 9 Final version of the TAM, before the further specification of the external variables - (Venkatesh & Davis, 1996)

After extensive application in research, many have contested the validity of TAM. However, TAM's simplicity and ease of implementation have it persevere, albeit with better-defined variables (Mathieson, 1991; Venkatesh, 2000; Venkatesh & Davis, 2000).

All in all, TAM has provided some interesting insights into the mechanisms behind diffusion. Yet, its focus on information technologies does expose a weakness of most adoption research. The adoption frameworks are flawed as they insufficiently account for contextual differences between industries (Downs & Mohr, 1976).

Determinants of innovation adoption, an econometric perspective

Given the wide variety in social systems and types of innovations, is it reasonable to assume that a unified adoption theory exists? This question is investigated by the third stream of literature (Fichman & Kemerer, 1993; Kimberly & Evanisko, 1981).

Plagued by inconsistent construct definitions and inadequate research methodologies, most tested adoption criteria do not consistently predict adoption behaviour. However, compatibility with the adopters' needs and relative advantage over the currently used technologies showed to be relevant (Tornatzky & Klein, 1982). To cope with this inconsistency, researchers proposed sub-theories to explore new context related adoption criteria. However, these context-related criteria have limited generalisability as most of them are not applied in a different context. Although this can be due to lack of time, it is evident that researchers instead prefer to propose new models rather than verify those by others (Damanpour, 1991).

The most commonly cited framework embraces the contextual factors and combines them with the innovation- and organisation characteristics. This framework is called the Technology-Organisation-Environment (TOE) framework and is depicted in Figure 10 below (Tornatzky et al., 1990; van Oorschot et al., 2018). This framework is a sort of chameleon. It allows for domain-specific adoption criteria to be organised without pressing a particular model or theory relating the adoption criteria to each other (Tornatzky & Klein, 1982).

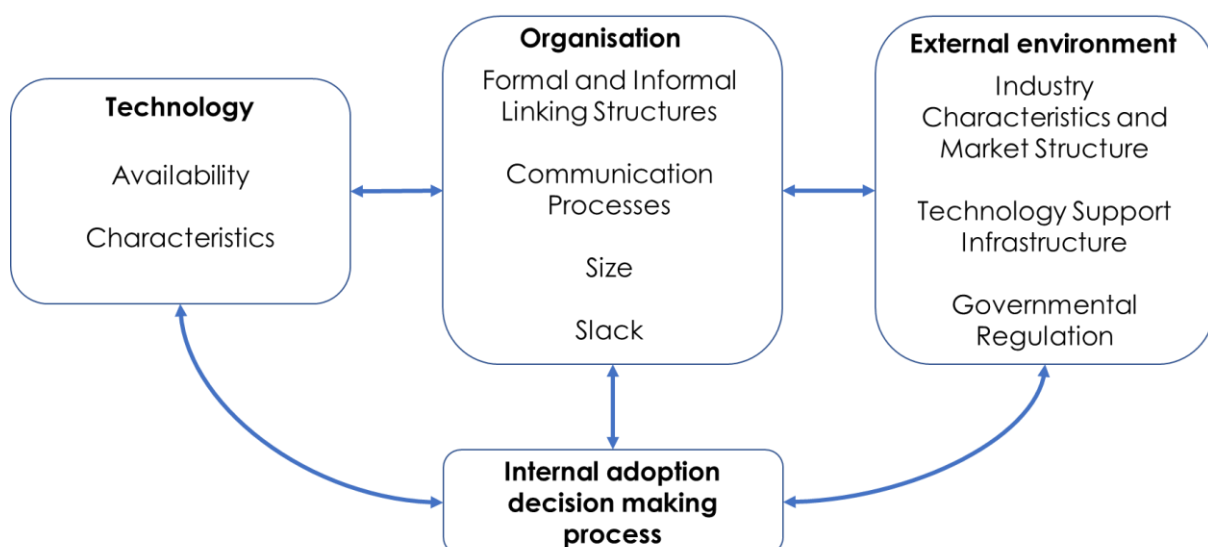


Figure 10 The technology-organization-environment framework - (Tornatzky et al., 1990)

The TOE framework has been applied in various contexts, ranging from adopting data systems within SMEs to Augmented reality or adopting environmental management practices (Masood & Egger, 2019). Furthermore, the TOE model has been combined with other adoption theories. For example, the Theory of planned behaviour, a predecessor to TAM, is added to TOE (Oliveira & Martins, 2011). These added models introduce a mediating variable between the TOE and eventual adoption decisions: the plan or intention to do something (Ibrahim & Jaafar, 2016). The advantage of describing this mediating variable is that it can be investigated before adoption or use. In general, scholars use the TOE framework as the foundation to which context-dependent criteria or theoretical extensions are added (Ibrahim & Jaafar, 2016; Kuan & Chau, 2001).

Innovation system theories

The co-citation analysis has several limitations. One of them is that it favours older publications over new ones, as these had less time to be recognised and cited. Therefore, some relevant theories have not been adequately addressed in the literature review above. Examples of underrated theories are the psychology of decision making and innovation system theory. Innovation system theory plays an essential role in current research efforts on technological transitions required for the environmental challenges of these days. Therefore, a more extensive review of this field can be found in Appendix XVI.

Human thought and knowledge are involved in the adoption process. Therefore, decision heuristics could be prominent in adoption (Adnan et al., 2017). Prospect theory, Bounded rationality and Stakeholder theory should provide valuable insights into the human aspect of the adoption process (Aarikka-Stenroos et al., 2014). However, this study focuses on organisational adoption and intra-organizational dependencies. The behaviour of individuals is not in the scope of this study. Therefore, this line of research is not considered. Nevertheless, it could be of interest for future research. Further details hereof can be found in the future research section of this thesis.

Another example of an underappreciated theory in the bibliographic analysis is the innovation systems theory. In general, innovation systems are defined as:

“A network of agents interacting in a specific economic/industrial area under a particular institutional infrastructure or set of infrastructures and involved in the generation, diffusion, and utilization of technology” – Carlsson and Stankiewicz (1991), p. 111

Innovation system theories propose that no actor alone can have the capabilities and resources to develop innovations. An innovative firm requires a network of supplementary organisations and institutions (Nelson & Winter, 1977; Porter, 1990). Figure 11 below depicts one interpretation of an innovation system. It shows a network of actors who produce artefacts, i.e. create the innovations. Specific to this model is the addition of the application domain (Geels, 2004).

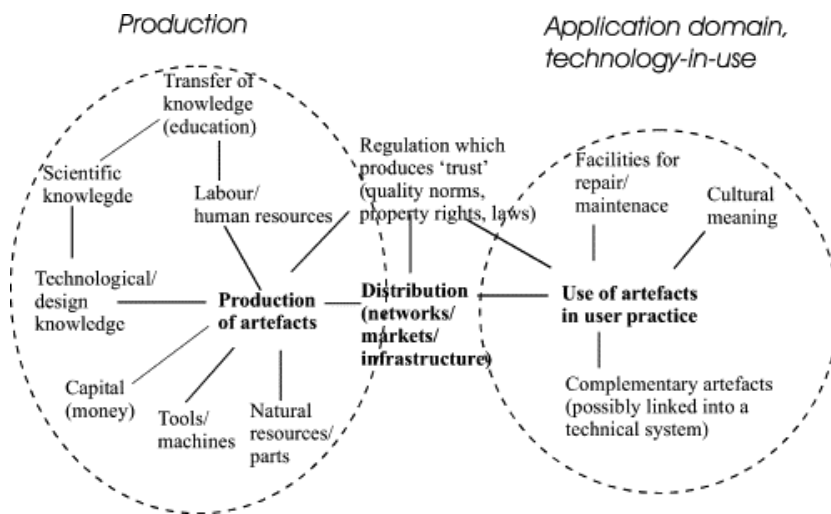


Figure 11 A generalised socio-technical system, including the innovation creation environment (left) and selection environment (right) - (Geels, 2004)

From a historical viewpoint, this way of thinking can be linked back to the idea of macro-economic growth resulting from lower-level economic performance, specifically innovation creation by firms (Schumpeter, 1939). These firms rely on national systems, such as education or regulation, to enable the innovation creation process (Lundvall, 1992). Researchers started to specify what characteristics of national systems and firms lead to successful innovations. As a result, the concept of technological paradigms (e.g. (Dosi, 1982), Evolutionary theory (e.g. (Nelson & Winter, 1977), Integrative learning (e.g. (Cohen & Levinthal, 1990), Institutional theory (e.g. (North, 1990), and the theory of open innovations (e.g. (Chesbrough, 2003) heavily influenced the development of innovation system theories (Dahesh et al., 2020). These five theories have created the foundation for the researchers who apply and improve innovation system theories.

Currently, this study identifies four bibliographically aligned research streams in innovation system theory (Dahesh et al., 2020). First, the networking and triple helix stream emphasise that no actor alone holds the capabilities to create innovations. As such, a network of actors is required for innovation to succeed. Specifically, the collaboration of governments, firms and universities is a core to success (Etzkowitz & Leydesdorff, 2000; Huggins & Thompson, 2014). The second research stream focuses on knowledge sharing and regional studies. Porter (1990) initially introduced this view accepts cross-industry actors in its analysis, scoped by their (often geographical) clustering. Furthermore, (geographical) proximity was found to play a vital role in sharing both codified and implicit knowledge (Boschma, 2005). However, given the trend of globalisation, it is not expected that knowledge is contained in a geographical location.

The need to combine the scattered nature of knowledge needs to be taken into account (Hekkert et al., 2007). The third stream of literature focuses on transition management & Socio-technical systems. Most systematic approaches of transition management research focus on the production side of innovation and, to a lesser extent, user interests. In contrast, socio-technical systems focus on the adoption side of transition (Geels, 2004). This stream embraces the idea of a multi-level perspective on the innovation process (Geels, 2006). Figure 12 shows this multi-level perspective and its three main components: technological niches, socio-technical regimes and landscape developments. Other main insights from this theory are the innovation functions, i.e. the activities that foster or hamper innovation (Hekkert et al., 2007).

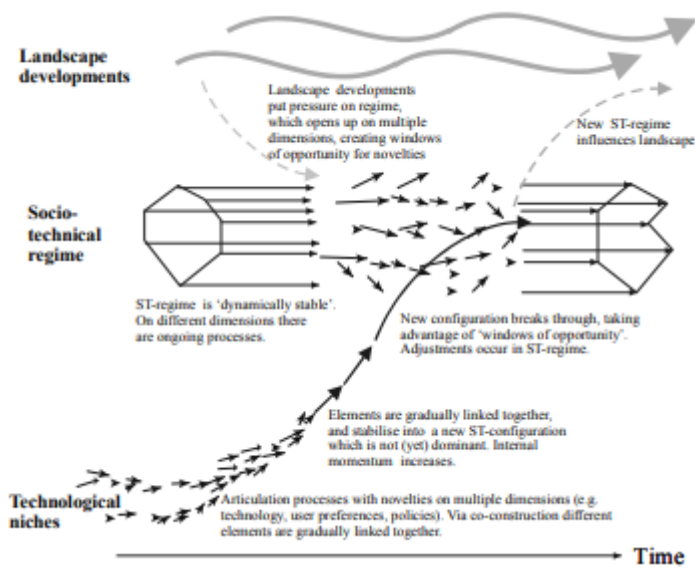


Figure 12 The multi-level perspective through which innovations evolve - (Geels, 2006)

Finally, the scattered nature of innovation system theories has led to a stream of review articles. These articles are needed to combine the identified problems and ideas of the different schools of thought (Dahesh et al., 2020).

It must be said that throughout the different streams of literature, multiple levels of analysis are used (Dahesh et al., 2020). As the innovation system theory originates from the idea that national governments and education systems are core to innovation success, a national level of analysis is evident (Lundvall, 1992; Nelson & Winter, 1977). The second level of analysis is that of regional innovation systems. Studies acknowledge that knowledge flows across different industries and is scoped by their (geographical) clustering (Porter, 1990). These theories often focus on the value of proximity. However, in the face of globalisation, this geographical focus is not always the most suitable. Here the third level of analysis is often used. This level is that of the sectoral innovation system. It emphasises that technical and scientific information is specific to its application and cannot easily be transferred to other contexts. An example of the sectoral level of analysis is the technological innovation system theory described in appendix XVI (Hekkert et al., 2007).

For this thesis, the insights from innovation system theory are deemed valuable because of their extensive description of technological, organisational, and environmental factors that influence adoption. These theories cover many different perspectives on why technological innovation and energy transitions succeed, which is in line with the general goal of the thesis. Furthermore, the sectoral innovation system view is used to identify actors or resources that might influence production firms' adoption criteria in the chemical industry. That is, insights from innovation theories indicate potential environmental influences on adoption in the chemical industry.

This thesis sets out to enlarge the adoption perspective of technological innovation. Some theories embrace the selection environment of innovation systems, e.g. socio-technical system theory (Geels, 2004). However, their focus mainly lies in describing the network, i.e. actors and relations, of the adoption and innovation system (Dahesh et al., 2020). In contrast, this work aims to identify the criteria of adoption used by production firms in the chemical industry. As such, innovation system theories are not necessarily the most suitable theoretical grounds for this research. The following section compares the models described above and selects the one which satisfies this studies aim.

3.2. Theory comparison and critique

Although all models have earned their occurrence in this study, some are more applicable to this research than others. The previous section has listed the different adoption and diffusion theories. In this section, the models are compared, aiming to find which suits the chemical industry best. The theories above can be differentiated in many ways, two of which are particularly useful for this research. First, a helpful measure is their focus on different levels of analysis, i.e. criteria for individuals, organisations or markets as a whole. The preferred model focuses on organisational criteria, as this thesis is interested in the decision criteria of a firm and the effect of the other organisations on the adoption decision. The second interesting measure is that of model complexity. Model complexity refers to explanatory value about the relationship between factors. Less complex models list adoption criteria, whilst complex models provide a more fine-grained analysis of how criteria interrelate. Insights into the effect of, for instance, technological characteristics or market environments on the adoption decision would help to understand adoption in the chemical industry better. Figure 13 below plots the models according to their level of analysis and complexity.

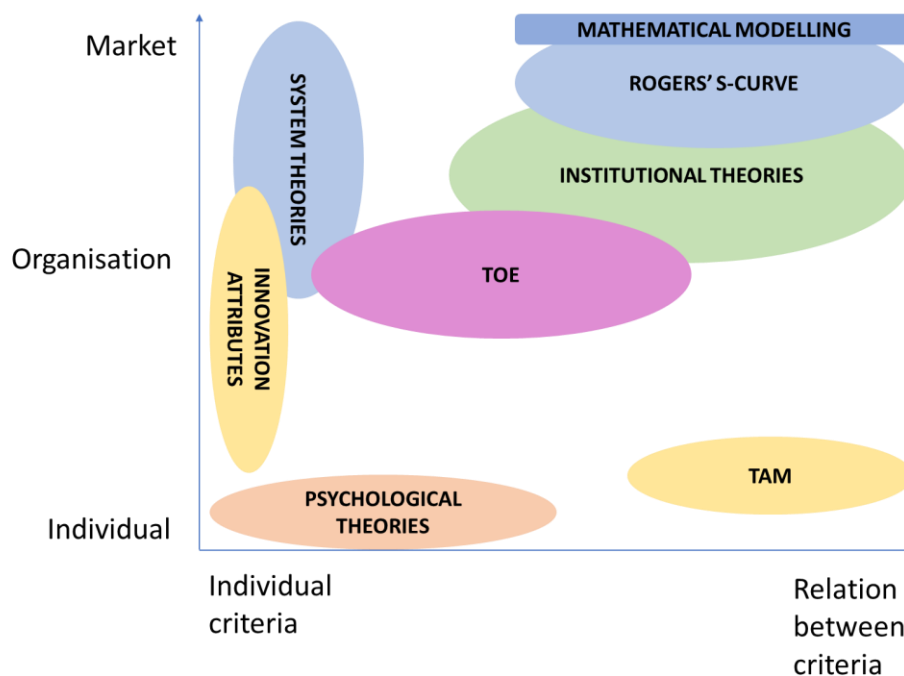


Figure 13 Depiction of the adoption theory cornerstone theories with respect to their complexity and level of analysis.

Most theories describing adoption focus on the diffusion of a technology using a market level of analysis. These studies include the S curve by Rogers (1962) and Mansfield (1961), as well as the institutional theories like those of creative destruction or technology cycles (Schumpeter, 1939; Utterback & Abernathy, 1975). Although these studies describe how producers behave with remarkable complexity, this research focuses on the decision making of the adopting firm. As such, these theories are unsuitable a framework for this work. However, this does not mean that the views are not insightful. As some of these theories, notably the s-curve and innovation attributes of Rogers (1962), provide the basis of other adoption theories, some elements will likely end up in the selected framework.

Theory of Reasoned action and TAM have much detail and aims explicitly on the adopter. Yet, it only considers two aspects of technology acceptance through perceived usefulness and perceived usability

(Venkatesh & Davis, 2000). In the information technology context, where one of the main barriers of adoption is user willingness, the highly detailed TAM model provides important insights. Yet, TRA and TAM seem to lack specific aspects important for this research. First of all, TAM and TRA relate the acceptance of technology to the implementation phase. By doing so, they glance over the other steps of organisational adoption, as proposed by Rogers (2003). As such, TAM implicitly assumes the agenda-setting and matching phases of adoption are insignificant. This assumption does not fit the scope of this research, as it is not the implementation that is under investigation but the decision to adopt. Furthermore, this works' level of analysis is on the organisational level. Although individuals play a role on the organisational level, their influence is considered only through a single variable. The focus on individual decision making of TAM is unsuitable for this research.

Similarly, psychological theories provide insights into decision making an individual level. Unfortunately, these theories do not provide a framework suitable for this thesis. Innovation system theories, on the other hand, do analyse adoption on the organisational level. As discussed in the previous section, the innovation system theories have some limitations regarding their applicability to this research. The theories investigated for this thesis did not explicitly mention the adoption criteria used for the adoption decision. So far, the focus has been on providing policy suggestions. Therefore innovation system theories are not considered for this work.

Finally, the only theory that embraces environmental influences on an organisational level is the Technology-Organisation-Environment framework (TOE). The framework divides determinants of adoption based on their origin. An influencing action or attribute can come from within the organisation, the environment (or context) in which the organisation operates and the properties of the technologies under consideration. Table 4 below provides an overview of the advantages and disadvantages of the different theories discussed above.

Table 4 Comparison of the different cornerstone theories concerning research objectives

	Pro	Con
<i>S – Curve (Rogers, 1983)</i>	Foundation for most adoption theories, empirically established innovation attributes.	Not context-sensitive, mainly focussed on the market level, with the list of attributes transcending to organisational and individual levels.
<i>Mathematical modelling (Bass, 1969)</i>	Quantifies the S-curve obtained from both Rogers and some Institutional theorists.	Not context-sensitive, predictive value has been doubted repeatedly.
<i>Legitimisation theory (Abrahamson, 1991; Karshenas & Stoneman, 1993; Mansfield, 1961)</i>	Embraces influence of institutions on adoption behaviour. Suggest intrigued models of adoption.	Suffers from contradicting theories, ignores the decision making of organisations by focussing on markets.
<i>Technology acceptance models (Davis, 1985; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975)</i>	Easy to use description of human behaviour within organisations. Has a large body of research validating and expanding the model.	Focuses on users, not decision-makers. Therefore, it excludes contextual and financial criteria.
<i>Determinants of innovation adoption (Kimberly & Evanisko, 1981; Tornatzky et al., 1990)</i>	Embraces context dependency as it is often combined with industry-specific criteria or theoretical extensions.	Has not yet been applied in a broad variety of contexts. Generalised models are somewhat superficial.
<i>Psychological theory (Aarikka-Stenroos et al., 2014; Kahneman, 2013)</i>	Detailed description of human behaviour that regulates adoption.	Focussed on individual biases, it does not include contextual and technological criteria.
<i>Innovation system theory (Coenen & Díaz López, 2010; Geels, 2004; Hekkert et al., 2007)</i>	Describes the effects of industry networks, regulation and other adoption system actors. Furthermore, it proclaims an alternative adoption theory based on development in niches.	Descriptive methodology, the conclusions of which do not go beyond general policy recommendations.

The TOE framework thus seems to be the most suitable cornerstone theory for this study. Next, we must find out if it can organise the adoption criteria used by production firms in the chemical industry. In this regard, the TOE framework has some limitations. Even though the model embraces context-dependency, it has only been validated in services- (mainly hotel and healthcare) and information system industries (van Oorschot et al., 2018). Given the unique characteristics of the chemical industry, empirical scrutiny is required before the model can be implemented. The following sections discuss what adoption barriers exist in the chemical industry, indicating what potential dynamics an applied TOE model needs to consider. First, the innovation strategies in the chemical industries are described. Innovation and adoption are closely related to each other in the chemical industry. One can, therefore, not study adoption without considering innovation creation.

3.3. Typical innovation strategies in the chemical industry

It should be noted that there is a distinction between innovation development and innovation adoption. Throughout this thesis, there will be a focus on the adoption of sustainable process technologies. However, the chemical industry is known for developing new technologies in-house before adoption. Therefore, a clear distinction between innovation development and innovation adoption is sometimes hard to make.

Incremental innovation in the chemical industry

Within both the bulk and speciality chemical sectors, there is a tendency towards incremental process innovations (Clark, 1985; Stobaugh, 1988; Wesseling & Van der Vooren, 2017). Specifically, technological process innovation aimed at enhancing productivity and exploitation of economies of scale. Conversely, organisational process innovations rarely occur within the industry (Barnett & Clark, 1996). This tendency results from the long investment cycles, specific technological requirements, protectionist approach to intellectual property and the lock-in following the linked position with suppliers and customers. This list characterises technology innovation in the chemical industry. As such, discoveries for incremental improvements are hardly shared and, if they are, cannot easily be implemented in another factory. Furthermore, the industry characteristics result in high entry levels for new firms. Like Tesla in the automotive industry, new firms are a source of radical innovations in the domain. The high entry barriers inhibit radical innovation (Jacobsson & Lauber, 2006; Wesseling & Van der Vooren, 2017).

Product innovations occur more regularly within the speciality chemical sector than in the bulk chemical sector. The commercialisation of new products, however, most require research time that is spent on processes. This is because the production process has a substantial impact on the properties of the final product. Therefore, much research on innovation in the chemical industry focuses on process innovations (Clark, 1985; Stobaugh, 1988).

Radical innovation in the chemical industry

Even though collaboration is uncommon for incremental innovation, many radical innovations (e.g. primary research actives) are done in a partnership or collaborative platforms. Figure 14 shows who could be part of such a platform. Innovation is usually outsourced or done in collaboration with technology providers, knowledge institutes and competitors. By outsourcing innovation to technology suppliers, the innovation costs are spread over the international clientele of the provider, allowing for cost recuperation (Trianni et al., 2016; Wesseling et al., 2017). All these actors together make up the innovation system. Although similar to the adoption system, they are not necessarily the same. For instance, intellectual property (IP) institutions are involved in the innovation creation process. However, during adoption, these institutions are not necessarily relevant.

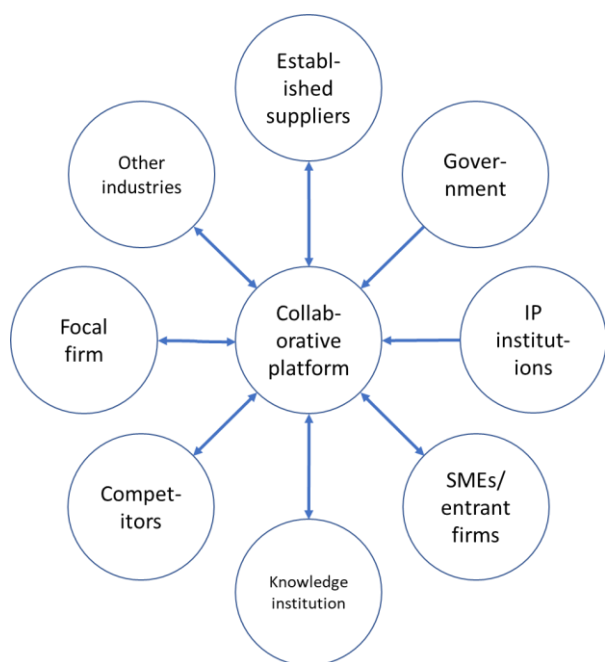


Figure 14 The relevant actors within the innovation system for radical innovations - (Jacobsson & Lauber, 2006; Wesseling & Van der Vooren, 2017)

The collaborative platform facilitates cooperation and neutral grounds for suppliers, knowledge institutes, regulatory organisations and competitors to come together. Financial support from governmental organisations is common in these collaborative structures. Radical innovation through collaborative platforms is only expected for pre-competitive research. Further collaboration is hampered when contractual agreements and competition regulation come into play, eventually leading to mixed results of governmental support schemes (Fu et al., 2018; Wesseling et al., 2017).

Knowing the background of technological development helps to understand the adoption process of the chemical industry. The chemical industry experiences dependency on other actors' behaviour. These include the extensive innovation network and the special relationship with governments described in chapter two. A model of adoption that is suitable for the chemical industry thus has to embrace the influences of these organisations. Next to the literature review of chapter two and this section, three interviews have been conducted to complement the sector description of this study. The aim of these interviews was to uncover the most recent challenges the industry faces regarding technology adoption. These interviews resulted in a list of barriers to adoption. The following section presents these barriers.

3.4. Barriers towards adoption of clean innovations

The carbon-neutral challenge faced by the industry is one of a recent nature. Therefore, it is valuable to acquire insights that have not yet been described in the scientific literature from industry experts. Three explorative interviews have been held. The interviews focus on three different aspects of adoption. The first interviewee was the director of Urgenda, a consulting firm specialising in sustainable (energy) transitions. She elaborated on what she finds the most considerable challenges towards zero-emission technology adoption in the chemical industry. Second, a researcher from the University of Utrecht has been interviewed about his research on heat pump adoption in the chemical industry. Third, an industry expert with decades of experience in R&D management is asked to give

an insider view in the decision making and politics of technology adoption. The interview transcripts, including a short introduction to all three interviewees, can be found in Appendix I, II, and III.

The interviews found that the most pressing barriers for the transition come from six sources: the feedstock, ownership, uncertainty, market environment, the innovation system, and financial measures. These barriers slow down, or in the worst case even block, the adoption of sustainable innovations. Table 5 below summarises the adoption barriers. Further explanation is given below the figure.

Table 5 Barriers of adoption in the chemical industry

Barrier	Short description
<i>Feedstock</i>	Type of material processed by a specific firm. Fossil fuel dependent firms are more likely to hold a sustainable transition.
<i>Ownership</i>	Overseas or local control. Overseas owners can have different sustainability targets and therefore hamper a sustainable transition.
<i>Uncertainty</i>	The degree of certainty. Investments and process interruptions are typically costly in the chemical industry. Therefore, certainty about future performance is essential.
<i>Market environment</i>	Market lock-in. The distance between production firms and final customers, as well as a position in the middle of the supply chain, makes it difficult to change products or processes.
<i>Innovation system</i>	Network(s) of agents involved in the generation, diffusion and Utilisation of technology. The chemical industry focuses on incremental innovations. Not only because of cost-cutting but also to prefer using proven technologies and standardisation.
<i>Financial measures</i>	Financial measures are used by companies to evaluate projects. The chemical industry typically uses financial measures that promote short-term profitability.

The first barrier identified is the type of material processed by the specific firm, its feedstock. Some companies, e.g. oil refineries, fear their core business cannot survive in a carbon-neutral economy. Using lobbying initiatives and participation in roadmap setting, these start to meddle with public policy to slow down the transition. Hampering change is their best strategy as they are trapped between their shareholders and the knowledge that their business model is not sustainable (M. Minnesma, personal communication, 10 April 2019).

Moreover, barriers arise from ownership. Multinational ownership hampers the adoption of new technologies due to internal politics or decision-making structures. For instance, even though local governments and facility managers can agree on a particular investment, it happens that overseas management decides against it as they do not similarly value sustainability. Furthermore, it is perilous for local management to engage in risky investments that overseas management does not necessarily support. Failing evokes a fear at the local facility of being underappreciated if such projects go south (P. de Jong, personal communication, 27 February 2019; M. Minnesma, personal communication, 10 April 2019). Consider Figure 14, which explains the innovation system of the chemical industry. This barrier suggests that the chemical industry's adoption system also includes forces from within the focal firm.

Indeed, uncertainty is mentioned as one of the main barriers by all interviewees. The industry requires a high degree of certainty about the viability of technologies as their product has to meet strict requirements, and downtime is very costly. Even though uncertainty is not explicitly mentioned in the previous sections, it is clear that uncertainty plays a prominent role in innovation adoption. Examples are participating in collaborative platforms to share development risks with other parties or meddling in politics to influence regulatory strictness.

Fourth, the barrier of the market lock-in. Being a business to business (b2b) supplier who is not in direct contact with the final customers, the chemical industry does not feel it can revolutionise its products. However, because the industry does not change, so do the manufacturers who eventually contact the customers. The system seems to be locked in this position. Furthermore, the European industry is focussing efforts on specialised chemicals more and more. Therefore, companies split, and control of the value chain is decentralised. The decentralisation hampers further heat or material sharing (A. C. Kieft, personal communication, 7 April 2019).

Fifth, the innovation system of the chemical industry is mainly focused on incremental innovation. Complementary to the insights from literature, this is not only because firms mainly focus on cost-cutting. Another reason is that technology suppliers prefer standardisation to decrease costs and risks further. Though this has proven effective at cost reduction, it is a less suitable innovation mode to find zero pollution production process. New technologies have little success as they are typically not accepted in the highly concentrated market or bought up by a single player hampering further diffusion. Eventually, a lot of companies use the 'wait-and-see' strategy.

Finally, the financial measures used by companies to evaluate projects have a strong tendency towards high returns on investments (ROI). Using ROI as a primary measure, in turn, incentivises managers to prioritise short term gains over long term advances. Using this measure contrasts with the often decade long investment cycles and exploitation periods of the machinery. Furthermore, Chemical production facilities are the target of hostile private equity firms. They buy plants and strip them of long-term investments. By doing so, they increase the company's short-term profitability, increase the share value, and selling it for a profit quickly. This practice destroys a company's competitive advantage in the long run, as it leaves the plants trailing their competitors and running on old equipment. Ironically, the money for these hostile takeovers comes from profit-seeking banks and pension funds. Yet, this is counter-intuitive as pension funds should have interest in relatively stable, low-risk stocks.

To end on a positive note, not all interactions in the chemical industry hamper adoption. Governmental support can increase adoption through both advice, setting targets and providing financial aid. Financial aid works under the condition that the support is of enough duration and value. Furthermore, governmental involvement is valuable when participating in collaborative platforms. These empower firms to tackle challenges collectively and share risks. Another positive outcome can be expected when a motivated employee holds a position of power in an organisation. This position would ideally be one with the autonomy and authority of a CEO but who fully commits to transitioning the company (P. de Jong, personal communication, 27 February 2019; M. Minnesma, personal communication, 10 April 2019).

Figure 15 provides a summary of the characteristics of the chemical industry that influence adoption. It combines the insights from chapter two with the innovation strategies and barriers presented above. These industry characteristics are important considerations while designing the TOE

framework applied to the chemical industry. The following chapter describes how this unification is executed.

	Bulk chemicals market	Speciality chemicals and pharmaceutical market.
	Highly centralised, efficient and incumbent production processes.	Typically produced on a small scale.
	Operate on global- and oligopolistic markets, new firms experiencing high entry barriers.	Production in close collaboration with the client. New firms experience high entry barriers.
	Long investment cycles, high sunk costs. Volatile product prices. Outdated financial measures.	Long investment cycles, high sunk costs. More stable prices with higher markups. Outdated financial measures.
	Limited opportunity for product differentiation. Feedstock can determine the willingness to adopt sustainable process technologies.	Competition comes from other types of materials. Feedstock can determine the willingness to adopt sustainable process technologies.
	Exposed to governmental support schemes and international trade barriers. Simultaneously, subsidies support basic research and lobbying efforts from industry alter rules and regulations.	Products are less exposed to international competition. Pharmaceuticals production and dealing are heavily regulated.
	Focus on incremental technology or process innovation aimed to enhance productivity. Radical innovation is done in collaboration with many industry actors, including competitors and regulators. Lock-in effect due to position in the value chain.	Speciality chemical producers, and particularly pharmaceutical firms, focus on product improvement. Lock-in effect due to position in the value chain.

Figure 15 Overview of characteristics of the industry - repeated

3.5. Chapter summary

Diffusion theories come in many shapes and forms. One theorist, however, can be seen as the forefather of most.

Rogers (1962) focused on spreading a technology based on hearsay because Roger's is a sociologist. He focuses on diffusion in the form of communication among members of a particular population or group. In this theory, the rate of adoption is determined by the type and relationships within the mass media or interpersonal communication channels in a particular industry. Most remembered is

the gaussian distribution of consumers into five categories of innovativeness. These are the innovators, early adopters, early majority, late majority and laggards. The cumulative adoption of which results in an S-shaped curve. This section of adoption is expanded upon by the Mathematical Modelling of Diffusion theorists. As the name suggests, this line of research quantifies the diffusion theory giving it prescriptive capabilities (Bass, 1969).

Next to this societal view on adoption, Rogers (1962) supported a more innovation-specific explanation of why some technologies survive as others fail. Following Ostlund (1974), Rogers formulated a list of innovation attributes that determine an innovation's perceived value. The innovation with the highest perceived value is most likely to outperform and become the dominant solution. This legitimisation of innovative behaviour has yielded a wide variety of innovation attributes, including the absorptive capacity of an organisation and complementary products to the innovation (Cohen & Levinthal, 1990; Karshenas & Stoneman, 1993).

So far, the theories proposed are aimed at consumer adoption. Another level of complexity is added when an organisation has to agree on adoption. In this case, Rogers found that there are five phases in the adoption process. First, a performance gap is identified and is put on the agenda. Second, a technology is selected that solves the performance gap. This is followed by a stage of restructuring of the organisation and innovation to make the technology work. From this point, the usage spreads through the organisation using active clarification and routinisation. This line of reasoning is expanded by the Technology Acceptance Model of Davis (1985). Together with a range of other authors, Davis further identifies the criteria of individuals to use new technology (Venkatesh & Davis, 2000).

On the contrary, some theorists have found little correlation between the adoption process they studied and the theories of Rogers (Downs & Mohr, 1976). Given the wide variety of social systems, Determinants of Innovation theorists argue that the context determines why an innovation is adopted. The leading model in this branch of literature is the Technology, Organisation and Environment (TOE) framework by Tornatzky (1990). This theory seems to fit the objective of this research the most. It allows for contextual influences and analyses on the organisational level.

Next, this chapter introduced the innovation adoption behaviour in the chemical industry. First, the economic and regulatory dynamics of the chemical industry proved unsuitable grounds for rapid innovation adoption. The market favours globally operating- and highly concentrated production. Regulatory interventions are usually limited to local agreements on emissions, as (inter)national regulation is (indirectly) controlled by these influential firms through lobbying. The low margins obtained from the global competition, combined with the business-as-usual regulatory interventions, incentivise incremental innovations.

Some radical innovations do still occur, though. As the historical trends point to the minimalization of human capital and operation costs, R&D resources have become increasingly scarce. Collaborations with suppliers, knowledge institutions and governments are sought to remain innovative. Although proximity still plays a critical part in developing innovations, the improved infrastructure provides options for long-distance collaboration. Therefore, the chemical industry has become increasingly interconnected. This has created an interdependency between a wide range of adoption system actors. All combined, these mechanisms hinder the industry's ability to adapt to new environments quickly.

The TOE framework seems to be the most suitable cornerstone theory for this study. The TOE framework embraces context dependency as it is often combined with industry-specific criteria or theoretical extensions. However, it has only been validated in services- (mainly hotel and healthcare) and information system industries (van Oorschot et al., 2018). Given the unique characteristics of the chemical industry, industry-specific adoption criteria need to be added to the TOE model. This is described in the following chapter.

4. Technology adoption in the chemical industry, A new model

So far, this research has focussed on the first research question, discovering the extent to which cornerstone theories apply to the chemical industry. The previous chapter showcased a wide variety of innovation adoption frameworks. These models were compared and contrasted with the characteristics of the chemical industry. Because of the level of analysis and its ability to adapt to different contexts, the Technology-Organisation-Environment (TOE) framework seems particularly fitting to the research objectives.

In short, the TOE framework is an organisational level model which uses three different clusters of criteria to explain why adoption takes place. These three clusters, or contexts, are the technological, organisational and environmental contexts. The model results from a literature review and combined effort by Tornatzky and Fleischer (Drazin, 1991; Tornatzky et al., 1990). The usefulness of the TOE model is evident from the number of contexts in which it is used. For instance, consistent empirical support for TOE is provided by numerous IT, manufacturing practices and service system adoption studies (Correia Simões et al., 2020; Oliveira & Martins, 2011; van Oorschot et al., 2018).

Still, the standard model has limitations. First, the model has not been applied in the context of the chemical industry. As Downs & Mohr (1976) argue, the context partially determines what adoption criteria are valuable. As such, contextually relevant criteria need to be added to the TOE framework. Second, TOE is not a dynamic framework. This means that the framework does not account for potentially changing criteria weights. This chapter proposes a new framework to overcome the first problem. The challenge surrounding changing criteria weights is discussed in chapter six. All in all, the new model should be an extension to the current TOE model, both for embracing more complex influences on criteria weights and the context in which it is used. The dotted line visualises this extension in Figure 16 below.

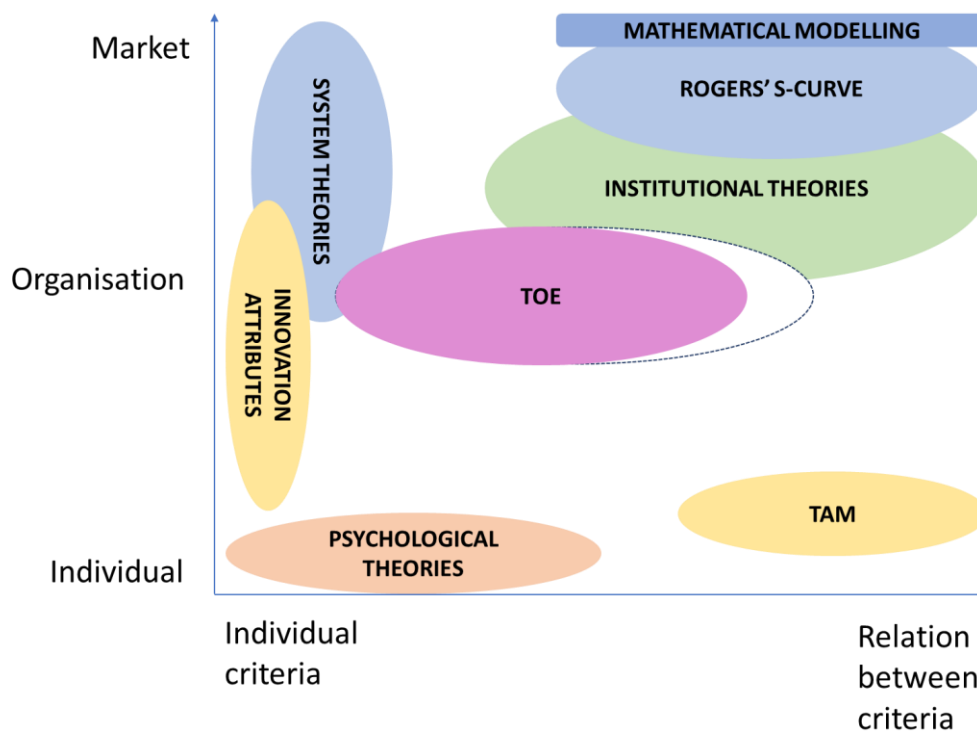


Figure 16 positioning of the new model

To tackle the first limitation, literature is used to identify adoption criteria specific to the chemical industry. The first section of this chapter takes a deep dive into this literature. Fu et al. (2018) recently performed a systematic literature review, collecting the factors that affect the adoption of sustainable process technologies. The references found in this study are analysed in detail, yielding twenty-two adoption criteria. These criteria will be used in the remainder of the report and serve as the TOE backbone's meat.

However, another view on innovation adoption in the industry has been uncovered. Instead of working from a general adoption theory and adding context-specific criteria, Dieperink et al. (2004) suggest building an adoption model based on a selection of case studies done for three particular sustainable process technologies used in the dutch process industry and the built environment. The second section elaborates on this adoption model. The model aims to unify a variety of diffusion theories into one coherent framework. Finally, the third section compares these two approaches and suggests a framework for adoption in the chemical industry.

4.1. Factors of importance for the adoption of sustainable process technologies

Low carbon innovations tend to be voluntarily adopted in the process industry only when they provide economic benefits and create equal or better product properties. I.e. the two main criteria are financial benefits and product quality (Wesseling et al., 2017). Unlike other (B2C) sectors, sustainable production is generally not seen as an added value to the products. This hampers radical sustainable process innovation, as these do not necessarily go paired with any economic co-benefits (Trianni et al., 2016; Wesseling et al., 2017). Of course, there are other reasons for the industry to adopt sustainable innovations. A more fine-grained analysis of the adoption research in the global process industry has yielded twenty-two criteria that influence adoption. It is vital to note the difference between the process industry and the chemical industry. The chemical industry is a subset of the process industry. The process industry also includes the textile-, food-, and machinery industries (Chenier, 2002).

Table 6 below gives an overview of the decision criteria of sustainable process technologies (Fu et al., 2018). For each cluster, i.e. columns of the table, the adoption criteria which significantly influence process technology adoption are listed. These criteria are selected based on regression models published in peer-reviewed articles between 1945 and 2016 (Fu et al., 2018).

Table 6 An overview of adoption criteria of sustainable process technologies. - (Fu et al., 2018)

Market pressure	Legitimacy pressure	Information characteristics	Firm characteristics	Technology characteristics	Network characteristics
Market stakeholders	Coercive pressures	Information uncertainty	Size	Relative advantage	Membership
Customer demand	Mimetic pressure	Information sources	Ownership	Costs	Cooperation
Market competition			Responsibility	Compatibility	
Resource price			Human capital intensity		
			Technological capability		
			Resource intensity		

Knowledge stock (i.e. Adoption experience)
Environmental tools

From the table, it is clear that product quality and economic benefits play a role in the chemical industry. Yes, technological- and firm characteristics play a role in the adoption process. However, it seems clear that influences from outside the production firm play a sizable part too. Pressures from the market, i.e. customers and competitors, and legitimisers, i.e. regulators and industry standards, steer the decision-making process. Furthermore, information- and network characteristics, such as the level of uncertainty or being a member of a business group, also significantly influence the adoption of sustainable process technologies by firms.

It is found that the adoption criteria are dependent on the technology considered for adoption. For instance, placing a sulphur scrubber at the factory's exhaust can be mainly motivated by regulation and little by resource prices. As explained in the second chapter, this work identifies six types of sustainable process technologies. These types are end of pipe technologies, energy/material substitution, CO₂/emission reduction, energy/material efficiency, recycling and general sustainable technologies.

The remainder of this section will elaborate on the different factors mentioned and the specific contexts in which they were found. Each criteria cluster, i.e. columns of Table 6, is elaborated on in a separate subsection. All results discussed in the text below are valid for all types of technology unless specified otherwise.

Influence of other market pressure

Market pressures are the perceived pressures from the market stakeholders, customer demand, competition and resource price. Market stakeholders include customers, suppliers and competitors. All but one of the factors have been found essential incentives for adoption. Market competition, specifically the degree of price competition, has only been found significant in electromechanical and electronic applications, such as process controllers. Some other notable exceptions to influences from market pressures have been found. First, the price increase of emissions through the European Emission Trading System did not increase the adoption of clean technologies as it triggers a wait-and-see strategy. Second, customer demand did not prove to affect the adoption of energy-saving-, fuel substitution- and recycling technologies (Arvanitis & Ley, 2013; Leenders & Chandra, 2013; Löfgren et al., 2014).

Influence of legitimacy pressures

The influence of governmental interventions is expressed as legitimacy pressures. Legitimacy pressure theoretically consists of three factors: coercive-, mimetic and normative pressures. Following the definition of DiMaggio and Powell (1983), coercive pressure is the force that a firm experiences from institutions, or entities on which they depend, to behave in a certain way. Mimetic pressure is the inclination of organisations to imitate their environment. This behaviour comes from the belief that the other companies are successful and that this success can be obtained by exhibiting similar behaviour. Normative pressure comes from the professionals with similar jobs who collectively define appropriate behaviour (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983).

The effect of normative pressure on adoption in the chemical industry has been studied, and the results have been contradictory. It is uncertain what the impact is of the normative pressures and, given the organisational level of analysis of this research, is therefore not considered for this research (Fu et al., 2018). On the contrary, coercive regulation imposed by governments is effective. Furthermore, voluntary standards have been found to support incremental innovations (Jiménez, 2005). More debated interventions are environmental policies. The effectiveness of these seems to increase the adoption of end-of-pipe technologies only.

Furthermore, environmental policies little affected small and medium enterprises (Triguero et al., 2015). The effect of mimetic pressure on adoption overall is positive (Arvanitis & Ley, 2013; Popp, 2010). However, there is no direct impact of mimetic pressure on end-of-pipe technology adoption. It seems that this relation is mediated by internal learning at the plant level and does not simply transfer between plants (Bonilla et al., 2015).

Information pressure

So far, the effects of the marketplace and governments have provided concrete insights into the drivers and barriers of sustainable process technology adoption. On the contrary, information characteristics are more abstract constructs of adoption. Studies on the role of information pressure focus on uncertainty and source diversity. At the core of decision making is information uncertainty (Lipshitz & Strauss, 1997). In the context of technology adoption by production facilities, many types of uncertainty exist. Examples are policy uncertainties, financial uncertainties and technical performance uncertainty, to name a few (Arvanitis & Ley, 2013; Borghesi et al., 2015; Triguero et al., 2013). However, uncertainty about competitor- and customer behaviour does not significantly affect adopting behaviour (Weng & Lin, 2011).

A firm unaware of the environmental challenges does not actively seek technologies that prevent further damage. Obtaining information thus is the key to the success of sustainable process technology adoption (Arvanitis & Ley, 2013). Acquiring information from different sources, both internally and from organisations surrounding the production firm, positively affects adoption (Cainelli et al., 2015; Triguero et al., 2013).

The effect of firm characteristics

Extensive research is done to assess the effects of firm characteristics on adoption. Of the factors shown in Table 6, technological capabilities and knowledge stock have shown consistent significance as adoption determinants. Technology capabilities are typically measured as a compound construct. It combines research outputs, internal experience and innovation capabilities of a company (Fu et al., 2018). Innovation capability refers to activities related to innovation. These include, but are not limited to, the design and development of new products or services and the discovering of new markets and production processes (Bhupendra & Sangle, 2015). These measures positively influence the adoption of sustainable process technologies by companies. Some technologies do show this influence to a lesser extent than others (Luken et al., 2008; Triguero et al., 2015; Zhang et al., 2013, 2015). Clean technologies, for instance, require a broader innovative capability than pollution prevention technology adoption (Bhupendra & Sangle, 2015).

Knowledge stock refers to the level of experience a firm has with adopting sustainable process technologies. The adoption rate of sustainable technologies increases if a firm has more experience with adopting technologies. This relation is not valid when previous investments in sustainable technologies adhere to the new environmental standards (Bonilla et al., 2015; Hammar & Löfgren,

2010). The second aspect of knowledge stock is patent stock. The increase in sustainable process technology patents could promote developed technologies, but it might hamper less advanced ones (Popp, 2010).

Of all firm characteristics, firm size is the most widely studied variable. This is in part because firm size can be used as a proxy for a multitude of measures (i.e. employees, revenues and production capacity, to name a few), and partly because these measures are relatively easy to measure (del Río González, 2009; Fu et al., 2018). Scholars have not reached a consensus on whether the firm size is relevant or not (Fu et al., 2018). Larger firms typically have more slack resources and access to knowledge, which positively affect adoption. On the contrary, smaller firms are more likely to be early adopters of new technologies while larger plants wait until installing new equipment (Bellás & Nentl, 2007; Fu et al., 2018).

Like firm size, ownership, human capital intensity, and resource intensity all positively affect adoption but not in all cases, all the time. Foreign ownership usually stimulates the adoption of sustainable technologies as partners introduce new technologies. Typically, these companies prefer post-combustion technologies as these are cheaper (Popp, 2010). However, power generation technologies are usually not considered by foreign-owned plants as this is not in their control. Furthermore, state-owned firms have easy access to finance and are thus more likely to adopt sustainable technologies (Arvanitis & Ley, 2013; Luken et al., 2008). The second inconsistent measure is human resources. This measure includes investment per employee, education level, experience and wages. In general, there is a positive relationship between human resources and the adoption of sustainable technologies (Arvanitis & Ley, 2013; Blackman & Bannister, 1998; Cainelli et al., 2015). The last debated measure is resource intensity. The intensity is measured by resource costs or use by the firm. Higher energy costs only incentivise higher energy-saving investments (Arvanitis & Ley, 2013). An interesting observation is a correlation between technology adopted and the fuel used. Fossil based firms focus on investments in the European Emission Trading System, while biofuel users emphasise energy efficiency investments (Bonilla et al., 2015; Löfgren et al., 2014).

Of course, more factors have been studied but in limited quantities. Examples are a sense of responsibility and financial capabilities. The influence of a firms' sense of responsibility has only a limited amount of devoted studies. It boils down to the importance of internal support from top managers and internal stakeholders (Weng & Lin, 2011). On the other hand, a corporate social sustainability strategy has not significantly affected (Demirel & Kesidou, 2011). The financial capability, measured in profits or market share, does not seem to significantly affect adoption (Luken et al., 2008; Maynard & Shortle, 2001). Again, these studies have not been replicated often, and financial capability is not considered relevant.

Technology characteristics

Intuitively, the characteristics of the technology under consideration, e.g. the perceived relative advantage, cost and compatibility, influence their adoption (Sangle, 2011; Weng & Lin, 2011; Zhang et al., 2013, 2015). However, when considering specific advantages, their influence is not found to be consistent over different industries and technologies. This inconsistency implies that perceived relative advantage is a context-specific measure (Blackman & Bannister, 1998; Demirel & Kesidou, 2011). The financial cost of technology plays a negative role in adoption (Bellás & Nentl, 2007; Sangle, 2011).

Network characteristics

In the context of this work, a network is defined as the adopting firm that is a member in a set of relationships with external organisations (Fu et al., 2018). A positive relation between membership of business groups and adoption of energy-efficient and recycling technologies exists (Borghesi et al., 2015; Cainelli et al., 2015). A network with a diverse set of members optimises its effectiveness, as it spreads the risk of radical technologies. Therefore, it is crucial to collaborate with research institutions and private and public organisations (Cainelli et al., 2015; Triguero et al., 2013). An example of a successful collaboration network is the vertical integration of customers and business partners (Wu, 2013). However, not all types of networks help the adoption of sustainable process technologies. Membership to environmental- or political groups does not significantly influence adoption behaviour (Blackman & Bannister, 1998; Maynard & Shortle, 2001).

This list of adoption criteria can be interpreted as a first-order model for predicting sustainable process technology adoption. This model is presented in Figure 17 below.

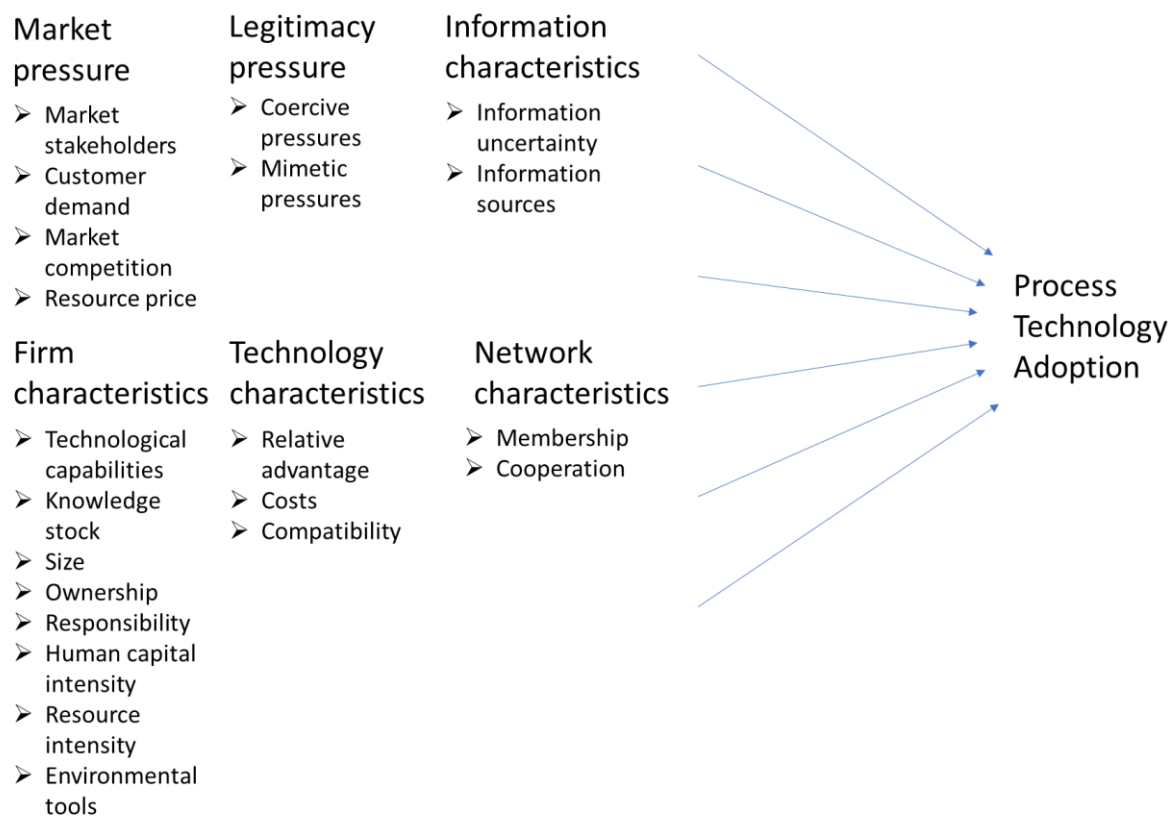


Figure 17 Overview of literature derived criteria for the adoption of sustainable process technologies.

4.2. General diffusion model of energy-saving innovations in the industry

As the previous chapter concludes, an adoption model applied to the chemical industry is required to address the industry's specific adoption process. The adoption criteria presented in the last section could, with minor alterations, serve this purpose. However, further research has delivered another alternative to creating an adoption model for the (chemical) industry. Dieperink et al. (2004) propose

an integrative adoption framework for energy-saving technologies in the industry and build environment. The framework is shown in Figure 18 below. This section elaborates on the creation of this model and its limitations.

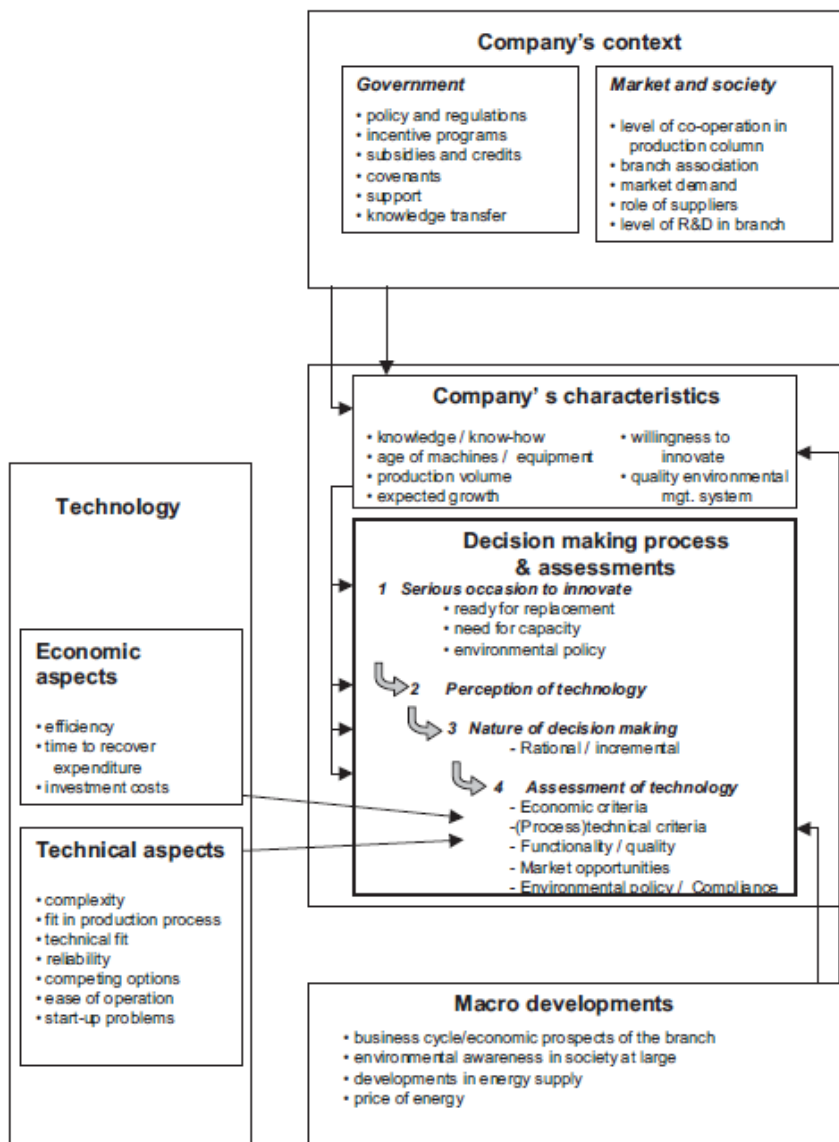


Figure 18 An integrative framework explaining the diffusion of innovations in the industry and build environment - (Dieperink et al., 2004)

A comprehensive model based on energy-saving technologies

The theoretical framework as presented above is a consolidation from Dutch research activities concerning the adoption of energy-saving innovations for the dutch chemical industry and the built environment. Specifically, the adoption of heat pumps combined heat and power and high-efficiency boilers (Dieperink et al., 2004).

In short, heat pumps use a mechanical vapour compression cycle to extract heat from one source, e.g. the outgoing product of a reactor, to upgrade and transfer this energy to another, e.g. the ingoing materials of a reactor. Combined heat and power works on the principle that the heat generated by a

power source, e.g. a turbine or fuel cell, is captured and transferred to a heat carrier, e.g. steam in a boiler. High-efficiency boilers are like regular boilers, but the exhaust gas is further cooled by a more considerable heat exchanging surface.

From their analysis, five clusters of explanations for adoption have been identified. Figure 18 presents these clusters and the relation between them. These clusters are, from top to bottom: Company's context, company's characteristics, technology, decision-making process & assessments and macro developments. The focus of this framework is the decision making process. The decision to adopt it does not directly follow superior technologies. Neither does it follow from coercive pressure from regulators. The decision process involves several steps. The decision process starts with a serious occasion to innovate. Second, a belief that technologies can provide a solution must exist. Only after these criteria are met, a decision process is started. This decision process is mainly guided by the firms' characteristics, i.e. procedures and risk appetite. Fourth, although many technological and economic criteria can be used to evaluate alternatives, it remains the question of which the organisation will use.

Furthermore, the companies context and macro developments influence both the company characteristics and the decision-making process. Regulations can create a culture that is more posed to value sustainable targets, for instance. Furthermore, new (emission) regulations can be a serious occasion to innovate. Similarly, perceived market- and societal demand can influence parts of the decision making process. For instance, communication about the technology by actors in the adoption system, i.e. technology suppliers, consultants and financial institutions, is required for the focal firm to consider that technology for adoption.

Limitations of the Dieperink model

The model proposed by Dieperink et al. (2004) provides an attractive overview of adoption criteria. The model accounts for both individual and organisational characteristics and decision-making processes. The model emphasises both technical characteristics and the role context and macro developments play in the adoption process. Furthermore, this model proposes a specific decision-making process.

However, there are reasons for further investigations into innovation adoption in the chemical industry. Dieperink et al. (2004) propose that the model works for both the industry and the built environment. This conclusion does not fit the view that industry-specific adoption models are needed to account for the different challenges faced by these industries (Downs & Mohr, 1976). This discrepancy can be explained by the type of technologies investigated. The insights from this study are based on three technologies. Namely, heat pumps, combined heat and power and condensing boilers. Although these technologies create some variety in technological characteristics, it should be noticed that all three of them are energy-saving machines. These types of machines are used as emission reducers in both the built environment and the process industry (Banks, 2012). However, their applicability in both contexts is limited.

First and foremost, high-efficiency boilers, as discussed in this article, are solely used in domestic settings. Secondly, heat pumps are most efficient when used continuously and have a relatively low-temperature range (Banks, 2012). Characteristics that do not typically fit with the requirements of the chemical industry. Similarly, combined heat and power applications require both electrical power and heat in a predetermined proportion for the technology to work efficiently. As these examples show, the technologies used for this model provide only a narrow view of the adoption challenges present

in the chemical industry. A broader scope of adoption situations, e.g. end of pipe technologies or feedstock changes, can represent other adoption criteria. It seems that with a broader technical scope, the unification of these industries seems to be less evident.

Comparing the Dieperink model with general adoption models

The observant reader will have noticed that the Dieperink model resembles that of the TOE model. Although a little bit of juggling is required, i.e. the companies context has to be merged with the macro developments to create the 'Environment' section from TOE, the structure of both is quite similar. This implies that the methodology used by Dieperink et al. (2004) to create this framework, possibly by accident, proves the validity of using the TOE framework to describe innovation adoption in the chemical industry.

Additionally, as argued by the creators of this model, it shows remarkable overlap with insights from general adoption literature. Specifically, Rogers (1983), Daft (2001) & Kemp et al. (1998) are used as examples of leading authors in the field of innovation adoption research. Although plenty of overlap between the proposed model and literature exists, it is the applied nature of the proposed model from which most differences emerge (Dieperink et al., 2004). For instance, Rogers (1983) also argues for innovation attributes and the need for change agents to promote innovations. However, the detailed process description given by Dieperink et al. (2004) only seems to focus on the first two stages of the innovation process in organisations as proposed by Rogers (1983).

Similarly, Daft (2001) argues for the importance of awareness by organisational members and the importance of customers and legislation to create the occasion to innovate. However, where Daft (2001) aimed to make a general model for organisational change, the technological focus by Dieperink et al. (2004) adds technological characteristics. Finally, the explanations for diffusion presented here are representative of those proposed by Kemp et al. (1998). Again, discrepancies occur as Kemp et al. mainly focus on the overall diffusion of a technology. First through niches and later as part of the technology regime (Kemp et al., 1998).

It should also not be understated how comprehensive the Dieperink model seems to be. In comparison to the industry-specific adoption criteria collected by Fu et al. (2018), only a hand full of criteria are missing in this model. The following section will elaborate on the differences between the two approaches and propose the adoption framework of this thesis.

4.3. Combining adoption criteria and TOE

The previous chapter established that the TOE model best suits the adoption of sustainable process technologies. The first section of this chapter argued that decision criteria identified in the adoption literature of the chemical industry should be incorporated in the default TOE model. However, Dieperink et al. (2004) suggested another approach to develop an adoption model. This section will reflect on both methods and propose a comprehensive adoption model based on all insights from the literature. First, the differences between the Dieperink model and the criteria delivered by Fu et al. are investigated. Secondly, an analysis of the TOE model explains why it is a handy descriptive tool for process technology adoption. Finally, the combined adoption model is presented, and its managerial applications are outlined.

Bibliographic research versus the case study approach

There is a conceptual difference between the work of Fu et al. (2018) and Dieperink et al. (2004). The first is a collection of adoption criteria obtained from a bibliographic analysis stretching multiple decades. In contrast, the latter is a model obtained from a secondary analysis of a dozen empirical studies focusing on three specific energy-saving technologies. To aid in understanding this subsection, it is suggested to keep the figures on pages 37 and 38 as reference. As displayed in Figure 17, the criteria collected by Fu et al. (2018) could also be used to predict adoption following a first-order model directly. However, it must be acknowledged that the criteria primarily relate to adoption indirectly through the decision-making process (Dieperink et al., 2004). An advantage of the Dieperink model over the categorisation of Fu et al. (2018) is the fundamental understanding is incorporated. Concerning the criteria, some differences emerge. In general, the Dieperink model houses more specific criteria. E.g. 'fit in the production process' and 'technical fit' are represented by Fu et al. (2018) as 'compatibility'. This difference flows from the number of sources taken into account by the models. Whilst Dieperink et al. (2004) base their findings on a dozen or so case studies, Fu et al. (2018) analysed hundreds of peer-reviewed papers. Inevitably, the clustering process in the latter case creates more extensive, more generic groups of criteria.

More specifically, whilst Fu et al. (2018) cluster all relative advantages of the technologies, the Dieperink model specifies criteria such as 'reliability', 'competing options' and 'ease of operations'. The same goes for the economic aspects described in the Dieperink model, which are all taken together under the 'costs' criteria by Fu et al. (2018). Moreover, the criteria listed under the government section of the companies context in the Dieperink model are mainly represented by the 'coercive pressure' criteria by Fu et al. (2018). However, Fu et al. (2018) seem to be more elaborate concerning the firm characteristics. 'Size', 'ownership' and 'human capital intensity' are not present in the Dieperink model. Furthermore, Fu et al. (2018) do not cluster macro developments as a part of the adoption process. However, components of this cluster are not lost. For instance, the 'price of energy' and 'economic prospect' are incorporated as the 'resource price' and 'customer demand' or 'market competition' respectively. Furthermore, 'environmental awareness in society at large' in the Dieperink model is discussed under information sources by Fu et al. (2018) as 'information sources'. However, in the latter, it is argued that it is not aware of society at large but that of the focal company that counts. The 'developments of energy supply' criteria are not mentioned in Fu et al. (2018).

In conclusion, the two approaches discussed provide similar adoption criteria. On the face of it, the model proposed by Dieperink et al. (2004) seems more specific. However, the more general clusters of Fu et al. (2018) reveal similar criteria after closer inspection. In their favour, Fu et al. (2018) specify the use of criteria for different technologies, i.e. not limited to energy-saving technologies. It is proposed to use the criteria collected by Fu et al. (2018) and incorporate them into the TOE model from Tornatzky and Fleischer (1990).

The unification of theory into the technology adoption model for the chemical industry

The previous sections have explained why using the adoption criteria derived by Fu et al. (2018) in combination with the TOE framework seems suitable for describing sustainable process technology (SPT) adoption in the chemical industry. The first step in the unification process is to place the different criteria clusters into their respective TOE category. Here, the criteria identified by Tornatzky and Fleischer are leading. Figure 19 displays the resulting model.

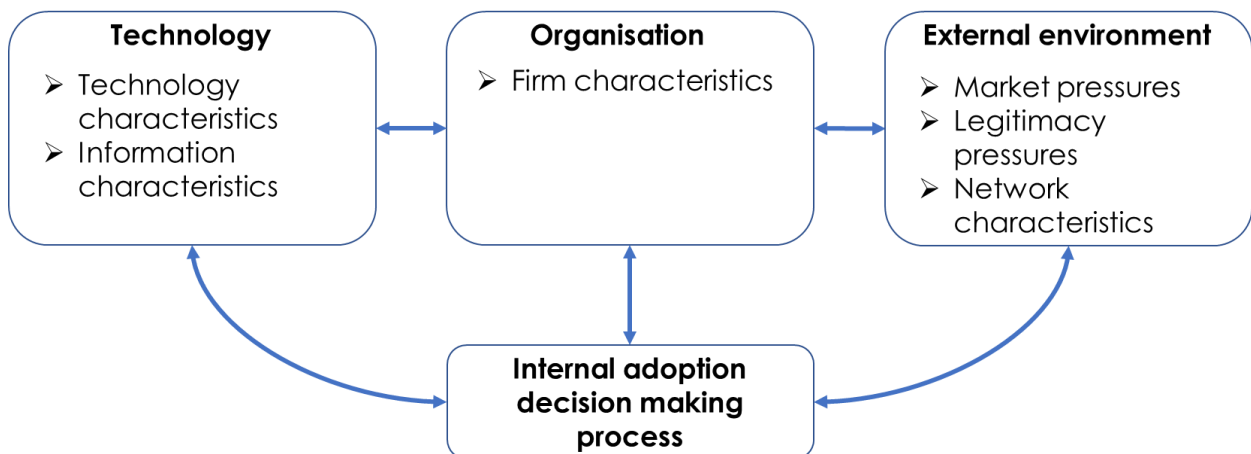


Figure 19 Combining the TOE model with process technology adoption criteria - step one, categorisation

Following the adoption factors ‘industry characteristics and market structure’ and ‘governmental regulation’ proposed by Tornatzky et al. (1990), pressures from the market and legitimacy pressures from governments are part of the external environment of the TOE model. Additionally, the ‘technology support infrastructure’ factor from the original model is represented by the cooperation criteria of Fu et al. (2018). As this criterion is part of the Network characteristics cluster, this too is added to the external environment. With respect to the TOE category of technology, two factors are mentioned to influence adoption. These are: ‘characteristics’ and ‘availability’. Evidently, ‘characteristics’ is similar to technology characteristics described by Fu et al. (2018). For information characteristics, its placement is less evident. Information characteristics refer to the sources of information, i.e. internal sources, clients, associations or conferences. It is therefore related to the external environment. However, information characteristics also relate to the uncertainty about the performance of a technology and information about its existence or availability (Fu et al., 2018). It is chosen to place the information characteristic cluster under the technology category, with the connotation that information can come from external sources. Finally, Tornatzky and Fleischer found that the organisation category contains ‘(in)formal linking structures’, ‘communication processes’, ‘size’ and ‘slack’. Fu et al. (2018) have also found these and more criteria and are clustered under firm characteristics. The next step is to the extent the criteria clusters. The application of TOE in the SPT adoption theory is given in Figure 20 below.

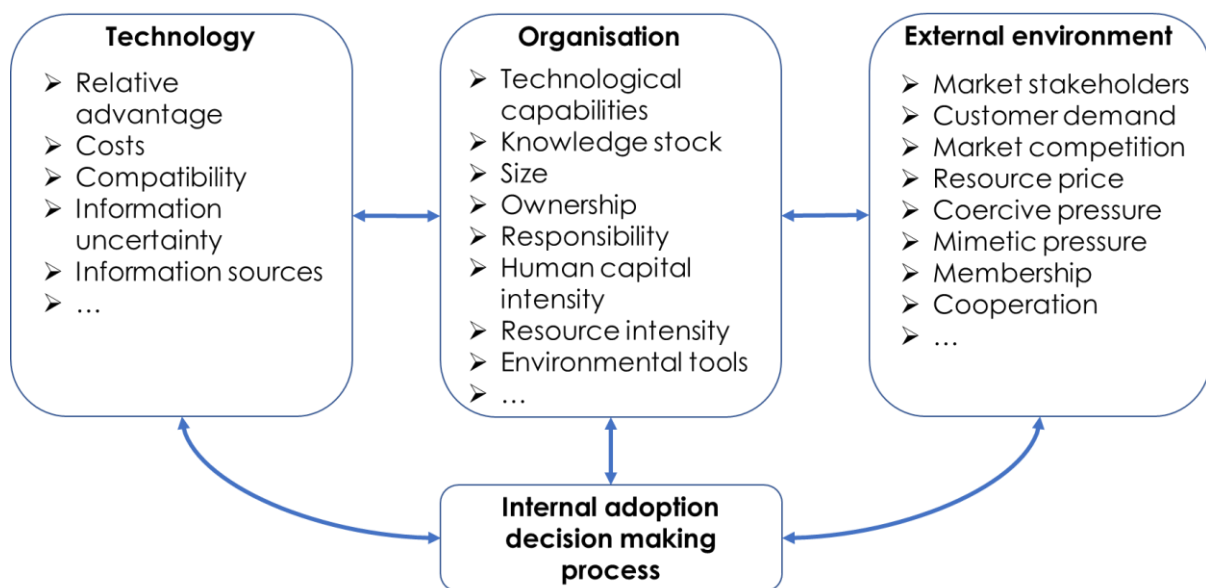


Figure 20 Framework 1.0 based on domain derived adoption criteria and fitted to the framework of Tornatzky & Klein (1990)

The framework, presented in Figure 20 above, results from the efforts presented in this thesis so far. General adoption literature has been reviewed to obtain a comprehensive image of possible adoption process descriptions (van Oorschot et al., 2018). Next, a selection is made based on the characteristics of the chemical industry and the organisational level of analysis of this work. The TOE model has been identified as the best candidate to describe adoption in this context. As far as is known, no other researcher has applied TOE for the chemical industry. Therefore, industry-specific adoption criteria were obtained from the literature (Fu et al., 2018) and added to the TOE model. Simultaneously, another approach to describing adoption in the chemical industry has been found (Dieperink et al., 2004). By working mainly from empirical observations, Dieperink et al. deduced general adoption criteria similar to those obtained from this research. It thus seems that both the top-down approach, i.e. applying a general theory to a particular context, and the bottom-up approach, i.e. generalising a set of adoption criteria and formulate a relation between them, converge to the same point. Next to the scientific relevance, this work should help the industry transition to a more sustainable future. It is, therefore, important that the framework proposed can also be applied in practice.

4.4. Chapter summary

The previous chapter established that, because of the level of analysis and its ability to adapt to different contexts, the Technology-Organisation-Environment (TOE) framework provides a solid basis to describe the adoption of sustainable process technologies (SPT) in the chemical industry (Tornatzky et al., 1990). Surprisingly, during the creation of this thesis, no other example was known in which TOE was applied to the chemical industry. The TOE framework is combined with industry-specific adoption criteria to tackle this limitation. These criteria are obtained from an extensive bibliographic analysis of decades of research into the adoption of process technologies (Fu et al., 2018). This systematic literature review has yielded twenty-two adoption criteria, divided over six clusters. These clusters are: 1) Market pressure, 2) Legitimacy pressure, 3) Information characteristics, 4) Firm characteristics, 5) Technology characteristics, and 6) Network characteristics.

Remarkably, another approach to creating an adoption model for the chemical industry was discovered in the literature. Dieperink et al. (2004) collected insights from adoption research of three particular energy-saving technologies in the Netherlands. Specifically, the study focused on heat

pumps, heat and power, and high-efficiency boilers in the industry and built environment. A new model was created by clustering the adoption criteria and linking these clusters to the adoption process (Dieperink et al., 2004). This approach differs from the previously suggested one in a fundamental way. The latter works from a set of adoption criteria and relations, creating a model using a bottom-up approach.

In contrast, this thesis analysed general adoption frameworks and applied the most suitable to the chemical industry. This strategy resembles a top-down approach to building a suitable model. Interestingly, both approaches yielded similar results. In comparison to the industry-specific adoption criteria collected by Fu et al. (2018), only a hand full of criteria are missing in the Dieperink model. Furthermore, the structure of both the Dieperink model and that of the TOE model is quite similar. In their favour, Fu et al. (2018) specify the use of criteria for different technologies, i.e. not only limited to energy-saving technologies. The requirements collected by Fu et al. (2018) are incorporated into the TOE model from Tornatzky and Fleischer (1990). This is done by linking the six clusters of criteria mentioned above with the factors specified under the three categories, i.e. technology, organisation and environment, of the TOE model.

5. Interview method

The literature study shows that adoption models become more applicable when they are industry-specific. That is to say, the context in which adoption takes place is crucial for the way decisions are made and criteria are valued. One great example of a theory that follows this logic is the TOE framework. This belief contrasts the general-purpose models, such as Rogers S-curve, aiming to unify all adoption situations in one model. These general-purpose models seem to miss the necessary contextual complexity needed for industry-specific evaluations. For the chemical industry, the process of adoption focuses not only on comparing alternatives based on perceived attributes but also on thoroughly understanding the physical and chemical implications of the alternatives.

The previous chapter proposed a new version of the TOE framework that provides an overview of all necessary criteria which have to be met for adoption to succeed. The framework is composed of empirically validated adoption criteria, and a peer-reviewed framework is used to organise the criteria. To see whether the proposed framework works in practice, its findings should correspond to real-world experience. This chapter elaborates on how this consolidation was executed. In the first paragraph, the general methodology is explained. Next, the specific tools and layout of the interviews are given. The third paragraph elaborates on the research(er) preparation, and finally, the selection procedure for participants is provided. The interview results are presented in chapter 6.

5.1. Structured interviews as a data collection tool

Using interviews as a data collection tool provides the researcher with professional explanations and personal views. These insights give meaning and perceptions on the subject of interest (Yin, 2014). To understand the complex interactions of the identified factors, a more contextual research methodology is required. Interviews. There exist three types of interviews, unstructured, semi-structured and structured interviews. Structured interviews, as proposed by Venkatesh and Davis (1996), can only be applied if interactions of interest are somewhat familiar to the researcher. The caveat of this approach is that it does not facilitate the discovery of new behaviours or mechanisms. Unstructured interviews are at the other end of the spectrum. It emphasises exploring uncharted research topics and can quickly identify the driving forces of a system. However, conclusions are often loose and hard to substantiate. Furthermore, it is not every day that a whole new area of research is found. Semi-structured interviews are deployed to bridge the hole between these two approaches.

Semi-structured interviews are a common data collection tool, primarily focussed on innovation in the chemical industry (Ren, 2009). Like structured interviews, a semi-structured interview follows a predetermined order of questioning and is deliberately steered by the researcher. Unlike structured interviews, the exchange between researcher and interviewee is fluid, allowing for more context-rich answers and discovering new directions of research aided by findings from the literature.

5.2. Interview design

The interview is structured such that participants are guided towards answering these main research questions. Namely, what are the criteria of adoption, how does the adoption system influence adoption and how does the preference of actors in the adoption system influence adoption. The complete list of questions can be found in Appendix XI. The remainder of this section discusses the structure of the interview. The structure is summarised in Figure 21 below.

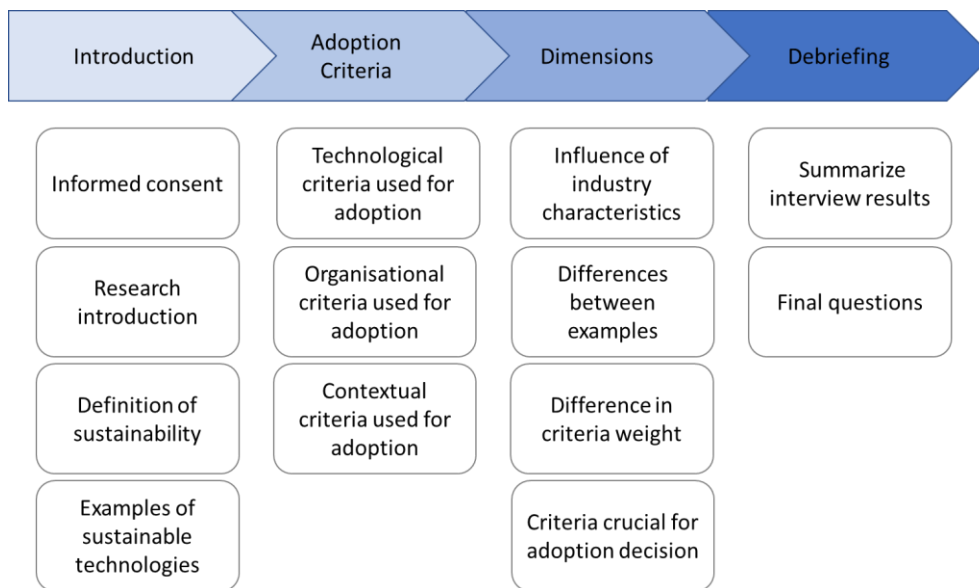


Figure 21 The interview structure

The first step of the interview is the introduction. The participant reads and signs the information letter and informed consent form. The template of which can be found in Appendix VII and VIII. The researcher is introduced, and the problem statement is used to introduce the research objectives. Then the participants are asked about their definition of sustainable technology. They are asked to give examples of such technologies that have been adopted in recent years. As the term *sustainable* has become quite the buzzword, it is expected that different individuals have different definitions for it. For this research, the definition of sustainable process technologies is all technologies that lower the emission of a factory.

Next, the interviewee is asked what adoption criteria were key when sustainable technologies are adopted. The adoption criteria are discussed through both unaided and aided questioning. Here the un-aided questions ask for actors that are deemed relevant to adoption. By starting with unaided questions, prior criteria categorisation can be validated, and the interviewee can mention unexpected adoption criteria. Only when no new criteria seem to emerge, the aided questions start. During the aided questions, example technologies are proposed to the interviewee to describe what reasoning was important to adopt or block adoption. The rationale behind posing aided questions using examples is that it might uncover some case-specific yet critical adoption criteria. A second advantage of discussing explicit technologies is that the interviewer can feel how willing to adopt the organisation in question. Is the most recent example of adoption done recently or over five years ago? However, discussing explicit technologies can nudge the participant into focussing their thought on only a limited number of examples. Therefore, it was important for the interview to first ask for criteria before diving into example technologies. The aided and unaided questioning approach is maintained throughout all steps in the interview.

Each mentioned technology was written down on technology cards, listing their specific criteria. Figure 22 shows an example of how these technology cards could be used.

e.g. Heat pump	e.g. Freeze drying	Example tech. 3
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Cost benefit • Production disruption • ... • ... 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Proof of concept • Business case • Environmental advantages • ... 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Criteria 1 • ... • ... • ...

Figure 22 Sustainable process technology criteria cards

The criteria and motivations of adoption can differ between the different technologies mentioned. Therefore, a natural transition to the adoption dimensions emerges. To reiterate, adoption dimensions are technological, organisational or contextual characteristics that, if changed, change a firm's adoption criteria. An example of adoption criteria is the closeness to the core production process of technology. A pump is less critical to eventual product specifications and is evaluated differently than a new reactor design.

Again the balance between giving the participant free room for interpretation and allowing enough context for the participant to provide answers important for the research appears. To provide such balance, progressively steering questions were presented to the participants. This line of enquiry aims to find two contrasting technologies or contexts in which the adoption criteria, or their importance, differ.

Finally, the participant is debriefed. A summary of the insights is given, and any questions of the participants are answered. The participant is thanked for their contribution, after which the interview is terminated.

In conclusion, the interview structure is designed so that interviewees are free to mention any adoption criteria they feel are important for adopting sustainable process technologies. Additionally, the relation between adoption criteria is explored through the lens of adoption dimensions. Throughout the interview, increasingly restrictive questions are asked. This ensures both out-of-the-box answers as well as more complex, structured responses.

5.3. Analysis methodologies

Research tools increase the efficiency and accuracy of the data analysis. The analysis aims to apply and extend the framework composed from the literature in the previous chapter. This is done by comparing the insights provided by the companies to each other and the new TOE framework from the literature.

For this research, it is preferred to record the interviews. Audiotapes give the researcher multiple advantages. First, it allows the researcher to reflect on their method of inquiry. Second, a more reliable interpretation of the information can be made after the interview is finished. Third, this eliminates distractions and interruptions during the interview that arise from writing down the answers. Finally,

the transcripts allow the interviewee to correct mistakes and allow further meta-analysis (Yin, 2014). Of course, permission is needed by the interviewee to record the session. The required forms can be found in Appendix V, VI and VII. After the transcriptions are done, the interviewees are asked to approve the information for use in this research. After transcription, the next step of data analysis is the organisation of the data. Although the interview was semi-structured, the information obtained has to be organised. For this thesis, it is decided to analyze by hand. Researching by hand makes it easier to find themes or clusters of criteria. Furthermore, it enables the researcher to add contextual nuances to the data obtained from the interpersonal contact during the meeting. In contrast, automated data analysis is more suitable for substantial sample sizes or when clear causalities are expected in the text, i.e., if A is said, B is expected to follow.

The general strategy of data analysis for this research relies on theoretical propositions (Yin, 2014). The data is analysed through the lens of the framework proposed in the previous chapter. By doing this, the interview data is organised alongside the relevant concepts. For example, the adoption criteria, adoption system actors and potentially criteria dimensions. These are the subject of the research questions. First, statements from the transcripts are interpreted and linked to this thesis research questions. Each statement is logged based on the sentence number and interviewed company. For instance, company C has stated that the scale-up of laboratory technologies has a lot of challenges. This statement can be found in companies C interview at sentence 59 and is recorded as 059C.

Furthermore, keywords, section themes as well as direct references to the original text are collected. The second step is to group the information in each interview per research question. These two steps are depicted in Figure 23 below.

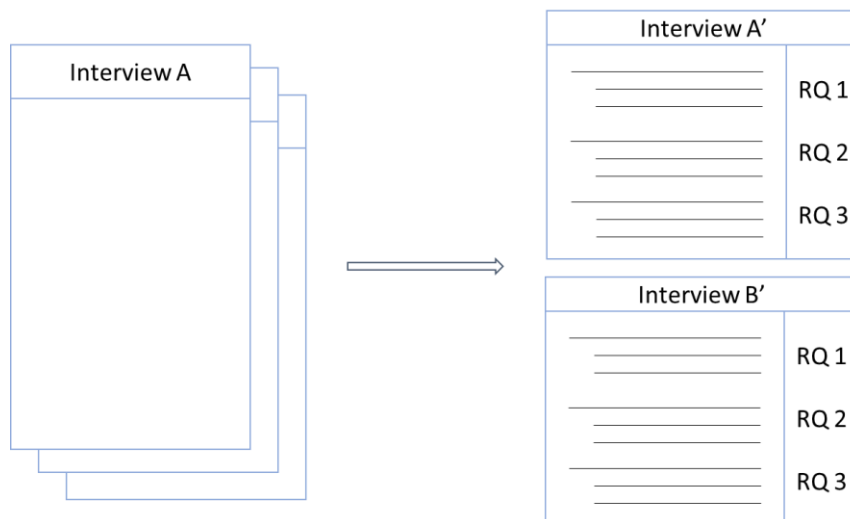


Figure 23 First two steps of the interview analysis. The recordings are transcribed and checked by the interviewee before further analysis.

Next, the indexed interview data are combined into one large table where data is stored. The conclusions per question are drawn, and a general decision is provided. This step is visualised in Figure 24. This last section is what can be found in the excel file separately delivered with this thesis. These conclusions are discussed in the next chapter.

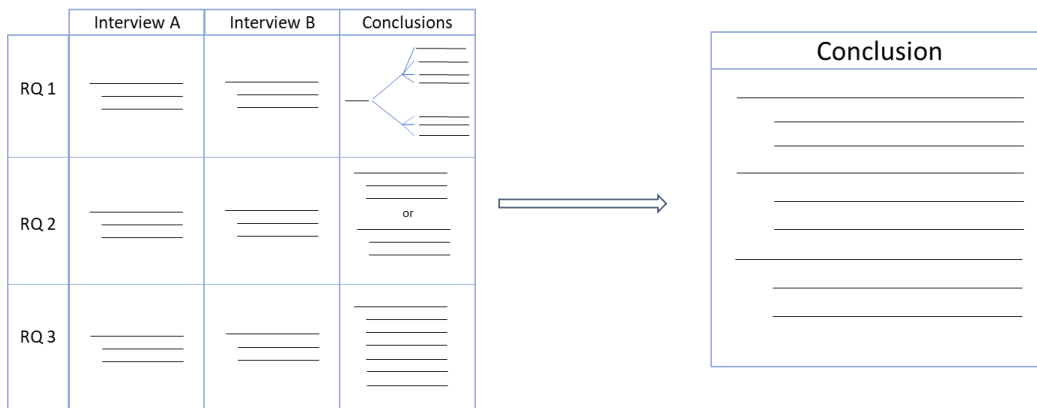


Figure 24 Last two steps of interview analysis. The answer to the RQs of each interview are compared, and a general conclusion is derived.

To summarise, the analysis is done by collecting the adoption criteria, adoption system actors and potentially criteria dimensions obtained from the interviews. These are compared to both the insights from the other interviews and the framework made based on the literature review. Furthermore, the technological and organisational challenges of adoption are identified during the adoption processes envisioned by the experts. Whom these experts were, is discussed in the next paragraph.

5.4. Selection procedure

The candidates for the demonstrative interviews are obtained from the Dutch chemical industry. From the introductory interviews held with M. Minnesma, it is evident that not all companies similarly make adoption decisions (See appendix I). Therefore, a broad range of companies should be addressed in this research. The participants need to have experience adopting at least one sustainable process technology and hold a role as decision-makers during this process. This means that the participants hold the role of technology or R&D manager or board membership throughout the adoption process.

This research uses the Institute for Sustainable Process Technology to obtain access to the industry leaders in the Netherlands. This highly organised industrial innovation network links research managers and CTOs from the different industries in the Netherlands. By using this network, some bias is introduced. Companies connected to this network are aware of the need for innovation and decreasing the carbon footprint of the Dutch industry. They can have a different stance on sustainable technology adoption than a company that is less aware of these trends (Arvanitis & Ley, 2013; Cainelli et al., 2015).

In total, fifteen production facilities have been addressed for this research. Of these, five agreed to participate in this research. The five interviews are spread around different sectors within the chemical industry, as shown in Table 7 below.

Table 7 Interviewee overview

Company	Size	Feedstock	Product (market)	(Last) Position	Age group	Education
DSM	L	Oil-based	Plastics (Specialty)	Senior science fellow	40-50	Chemical engineering (PhD)
Akzo Nobel	L	Oil-based	Paint/additives (Specialty)	CTO (ret.)	50+	Chemical engineering (PhD)
AVEBE	M	Biobased	Starch (Bulk)	CTO (ret.)	50+	(Bio) Chemical engineering (PhD)
Dishman	S	Biobased	Pharma (Specialty)	R&D director	40-50	Chemistry (PhD)
Dishman	S	Biobased	Pharma (Specialty)	Director Dishman Netherlands	40-50	Engineering Management (BSc)
Royal Cosun	M	Biobased	Food (Bulk)	Senior process technologist	40-50	(Bio) Chemical engineering (MSc)

The size category is based on the number of employees in the organisation. For this thesis, a small firm consists of less than 1000 employees. A medium-sized firm ranges between 1000 and 10.000 employees. A large firm has more than 10.000 employees. The feedstock of a company refers to the most common feedstock used for its products. A company that uses biobased feedstock can use natural gas as a heat source in its process and be still classified as biobased.

5.5. Chapter summary

Chapter four emphasises the importance of using context-specific decision criteria. It consolidates empirically derived adoption criteria specific for the chemical industry and a peer-reviewed adoption framework. As a result, the new framework 1.0 is proposed. This combination of criteria and framework has to be examined within the envisioned context.

To do so, semi-structured interviews are held with a variety of production facilities in the chemical industry. Semi-structured interviews are preferred as they allow interviewees to expand on their vision or experience whilst ensuring the topics discussed remain relevant to the research. This allows to simultaneously investigate the suitability of the framework whilst also allowing for novel criteria or interactions between criteria, i.e. a way to frame the criteria, to emerge.

To obtain these novel insights, the emphasis lies on discovering adoption criteria and so-called dimensions. At the start of the interview, the vital introductory information such as informed consent and agreeing on definitions are clarified. Next, adoption criteria are discussed through both unaided and aided questioning. Here the un-aided questions ask for actors that are deemed relevant to adoption. During the aided questions, example technologies are proposed to the interviewee to describe what reasoning was important to either adopt or block adoption. Throughout this discourse, it can become evident that decision criteria differ for different technologies. This discrepancy naturally leads to the discussion of the interrelation between decision criteria. Again, the interviewee is first allowed to hypothesise about relations. Their thought process is more and more aided by the interviewer, who contrasts technologies, organisational criteria, or environmental influences. As the interview comes to a close, the preliminary results are summarised for the participants. Time is made for the participant to ask any final questions about the interview or research in general.

Given the qualitative nature of the interviews, a content analysis is done to analyse the results. First, all interviews are transcribed. Next, the statements made in the interview have to be organised. Statements from the transcripts are interpreted and linked to this thesis research questions. Furthermore, keywords, section themes as well as direct references to the original text are collected. All insights are now sorted based on the corresponding research questions, and the conclusion for each is summarised.

The research makes use of the Institute for Sustainable Process Technology to obtain access to the industry leaders in the Netherlands. This highly organised industrial innovation network links research managers and CTOs from the different industries in the Netherlands. The interviewees come from five different companies with widely varying sizes and product markets. Finally, the interviewee had to have at least five years of experience in a relevant management position.

Now that it is clear how the interviews are conducted, the results can be presented. The next chapter goes into detail about the results from the interviews, including some unexpected insights surrounding the adoption criteria and adoption dimensions.

6. Interview results and analysis

The research questions divide the adoption process into its main components. The second research question refers to the adoption criteria used by the chemical industry when adopting process innovations. Next, it is hypothesised that the organisations surrounding the company ignite, steer and possibly terminate the adoption decisions made by the industry. The influences of this adoption system are central to the third research question.

The fourth research question discusses the adoption dimensions. It is hypothesised that for different situations, different adoption criteria are of importance. These situations can be the type of technology under consideration or the industry, i.e. pharmaceutical or polymer industry, in which the adoption occurs. These situations are referred to as the adoption dimensions.

Throughout the interviews, participants were free to expand on their answers. The semi-structured nature of the interviews has resulted in a range of insights and new fundamental ways of describing the adoption process. In addition to answering the research questions, the interviewees gave an exclusive view of the plans and challenges of the chemical industry. These plans have been reorganised into trends, a list of which is provided in appendix XVI. A different interview structure was tested before the final interview structure, as presented in the previous chapter. These interviews focus mainly on the adoption criteria used by the chemical industry and the adoption process in the chemical industry. An outline of the interviews is presented in Appendix IX. Given the feedback received from these interviews, a different interview structure was adopted. However, the insights obtained from these interviews are still presented in this work. The transcripts of all the interviews can be found in appendix X up to and including XV.

On their own, the interviews are a treasure trove of insights. This chapter summarises the result of those interviews. The adoption criteria are discussed in the first section. The second section expands on the adoption processes and adoption system in the chemical industry. The adoption dimensions are discussed in the third section. Finally, the fourth section elaborates on the definition of sustainable process technologies.

6.1. Adoption criteria

The interviews yielded is a list of decision criteria that can be categorised into those found in the literature. The aggregated list of adoption criteria is displayed in Table 8 below. Again, the categorisation proposed by Fu et al. (2018) is used to organise the criteria. This is done to correlate the criteria found in the literature with those coming from the interviews. Table 6 presents the criteria of each category in no particular order. Further explanation on the criteria is done below the table per category, i.e. Market pressure, Legitimacy pressure, etc.

Table 8 Aggregate adoption criteria obtained from the interviews

Market pressure	Legitimacy pressure	Information characteristics	Firm characteristics	Technology characteristics	Network characteristics
(Global) crisis	Managerial targets	Risk	Champion	Product quality	Collaborative network
Market place	Regulations	Time (to investigate)	Risk appetite	Safety	Suppliers
Public opinion	Regulatory enforcement	Development challenges	Culture	Ease of use	Lobbying
	Permits	Technology newness	Internal politics	Business case	
			Managerial vision	Ease of adoption	
			Business conditions	Process conditions	
			Knowledge management	Sustainability	

Market pressures

Market pressures are the perceived pressures from the market actors and resource prices. As noticed by one of the interviewees, it seems that large changes typically follow a crisis. The breakthrough of membranes in the 1970s resulted from the dauntingly large amounts of water that Dutch dairy companies had to evaporate. Another example is that a bulk producer of starch on the verge of bankruptcy decided to create a spin-off producing specialised proteins. This whole process stood in stark contrast with the culture and management of the parent company as, for instance, the initial capital was raised through venture capitalists. This spin-off eventually outperformed the parent company, which later reintegrated the spin-off. Market place relates to the expected demand from customers and the price of feedstock. From the viewpoint of the production facilities, clients determine the desired product quality, sometimes even tailored to the needs of specific clients. Public opinion can also be important, as it determines what kind of products are in use. If a company wants to make a product altering change in its process, like decreasing energy usage by using locally produced products, customers need to accept this. New product development too requires that public opinion allow it. For instance, there is a wide variety of vegan alternatives available. But as long as consumers are unwilling to pay extra and supermarkets do not ask for such products, large-scale production will not exist.

Legitimacy pressure

Legitimacy pressure refers to the coercive-, mimetic- and normative pressures a production firm experiences from both governments and competitors. From a globalisation standpoint, international

regulations and subsidies can change the price of bulk materials. This, in turn, alters the business case for adoption. Locally, some interviewees explained that new regulations are only incorporated after enforcement has taken place. The mere publication of new laws alone is not always enough to inspire change. Enforcement is needed to do so. The enforcement of regulations can be done by the permits given out by local governments or agreements made by (inter)national governments.

Conversely, regulations can also hamper sustainable initiatives. In the biobased industry, previous attempt to force a circular use of material creates inefficiencies. For instance, waste material from sugar production is transported to Germany while it could also be used closer to home.

Similarly, strict certification and regulation often hamper adoption in the pharmaceutical industry, especially of non-standard equipment. Furthermore, conflicting managerial targets on (long term) sustainability and (short term) revenue growth are sometimes set. The board wishes to present a sustainable future, e.g. complete emission reduction, but does not always allow for the funds or time to be freed to invest in large scale sustainable projects. As such, the current focus of production facilities goes to the low hanging fruits like energy management and the use of sustainable electricity. Managerial targets from parent companies are vulnerable to the pressures from other companies and governments. Managerial targets tend to conform to the status quo or regulations. However, since some production facilities are part of a multinational corporation, these targets must be met to stay in good standing with the parent company. As such, managerial targets have multiple legitimising pressures.

Information characteristics

Information characteristics are the perceived uncertainty of information and its sources. Underlining most adoption criteria is the discomfort with uncertainty. Most adoption decisions are dictated by decreasing the risk of failure. Both uncertainties of the new and the know-how about currently used technologies drive the adoption of conventional technologies. Combined, risk and uncertainty are seen as central to adoption. Changes to the core operations of a production facility are considered riskier and are therefore less likely to occur. Another critical part of the information is its timing.

In summary, if the time to investigate is short, readily available technologies are used. If engineers get sufficient time to develop technologies, however, more tailored and efficient technologies are used. Time, in the adoption process, is a precious good. It takes multiple years to design and build a factory. If extensive changes to a factory have to be made, this too takes years of planning. For example, company C embraces a wide variety of technologies and has adopted underdeveloped technologies throughout the past decades. At one point, the building in which the process was housed required swift restoration. The projects' urgency did not allow the engineers to rethink the factory, creating a large opportunity loss that is still regretted today. Another aspect of timing is of particular interest for biobased companies. Having crops growing in fields as feedstock means that, during the growth season, the factory has nothing to process. Maintenance and process improvements are thus made during this period of downtime.

When adopting new technology, there is a multitude of technological and development challenges. A technology, such as a fluidised bed dryer, can be well known and used in different industries. However, it still imposes considerable technological challenges before it can be adopted. In the example of the fluidised bed dryer, it took the adopting company a full year before the operation was stable enough to be used properly. It thus seems that, even for well-studied technologies, a range of development challenges emerge when adopting. Technology newness includes examples of use and lacking know-

how about the workings of a technology. As a new technology, one is at a serious disadvantage because there is little experience within the industry. This further decreases the certainty of a successful adoption.

Firm characteristics

Firm characteristics are those factors that come from within the company. Internal politics encompasses the motivation of stakeholders, ease of communication within the company, personnel personalities, public relations within the company and stakeholder management practices. Culture covers the different employee cultures of wait and sees or level of risk appetite. SMEs are perceived to be less aware of the consequences of a project and therefore take more risks. For larger companies, those who make acquisitions and integrate them have a more homogeneous culture, increasing their innovativeness.

Furthermore, culture partly determines the balance between optimisation and innovation. Generally, adopting innovations means taking a risk, making mistakes and also requires a particular personality type. Even though a company can have a conservative culture, entrepreneurial spirit and vision from a champion can ensure successful adoption as long as the business conditions allow it.

“[for improving existing production facilities] all factors have to align. The improvement should be clear and financial performance should be good. Regulation is a necessity. There has to be a clear need to change, also for the individuals within the organisation.” – Company A

Business conditions refer to the short- and long-term profitability of the firm and the slack resources, i.e. funds and employees, available. To facilitate adoption, sufficient funds and prospect needs to be available to make room for risky behaviour. Another key criteria for adoption are the presence of managerial vision or strategy. In the long run, vision is needed to prepare for radically new operation parameters. For example, a circular economy would mean recycling material used by consumers by an industry that, currently, has no direct relation to them. This relation will take years to build, requiring managers to have a long term vision. On a shorter time scale, creating a context in which new technologies can be tried in an ever-enduring optimisation regime is not self-evident. This, too, calls for a strong managerial vision. A strong managerial vision includes having a strategy for knowledge management and research and development. Researchers will push their inventions on the production facilities, who often dislike these changes. This meant that time spent on redesigning a part of the factory was lost, as there was no willingness to accept the proposed changes. Forcing production facilities to formulate a growth strategy can reverse this relation, letting them propose enhancements which the R&D departments could research. Central to this behaviour is proper knowledge management. This implies trusting an internal group of experts and focusing on developing and retaining knowledge.

Also part of the organisation is the need to manage operators, i.e. the people who monitor and care for the factory. On the face of it, this has little to do with the adoption of new technologies. These skilled people are certainly capable of adapting to the changes in the process if they wish. However, it is clear from the interviews that sometimes operators do deserve more consideration. Operators should be able to respond adequately to faulty processes. Since the introduction of automation in the chemical industry, a balance must exist between heavily automated operations and the ‘feeling’ operators have with the process required to combat unexpected errors.

Technology characteristics

Technology characteristics are the criteria technologies have to adhere to. In relation to technological and financial performance, innovations must outperform currently operating processes manifold. This is because innovations have to account for the sunk costs of the technology they replace, as well as the expected improvements made throughout the development period of innovation. For example, a new reactor concept has to recuperate its development costs, the lost revenue from the current reactor's early cancellation, and the possible efficiency gains expected to come from operational improvements on the existing reactor. If this alternative is not available from technology suppliers or internal R&D, more readily adopted alternatives such as direct replacement or life extension programs are chosen.

A business case is made for all adoption initiatives. Such a business case includes an analysis of the economic feasibility of the project. Throughout the interviews, many economic criteria are mentioned. Examples are the price of production, investment costs, operational costs, costs of waste disposal, product price, economy of scale, payback time (typically set around three to four years) and sunk costs, to name a few. Next to financial performance, product quality is another primary concern for the chemical industry. The conversion of chemicals is a delicate process that, once disturbed, can create a butterfly effect through the whole facility that takes a while to recover. Since the industry has low margins, one can imagine the financial strain resulting from long periods of faulty production. Factors such as process robustness, reliability, controllability, scalability and ease of use receive full attention when new technologies are considered.

When a new type of process is adopted, often the process conditions change too. Process conditions cover temperature, pressure, throughput and size of the machine. The process and its requirements determine the eventual quality of the product. For example, most proteins do not handle high operating temperatures. The separation principles applied to extract those proteins thus need to function below a certain temperature threshold to ensure that the proteins are not lost. Safety too is related to process conditions. Most safety threats come from the chemicals or extreme conditions of a process and the characteristics of the reactions taking place. Safety is, in fact, a recurring imperative for adoption. The measures taken to ensure safety is thought by some interviewees to go to the extremes.

In comparison to chemical facilities, safety is considered to cause less of an issue for food processes. This is because most products are water-based, which are inherently less toxic for the environment. However, food producers have to consider product safety more strictly, given the chances of microbiological contamination. Throughout all interviews, it became clear that there is a shift towards sustainability as additional criteria for adoption. A criteria that, in the past, was not considered by most companies. Sustainability includes overall energy efficiency, waste production, emissions and feedstock origin. However, the environmental concern can differ from company to company. Some state that, for technology adoption, the long term applicability is more substantial than the environment. More information about the definition of sustainable in the chemical industry is given in section 6.4.

“Even if you see opportunities to become more sustainable, you’re not able to realise it because we have a calculative economy that is measured along an unsustainable ruler.” – Company B

Network characteristics

Network characteristics refer to the connection a production facility has with outside actors. Product or process improvement typically occurs in direct collaboration with the client. Furthermore, collaboration throughout the whole supply chain can deliver higher value for the consumer while decreasing production efforts. Most production firms focus on the production of pure chemicals. However, sometimes it seems better to make a product that is fit for use.

An example is a baker who is out to make whole grain bread. He will proceed to bake bread with flour and add processed grains to the dough. Two ingredients that his supplier tried very hard to separate. If these two parties communicate better, a substantial overall gain can be expected for both parties. The supply chain is large and slow, but the business needs to adapt quickly. Hence, the supply chain is a challenging part of the production process. This is especially true for circular economy projects such as plastic recycling. In this example, a new collaboration is needed between the production facility and the waste treatment to close the loop.

Another aspect of the supply chain is the quality of infrastructure, i.e. utilities and road networks. Lobbying is an action employed by firms to influence regulation. These are typically done as a shift in market pressures is expected. For example, when competitiveness is likely to decrease due to international competition or imposed costs from emissions. Sometimes, as is the case with fertiliser regulations for the agricultural industry, previous successful lobbying actions prove highly inefficient in light of current developments.

Interview derived adoption framework

Similar to the adoption criteria from Fu et al. (2018), these criteria can be seen as a first-order framework for predicting process technology adoption in the chemical industry. Figure 25 below represents such a framework.

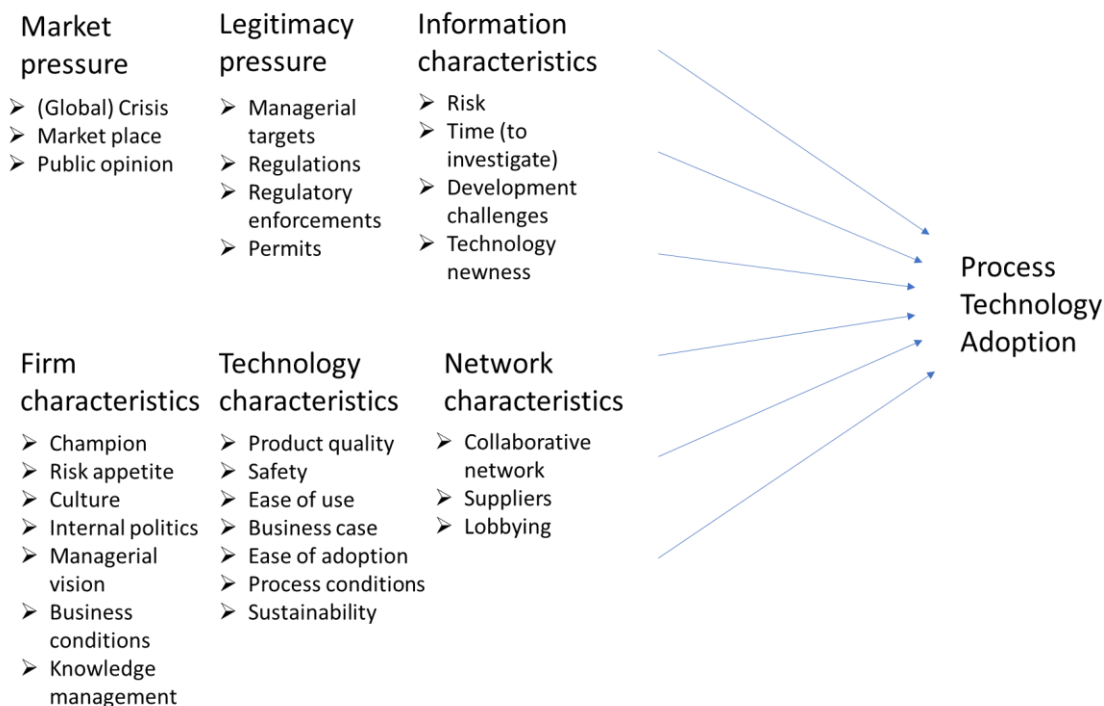


Figure 25 Overview of interview criteria for the adoption of (sustainable) process technologies.

The framework presented above is merely a first attempt that does not necessarily represent the relation between adoption criteria and adoption. It is recommended that these criteria are exposed to statistical validation to improve the framework. Not only can this remove incidental criteria, it too allows for interrelations between criteria to be uncovered. It helps to formulate some hypothesis about what relations and criteria weights might be present to aid this process. Consider, for instance, the apparent importance of technological criteria.

Most interviewees indicated that maintaining product quality and the financial picture of the innovation are the most dominant adoption criteria. Criteria such as knowledge management or risk appetite were often stressed by one of the interviewees but mentioned by all others only after further discussion. This would lead to believe that technological characteristics weigh heavier towards adoption than firm characteristics. This view, however, might also not cover the complete complexity of the situation. Another way to interpret this observation is that the managers and CTOs interviewed for this thesis focused on the adoption process where technologies are selected. This can be seen by the remarks made by one of the earlier interviewees. He indicated that the initiation phase of adoption was more organic than theory suggests, i.e. develops over a long time by a range of people with clear solutions in mind. Furthermore, he stated that it is not worth researching because few large decisions are made during the implementation phase. All in all, it thus seems that technological criteria are more vital for adoption, albeit during a specific phase of the adoption process.

In line with insights from Dieperink et al. (2004), market pressures and legitimacy pressures are likely to be critical motivations for adoption. Furthermore, specific regulatory instructions can incentivise firms to adopt a particular industry-standard technology. Similarly, managerial targets too can influence the type of technology adopted. Targets that finance short term reductions can temporarily decrease a firms emission. However, this short-term vision can hamper long term goals, e.g. complete carbon neutrality, as funds have been spent on short-term efficiency gains. The effects of lobbying on the adoption decision of a firm are likely to be very indirect. Lobbying is expected to influence regulations. However, lobbying is not anticipated to affect a firms adoption decision. Another instance of criteria influence one another is seen between risk and the other information characteristics. The newer a technology is, or the less time one has to develop it, the more risk its adoption carries.

The framework proposed in chapter four consists of adoption criteria that have undergone statistical validation. It is interesting to find differences between these criteria and the ones derived from the interviews. This more detailed comparison between the interview results and literature is presented in chapter 7.

6.2. Adoption system

This evaluation of technologies is initiated and supported by the organisations outside the gates of the production facilities. The adoption system constitutes businesses and organisations that influence production companies in their adoption decisions. The second question thus focuses on the outside actors that influence the adoption process. The interviews found that the adoption system consists of Regulators, Clients, Competitors, Suppliers, Engineering firms and Development firms. See Figure 26. The remainder of this section details the specific role that the adoption system actors have on process technology adoption by the focal firm.

It should be noted that this list of actors is likely to be larger when more companies are interviewed. However, research into the energy-intensive industry's adoption system, e.g. steel, cement and paper,

and the petrochemical industry, has found similar adoption system actors (Ren, 2009; Wesseling et al., 2017). The main difference being the addition of ICT related consultancies, patent offices and the explicit mention of subcontractors (Ren, 2009).

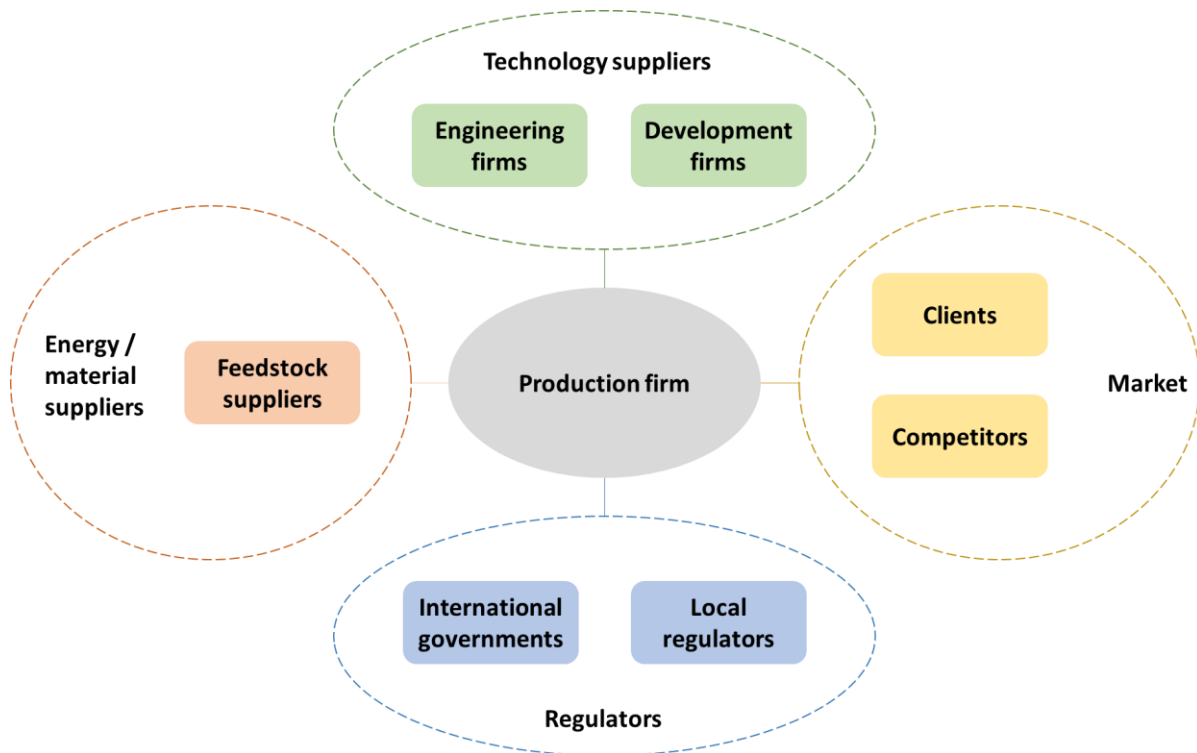


Figure 26 Overview of the adoption system, as found during the interviews

Regulation can initiate the adoption process by imposing additional (emission) requirements on the technologies. This is done through emission regulation or process certification. Process certification can also limit the speed of adoption. This limitation is particularly dominant in the pharmaceutical industry. Here, conventional technologies can take months to replace. Let alone experimenting with more innovative machine designs. Geopolitical forces can also heavily influence global market conditions. As a bulk chemical producer, this directly influences the profitability of production. Local governments are ill-advised and limited in their capabilities to regulate (global) markets. An example of this is the high levels of sugar production for bioethanol in Brazil. The rationale of the Americas is to become less dependent on middle eastern oil. However, as this sugar is sold on the global market too, prices have dropped drastically.

Clients can also require, or inhibit, changes in the production process. Changing product requirements by the client forces innovation and adoption in the production process. However, once the client is satisfied with the product characteristics, it considerably hampers the adoption of new technologies. This is because of the fragile balance between process settings and product quality. Because of this interdependence, new product and process development are done in close collaboration with clients. Typically, clients seek multiple production companies and compare the products they provide. However, competitors have another influence on the adoption decision. If a competitor has experience with a technology, these are sought after by the focal firm.

Feedstock suppliers, too, have a role to play. If the feedstock changes, this can have far-reaching consequences for the production process. Here, the production company takes on the role of a client,

as the production company typically supplies feedstock for their clients. A particular case of the supplier-production firm relation is seen in the biobased industry. In the Netherlands, some crop farmers have collaborated and own both the farms and refinement facilities of their crops. Due to the seasonal nature of the crops, facilities in this structure do not produce during the offseason. This frees up the time to maintain and improve the production process. However, during harvesting season, the production facilities have to process all raw materials, as the crop farmers own them.

Engineering firms heavily influence the adoption decision by their expertise. Engineering firms are used for their experience and the insurance they provide when delivering turnkey solutions. If engineering firms do not provide a specific technology, chances of its adoption are limited, as it blocks an essential source of innovations. Another source of innovations is development firms, e.g. knowledge institutions, or (internal) research organisations. Having a research centre creates a space to develop new products or technologies that, at their current state, are not large enough for production firms to be considered viable. Therefore, access to a research centre allows for adoption. Internal research organisations typically focus on scale-up initiatives based upon proven concepts. Next to inter-organisational collaboration, system actors outside the main organisation are involved in development. New product development is done in partnership with clients, upstream partners or knowledge institutions. This collaboration can occur through platforms that combine the government, industry and knowledge institutions. For instance, extensive recycling programs could require restructuring the supply chain both up and downstream of the production company.

Throughout the interviews, a consensus on the role of the adoption system is noticed. Every time the interviewees discussed a future vision on sustainability, the collaboration with multiple stakeholders is of utmost importance. Hefty technological changes seemed paired with system-wide involvement and acceptance, whether discussing extensive recycling schemes or mild fractionation. For instance, a plastics producer aims to recycle its polymers properly. This requires collection, separation and processing of end-user products. Developing the unit operations for the processing alone is a daunting task. Let alone changing public perception or client processes. As these more pressing issues seem impossible to resolve, it is easy for the production company not to invest in recycling technologies. It thus appears that conversation and trust in the system are needed for radical innovations to be implemented.

6.3. Adoption dimensions

Throughout the interviews, it was found that not all adoption situations are created equal. For instance, whilst reacting to regulatory changes, time pressure was a determining factor in the adoption decision. However, during a lifetime extension program, time seems plentiful as the current process is already working as expected.

The interviews have explicitly identified four different types of adoption processes. These processes are summarised in Table 9. First, technologies can be adopted off the shelf from technology suppliers (1). In this case, the supplier does the designing and construction of the technology. The role of the production firm is that of a project manager who coordinates with the supplier, (local) governments, regulatory bodies, raw material suppliers and internally for testing and installation. Another type of adoption occurs when a technology is produced in house for a not yet operating facility (2). In this case, the projects typically suffer from time pressure, causing rushed production and realisation. The improvements that follow during operations usually cause costs overshoots. Thirdly, there is the

option in which a current process needs to be improved or refurbished (3). However, the product quality cannot be changed, as goes for the safety, controllability, and reliability of the process. In this case, there is little time pressure and risk-taking behaviour, which allows for in-depth research. The potential losses are the largest here, which means nothing is left to chance. This adoption process type is the most common. Forth, instead of upgrading the current process, a new process can be built too (4). Greenfield adoption occurs when the technology under consideration is implemented in a not yet existing process. This type of adoption goes pared with a high degree of uncertainty. This is partly because of the uncertain market conditions and potential regulatory limitations.

Table 9 List of adoption processes and their characteristics

Adoption process	Characteristic
<i>Off the shelf adoption (1)</i>	The supplier does most of the designing and building. The focal firm takes the role of a project manager who communicates with adoption system actors and installs and tests the final product.
<i>In-house innovation creation (2)</i>	The focal firm designs and creates the innovation. Projects suffer from time pressure resulting in rushed realisation. Once in use, continuous improvements result in costs overshoot.
<i>Current process improvements (3)</i>	The current process is already producing. Minimisation of downtime and loss of functionality is key. Typically more time is allocated to development before installation.
<i>Greenfield adoption (4)</i>	There is currently no process in which the innovation is installed. High uncertainty leads to a preference for well-known innovations.

It must be said that, given the often ad hoc nature of the adoption process, individual processes differ from what is described here. Furthermore, the view taken for the different adoption processes is not unified. The first two processes mainly concern the source of the innovations, while the latter focus on whether the innovation is placed in a currently operating process or one that still needs to be built.

The above-presented adoption processes are different subsets of situations in which criteria weights differ, possibly in an overgeneralised form. That is, the adoption processes described above are examples of adoption situations. Some of the determinants of criteria weights are set in the presented situations, whilst others are varied. These determinants of criteria weights are referred to as dimensions. It seems that the adoption decisions can be placed on multiple ranges or dimensions. The position of the adoption situation on these adoption dimensions determines the importance of specific criteria. During the interviews, four adoption dimensions have been identified. These are divided into three continuous technological dimensions and one discrete contextual dimension. A visualisation of these dimensions is given in Figure 27 below.

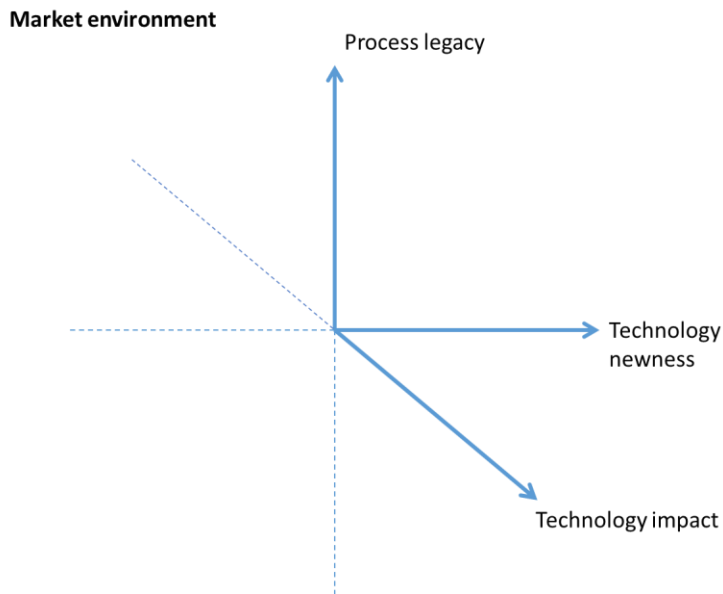


Figure 27 Visualisation of the adoption dimensions. The technological continua occupy the three axes of the figure, whilst the contextual dimension is noted as a title above the figure.

Three of the dimensions are identified as technological continua. The technological continua are the process legacy (Y-axis), technology newness (X-axis) and technology impact (Z-axis). The discrete contextual dimension concerns the market environments of the chemical industry. This thesis found three distinct environments. These are the pharmaceutical market, bulk materials market and speciality chemicals market. Figure 28 below depicts the dimensions in more detail. It shows three markets environments in which the technological dimensions are placed.

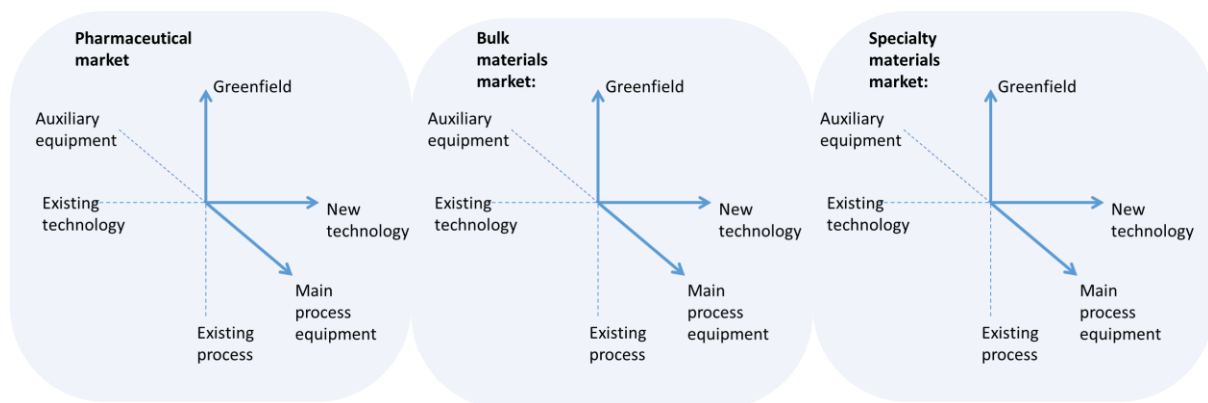


Figure 28 Visualisation of the adoption dimensions. Each rectangle marks a market environment in which technological dimensions are found.

Each instance of process technology adoption has a specific place on the four dimensions. Put otherwise, when a technology is considered for adoption, it has a point somewhere in the three-dimensional grid of the appropriate market context. Related to each dimension is variation in adoption criteria weight. For example, a well-known auxiliary pump that must be implemented in an existing process finds itself in the far left, lower corner of the grid. Even though this is a rather unremarkable piece of technology, the market context is still important for the adoption process. For instance, for the pharmaceutical market, numerous permits have to be obtained to replace this piece of machinery.

On the other hand, in the bulk materials market, this is not the case and permits are not necessarily considered during adoption.

At the beginning of this section, four adoption processes explicitly mentioned by the interviewees are discussed. Let us discuss these adoption processes in light of the above-suggested framework. First of all, the process legacy and technology newness are allowed only a binominal variation. That is, one considers either a greenfield process or an existing process. Secondly, the market environment and technological impact dimensions are set to be constant. As such, four adoption processes in which criteria differ are found. The dimensions framework presented above suggests that a complete analysis of the situation should incorporate the market environment and technological impact.

Furthermore, the binominal variation on technology newness and process legacy insufficiently captures the complexity of the adoption process. It should be stressed that the interviewees are not to blame for the suggested adoption processes. It takes the view that questions the seemingly mundane and crosses market conventions to formulate something as the dimensions framework. Moreover, acknowledging the suggested variation across process legacy and technology newness verifies the existence of these adoption dimensions. The remainder of this section expands on the adoption dimensions. It discusses the effect that the adoption dimensions have on criteria weights and argues for continuous technological dimensions. A summary of the impact the adoption dimensions have on the adoption criteria is listed in Table 10.

Elaboration on the adoption dimensions

Market environments. *Pharmaceutical market and material markets.* As explained in the example above, changing criteria weights occurs when different markets are compared. The pharmaceutical market is exposed to much higher regulatory and certification requirements than the material market. This means that for the pharmaceutical industry, adoption is more influenced by regulation than in other contexts. Even though regulation does not exclude more innovative technologies, it stagnates any attempt to change previously approved production processes. By contrast, adoption criteria in the material market are mainly determined by the clients. Clients expect a certain product quality that is compatible with the process they deploy. Because of previously described process sensitivity to changes, this means that production companies are heavily limited in the changes they can make. Only if a client requires a difference in product or product quality can the production firm adopt radically different process technologies. As noticed before, there is a change in safety requirements between fossil-based industries and biobased industries. The latter is primarily water-based and concerned with separating complex components; it has less harsh process conditions. However, stating that safety is of lesser concern might be overreaching as strong acids are still used and stored on-site in most biobased industries.

Process legacy. *Greenfield technologies or existing process improvements.* While comparing the construction of a new production site, i.e. greenfield technologies, to enhancements within an existing facility, some emphasis changes on criteria was noticeable. If a new site is built, uncertainty is substantially greater than when current processes are improved. Business and market conditions become much more speculative and important decision criteria.

Furthermore, uncertainty about long term regulatory planning further determines during this decision. This is contrasted with adoptions within an existing process. Here process improvements are more common, and non-conventional technologies are despised. The reason for this aversion is the risk of production hiccups and familiarity with preceding technologies. Furthermore, incremental

optimization and extensive energy integration projects might have created a lock-in of energy-intensive process steps as their waste heat is used for other process steps. Between greenfield technologies and existing process improvements, the role of stakeholders changes too. In general, a more constructive mindset of actors is expected in greenfield technologies. Plant managers are typically more eager to accept changes and experiments during greenfield development as there is no process to disturb, meaning their agreements and bonuses are not at stake.

Finally, there are no sunk costs in greenfield technologies. This means that a wider variety of technologies is evaluated. Uncertainty, however, is much higher for greenfield adoptions due to the discomfort it brings. Still, conventional technologies are preferred in this situation. Between these extremes are cases in which a greenfield process has to deal with legacies or improvement processes during downtime. For example, a new process is built on an existing site. In this case, the new process must adhere to the same permits and regulations as the rest of the factory. Of course, exemptions can be acquired, but this can prove a lengthy process.

Technology newness. *Newly discovered or developed technologies.* A third dimension is found between newly discovered and developed technologies. Developed technologies are those that are widely available, i.e. provided by multiple suppliers in different industries. These are typically ordered off the shelf from suppliers who specialise in producing them. The experience of the suppliers reduces the risks of failure. On the other end of the spectrum are newly discovered technologies that have not proven their worth in different settings. In this case, there typically is little supplier support, and the risk is high. Adopting new technologies is typically done for situations in which common technologies are unable to satisfy the process needs. In this case, the adoption process gains additional steps that introduce the development of a new technology. During this stage, inter-organisational communication becomes vital. In between these extremes are cases in which suppliers experiment with new equipment or in-house developed technologies that prove robust and easily scalable. Take, for example, the fluidised bed dryer from section 6.1. Although the technology is widely used and obtained from a supplier, it still took over a year to get the machine working correctly.

Technology impact. *Auxiliary- versus main process machinery.* Not much attention is put into research for auxiliary components as multiple suppliers offer interchangeable solutions. The steps taken by the suppliers mainly determine the evolution of the product. For core process changes, however, there is a more risk-averse attitude towards change. Therefore, either commonly known technologies are selected or, as is often the case when innovations are considered, a collaborative network is used to develop a new technology. For main process machinery, criteria such as costs, energy usage, and a more rigorous business case weigh heavier than for auxiliary machinery.

Furthermore, once the main process component is changed, other auxiliary components have to be changed. The other way around (almost) never happens. Again, a binominal division is incomplete. Plenty of technologies exist between an unremarkable pump and a vital reactor. Consider, for example, a compressor used to increase the pressure of a gaseous product for storage. A compressor is a typical off the shelf, auxiliary component. In this case, however, the failure of the compressor could create a bottleneck in the production line. Furthermore, the product could be volatile or corrosive, requiring highly resistant and expensive gaskets or specially designed compressor seals.

Of course, these dimensions do not fully explain all variations in the industry. For instance, process safety is different for biobased firms than for petrochemical firms, as biobased materials are primarily water-based. However, contamination of food products does increase the emphasises on safety for

biobased firms. For instance, there is a difference in adoption timing based on the feedstock supplied. As such, the weight of the criteria does not change, but the specific points of attention do. One variation between biobased and petrochemical feedstock concerns the timing of adoption. There is a tendency for companies that rely on crops to adopt new technologies outside the harvest season. Future research could focus on finding more effects of the feedstock dimension. However, as this study found the two minor differences mentioned above, this dimension is not considered.

Table 10 A summary of the adoption dimensions and their characteristics

Market place	Process legacy
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • International regulations can determine the price of bulk products. International regulation has less effect on speciality products prices. • Adoption in the material markets is determined by clients, as their product specifications dictate process parameters. • Old permits or regulations can hamper innovation. This is true for all market environments but is most stringent for the pharmaceutical market. • Pharmaceutical markets are exposed to a higher degree of regulation and permits than material markets. • The feedstock, too, plays a role in adoption as biobased feedstocks are often water-based and safer to handle than fossil-based feedstocks. Another example is the expositor to harvesting seasons by biobased firms. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Public opinion can dictate the need for new products and, by extension, a greenfield process. • The time to investigate is larger for process improvements than for greenfield processes. • Managerial vision needs to be stronger for greenfield processes as the default action is current process improvement. • Current process improvement is slower as more stakeholders are involved. Notably, plant managers or process owners are generally not eager to change existing processes as it endangers production. • Greenfield processes have a much more considerable uncertainty than process improvements. Particularly future regulations and business- and market conditions. Therefore, conventional technologies are favoured. • A lock-in from previous improvement efforts favours current process improvement over greenfield development. • The culture surrounding the greenfield process can be more open and innovative.
Technology newness	Technology impact
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Better availability of knowledge about how a technology performs and ease of implementation reduces the newness of a technology. • Developed technologies are less risky to be implemented and are therefore favoured over (newly) discovered technologies. • Small firms tolerate more risk, increasing their chance of the adoption of new technologies. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Auxiliary machinery tolerates more uncertainty as their overall impact on the process is less than main process machinery. • For main process machinery, criteria such as costs, energy usage, and a more rigorous business case weigh heavier than auxiliary components.

- Managerial vision needs to be stronger for technology discovery as the default action is adopting developed technologies.
- The experience of suppliers helps to reduce the risk of adopting (often conventional) technologies.
- Newly developed technologies are used when conventional technologies are not available.

6.4. Definition of sustainable process technologies

Throughout the interviews, the interviewees are asked for their definition of sustainable process technologies. The rationale behind this question is twofold. First, sharing a formal definition of sustainable process technologies helps gauge the companies' level of environmental awareness. Second, further deliberation on this subject exposes the implied meaning of catchall terms such as sustainability, innovation and design. One of the interviewees pointed out that it is challenging to discuss sustainable technologies since definitions are typically not synchronised.

Second, it allows the interviewer to frame the participants into high level thinking patterns. As sustainability is a brought defined term, participants are easy to agree to a given definition. After the interviewee explained their vision, they were informed of the definition used for this work, as provided by the United Nations (2006).

“The continuous application of an integrated preventative environmental strategy to processes, products and services to increase efficiency and reduce risks to humans and the environment.” – United Nations Environment Programme (2006)

Fu et al. (2018) went on to further detail the types of sustainable process technologies. The five main categories are General sustainable technologies, Energy/material substitution, CO₂/emission reduction, Energy/material efficiency and Recycling. This addition encompasses all possible places where sustainable technology can be implemented. Therefore, it can be used to assist thinking patterns during the interview.

When the different visions are compared, a general trend is observed. Sustainable technologies are seen to encompass both changes in feedstock as well as overall factory efficiency. Other measures of sustainability are the source of energy and the option to recycle material. In the context of new technology adoption, long term applicability is more valuable than sustainability, as is the environment. This implies that evaluation of sustainable technologies has both an economic or value creation side and an environmental or pollution-related one.

In de biobased industry, sustainability is mainly defined by the use of material. This means having as little impact on the surroundings as possible while having economically sustainable operations. Circularity is central in this definition. A sustainable process obtains as much value from the raw material as possible. Processing should keep material functionality intact. This could be proteins from waste material or using the residual product as cattle feed. Another option is the upgrading of products through further chemical reactions. An example of this is the upgrading of inulin to a detergent stabiliser. Conversely, the fossil fuel industries mainly focus on having more energy-efficient processes. Their view is less holistic as it mainly entails the emissions occurring within their gates.

'Sustainability is ingrained in the company culture of bio-based production industries. This mainly concerns effective material use, pollution reduction and circularity.' – Company C

6.5. Chapter summary

This chapter set out to summarise and cluster the insights obtained from interviews with five industry-leading companies. As described in the previous chapter, the semi-structured interview methodology results in very contextual and qualitative responses. Due to this nature, content analysis is very suitable to sieve out valuable insights from the whole without losing the underlying assumptions made by the interviewees. As a result, three main subjects of interest have been found. First, the interviewees set out to describe a wide variety of criteria used during process technology adoption. Second, the influence of actors outside the company was discussed to initiate, create a stimulus, or erect barriers to adopting sustainable process technologies. Finally, it was found that some conditions can influence the importance of adoption criteria. These dimensions of adoption reveal an underlying complexity which industries have to take into account during adoption.

Risk, as a decision making criteria, comes back in multiple forms. First, it is an information pressure, as it embodies uncertainty about future profitability. Second, it comes back as a technological challenge, as it is unknown whether new technology can provide the required product. Finally, it is part of the firm characteristics. This is because some firms have a higher risk appetite than others. As it seems, the discomfort with uncertainty is a big factor of the industry's conservative nature. However, given the lengthy development time of technologies and disturbances new technologies have on the main process, among other factors, conservatism can hardly be called irrational. The second key criteria are the financial arguments and standards used by companies. Innovations are compared against the, often short term, financial performance of unsustainable alternatives. From the firm's perspective, adoption can be halted by many people, ranging from managers motivated by contradicting targets to process owners or vocal employees who discredit the attempt of renewal. It is viewed that clear consensus on the need for change and possibly a powerful champion is needed for adoption to succeed. Finally, from a technological stance, the production firms need to maintain a certain product quality. Often, only a limited amount of separation principles are available to isolate the desired products. These principles go hand in hand with process conditions that can pose severe safety threats depending on the type of industry. Sustainability as a criterion for adoption has recently become more and more important in the chemical industry. Sustainable criteria include overall energy efficiency, emissions, waste production, feedstock origin and long-term applicability of the technology.

The adoption system of the chemical industry consists of regulators, clients, competitors, engineering firms, development firms and feedstock suppliers. Throughout the interviews, a consensus on the role of the adoption system is noticed. Every time the interviewees discussed a future vision on sustainability, the collaboration with multiple stakeholders is of utmost importance. Regulators can initiate the adoption process by imposing additional (emission) requirements. However, the certification process used to ensure safety and permit emissions can also slow down the adoption process. Factories are prudent in their control of product quality. Customers demand, although indirectly in the case of bulk materials, a product with specific properties. Maintaining product quality is an important criterion required to keep customers who typically have multiple suppliers. This dynamic enforces risk aversion when faced with new separation principles. Technology suppliers are often used when the adoption of new process technologies is considered. These suppliers typically

prefer well-known and developed technologies as they often carry a substantial risk if a process does not function properly. Having access to a research centre creates a space to develop new products or technologies that, at their current state, are not developed enough for engineering firms to be considered viable.

As stated above, adoption criteria tend to change in importance in particular situations. Throughout the interviews, four such dimensions have been identified. These are divided into three continuous technological dimensions and one discrete contextual dimension. The contextual dimension is that of the types of markets on which the products are sold. Pharmaceutical markets have much stricter regulation and certification, meaning that novel technologies take even more time to be validated. Regulation thus heavily influence the adoption criteria of firms in the pharmaceutical market. Within material markets, the adoption criteria are more heavily dependent on the customer requirements. As the production facilities are only one link in a complex and interwoven process, they have little freedom to change these product specifications. Since different operations produce different qualities, this interconnectedness heavily limits the ability of firms to alter process components. Customer demands are thus more important for material markets. The first technological dimension is process legacy. Process legacy refers to the difference between greenfield technologies and existing process improvements. During the development and adoption of greenfield technologies, the people involved are often more open to new ideas. As a result, there is more uncertainty about the business case, which, together with regulatory prospects, are essential factors for adoption.

In contrast, process improvements have fewer business case- and regulatory uncertainties. However, the financial repercussions of downtime become more critical. Furthermore, the people involved become more conservative as bonuses are at stake or the prospect of over hours to fix problems undermines operator motivation. Finally, there are no sunk costs when greenfield technologies are considered, making this setting evaluate a wider variety of alternatives. As is evident from the level of risk aversion in the industry, newly discovered technologies have different adoption criteria than developing technologies. Thus, the third adoption dimension is technology newness. Developed technologies are those that are widely available and used in industries. The experience of the suppliers reduces the risks of failure. Newly developed technology often offer little long term guaranties and have not proven itself in the industry or elsewhere. Recently discovered technologies are typically used when no other alternative is available.

Using recently discovered technologies introduces a new phase in the adoption process. This phase is characterized by the development of the technology for the specific application. During this phase, inter-organisational communication is vital. Finally, there is a difference between auxiliary and main process operations. From the interviews, it is clear that auxiliary components, such as pumps, do not get much attention when replaced. Whatever innovation has taken place at the supplier is good enough for most firms as long as the component meets the production specifications. Much more attention is given to adoption for the main process machinery, and the effects of the change are studied extensively. Most of the criteria discussed in the interviews apply to this situation.

Lastly, a difference in the definition of sustainability is found between the petrochemical- and biobased industries. In de biobased industry, sustainability is mainly defined by the use of material. This means having as little impact on the surroundings as possible while having economically sustainable operations. Less holistically, the fossil fuel industries mainly focus on having more energy-efficient processes.

The semi-structured nature of the interviews has resulted in a range of insights and new fundamental ways of describing the adoption process. It is now valuable to re-evaluate what insights literature has provided and create an adoption framework that embraces the adoption dimensions and the adoption criteria found in the interviews. The next chapter sets out to do so by comparing the adoption criteria from the interviews with literature incorporating the adoption dimensions into the literature derived TOE model.

7. Improving the framework based on interview results

This section proposes a final framework of adoption in the chemical industry. This is done by comparing the insights from the literature and the interviews. This section is divided into three parts. First, the adoption criteria are discussed. Secondly, the adoption dimensions are added to the framework. It was found in the interviews that specific adoption situations have different criteria weights. Adoption dimensions are introduced to account for this variation. Thirdly, this section discusses the managerial implications of the framework.

7.1. Creating an adoption framework from the interview data

To reiterate, Figure 29 below displays the adoption model obtained from the literature. The old model is composed of various adoption criteria clustered into the three TOE categories. By doing so, a model from general adoption literature is applied in the context of the chemical industry.

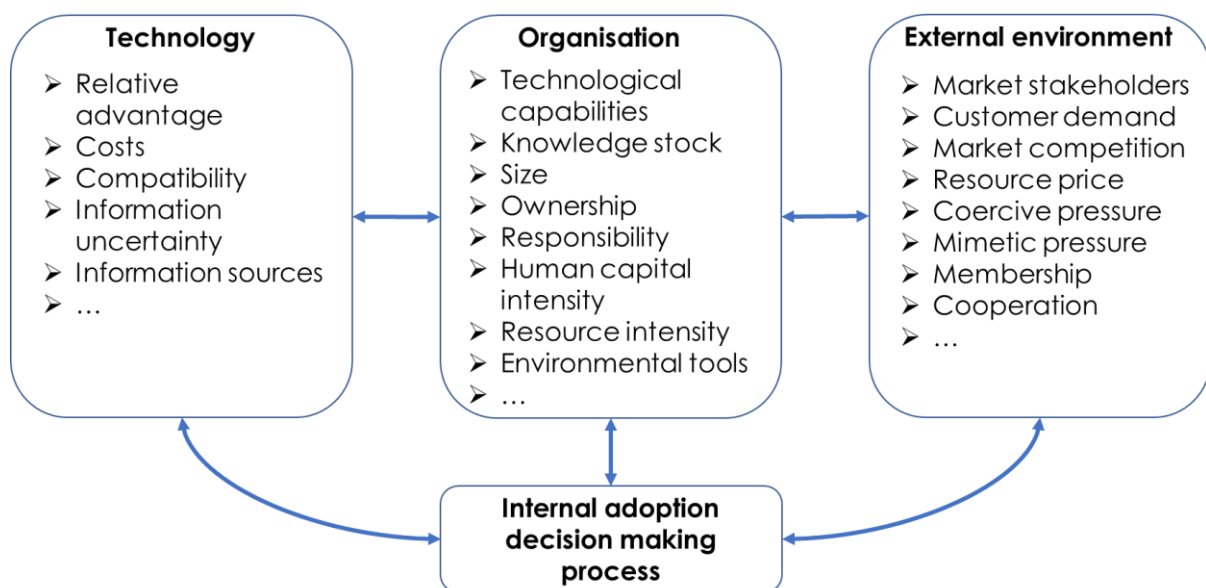


Figure 29 Framework 1.0 based on domain derived adoption criteria and fitted to the framework of Tornatzky & Klein (1990)

The interviews have given a curious insight into the adoption mechanisms of the chemical industry. However, some discrepancies between the scientific literature and the interviews exist. First of all, the interviewees expressed a wider variety of adoption criteria. As such, a new framework is proposed using a similar process as while creating the literature framework.

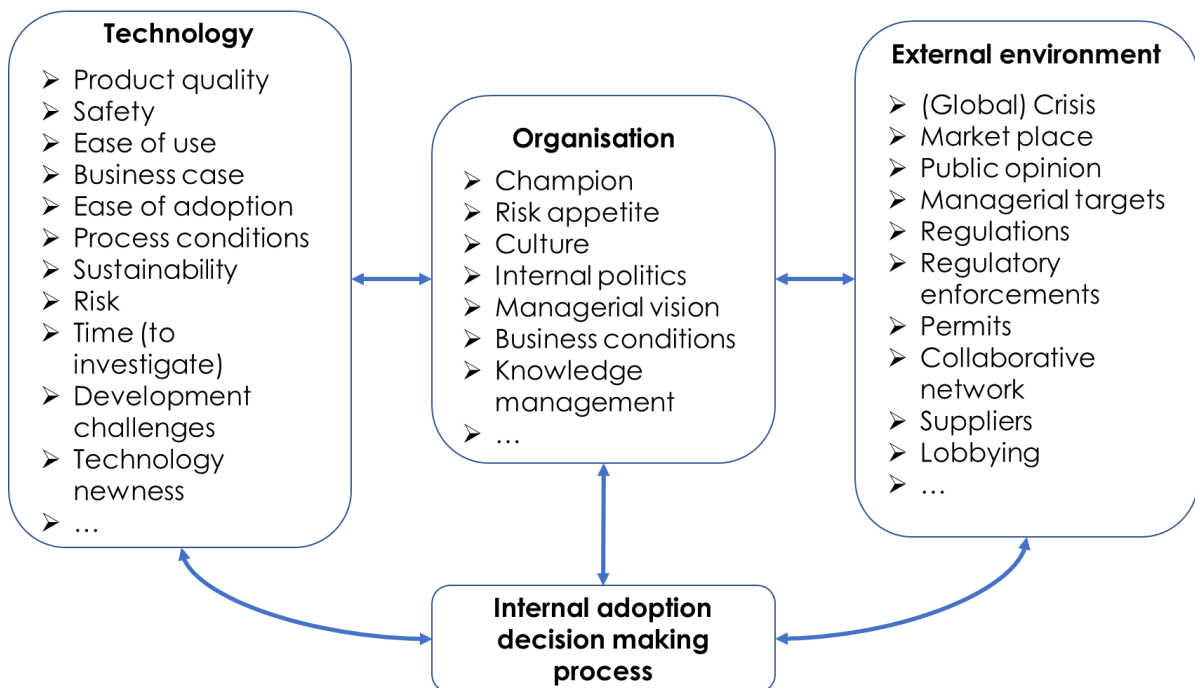


Figure 30 The interview derived adoption framework for the chemical industry

Not much difference between the interview and literature derived criteria is found concerning the technology category. The main difference between the literature framework and the interview framework is the specification that constitutes adoption criteria. For instance, the relative advantage envelops the product quality, safety, process conditions, risk and sustainability. Compatibility is rephrased as ease of adoption, and costs are referred to as the business case of the technology. This latter difference seemed important because even though large sums of money were invested, the payback time (or more complex financial measures) were used to describe the economic rationale behind the decision making. Information uncertainty is mainly translated as the uncertainty surrounding the appropriateness and effectiveness of the technology in question. The interviews did mention having multiple information sources is preferable. However, sources indirectly influence the adoption decision by decreasing the risk of adoption and the technology newness.

The organisational category of the framework shows similar differences. In general, the literature framework focuses on what a firm has instead of how it operates. That is, literature details what capabilities a firm possesses, whilst the interviewees mention how these capabilities are used. For instance, the interviewees mentioned knowledge management as a critical decision criterion. On the contrary, the literature focuses on knowledge stock and technical capabilities. Of course, the interviewees too acknowledged the need for proper business conditions, which reflects the human capital and resource intensity criteria in literature. Interviewees too mentioned managerial vision and culture as essential criteria. These two criteria are represented by responsibility.

For the environmental criteria, the interviewees added quite some criteria in comparison to those found by literature. Public opinion, managerial targets, crisis, and lobbying are all examples of criteria not found in the literature. Next to these additions, the interviewees mentioned similar criteria to those found in the literature. For instance, market place resembles customer demand, market competition and resource price. Similarly, regulations, regulatory enforcements and permits resemble

coercive pressure from literature. Finally, collaborative network is similar to membership and cooperation.

7.2. Integrating the adoption dimensions into the TOE framework

As discussed in the previous chapter, adoption dimensions seemingly improve the usefulness of the default TOE model. It is found that different types of markets and characteristics of the technology or organisation can influence the adoption criteria weights. This study found four dimensions that demarcate adoption situations: three continuous technological dimensions and one discrete contextual dimension. The first technical dimension is process legacy. It refers to the prior existence of a process or factory. The adoption is considered a process improvement if a technology is adopted to work inside an already existing process. If the technology is built on a new site, it is referred to as greenfield technologies. The second adoption dimension is technology newness. The newness of the technology refers to the availability of knowledge about the technology and its implementation. Mature technologies are those that are widely available and used in various industries. The third technical dimension is the technology impact. This dimension represents the extent of interruption a faulty technology can have on the overall process. This dimension continuously variates between auxiliary machineries, such as pumps, and main process machinery like the reactor. The fourth dimension is that of the market environment. This study found three distinct market environments. The market environments are the bulk material market, the speciality chemicals market and the pharmaceutical market. Although it is possible for one firm to operate in multiple markets, technologies are typically adopted in the context of just one of them. As such, this last dimension is not continuous but discreet. Figure 31 visualises the adoption dimensions. The three technical dimensions are presented on the axis of the grid, whilst the market environments are represented by the bubbles.

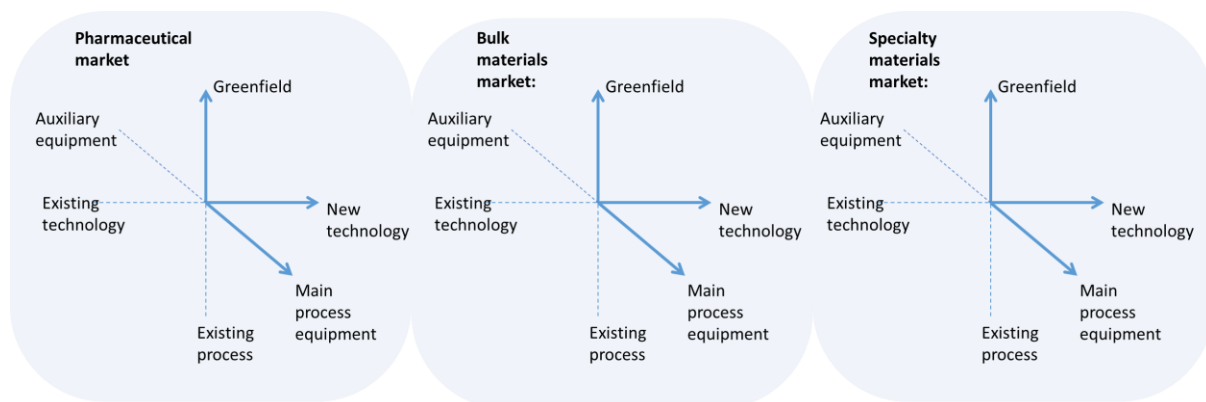


Figure 31 Visualisation of the adoption dimensions.

To help stress the importance of the adoption dimensions, consider the following example. One company described how they evaluated buying a compressor and a new water purification unit for the same process. Regarding their place on the dimension grid, there is a difference between replacing a pump compared to a complete water purification system. The main difference between the two techniques is their impact on the process. A compressor can be considered part of the auxiliary components of the process, water purification not so much. A properly functioning water purification unit was essential to keep other equipment functioning and to maintain product quality. The company regards the compressor as well developed and known. The reversed osmosis (RO) water purification unit was new to the company but not new to the industry. The company implemented both technologies in an existing process, which means both technologies have to fit in without creating

concerns. However, as the auxiliary compressor has little impact on the process, the effect of process legacy is minimal on the adoption criteria weights. Finally, as both the compressor and RO unit were used for the same process, their market environment was similar. Thus, the adoption criteria weights of the pump are mainly dominated by the auxiliary status of the compressor. On the contrary, the RO unit has a more considerable impact on the process and obtains more scrutiny. Furthermore, it is considered new for the company, which means technology newness plays a role during adoption.

The positions of both technologies on the dimensions affected the criteria weights used to evaluate the technologies. The compressor was replaced with costs and effectivity as the primary considerations. The water purification unit, on the other hand, obtains much more scrutiny. The prior water purifying unit had worked sufficiently for the last decades. However, the technology used was outdated. Managers researched the technology extensively to prove its reliability. As the production firm considered updating their equipment towards more modern techniques, operators started to express their concern for the stability of the process. Furthermore, the prior contract for the chemicals used by the outdated purification unit had to be terminated. These last barriers required a strong managerial vision for the adoption to proceed.

The adoption situation thus determines the weight of specific criteria. For instance, in the pharmaceutical market, regulations are more important than in speciality chemical markets. As such, the criteria weight of regulations increases. This effect is depicted in Figure 32 below. The figure showcases, in a general form, what happens to the different adoption criteria once the adoption dimensions are accounted for. Some adoption criteria increase in importance (green arrows), whilst others become less important (red arrows).

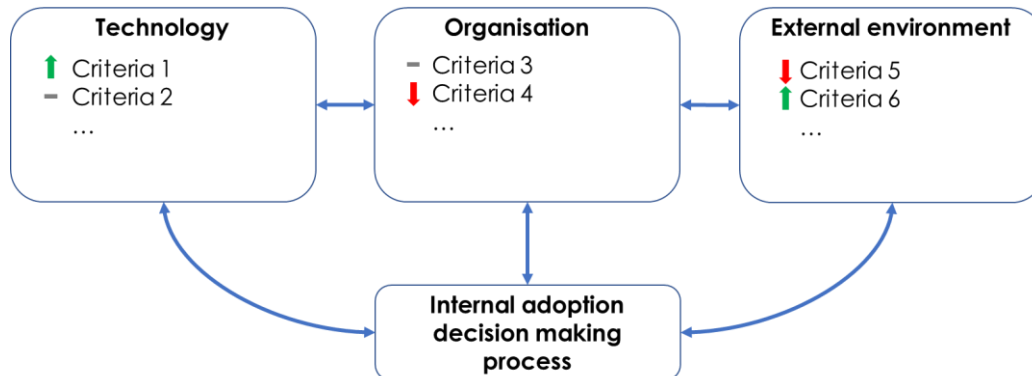


Figure 32 Depiction of the change in criteria weight based on the adoption situation

The process of using the adoption dimensions is visualised in Figure 33. The process starts with the TOE framework, as presented in Figure 30 above. This framework represents a limitation of adoption research so far. It is a still image of the adoption decision that insufficiently captures the complexity of managers in the industry face. To better account for this complexity, the adoption situation has to be identified. This means that the production company must find the positions of the adoption situation on the adoption dimensions grids. Finally, an applied version of the TOE framework is made. The weight of the different criteria changes according to the adoption dimensions.

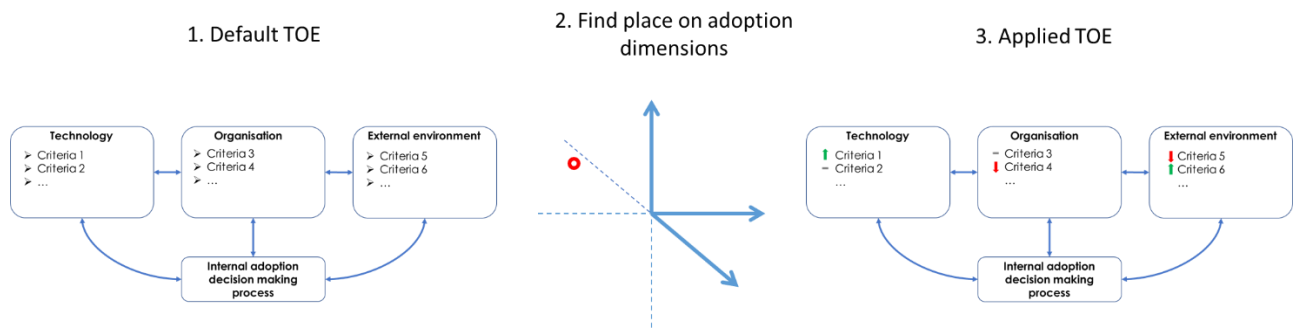


Figure 33 The process of using the adoption framework presented in this thesis

In conclusion, The TOE framework is now complemented with two insights. The first is that of the industry-specific adoption criteria. These criteria were derived from the expert interviews conducted in this study. The second insight is that of the adoption dimensions. The adoption dimensions are an essential addition to the existing literature in which adoption criteria are generally applicable and equally important across various adoption situations. The applied framework gives a complete overview of the adoption criteria, which are prominent for the particular adoption situation. As such, the framework becomes more usable for managers in the industry.

7.3. The usefulness of the framework for managers in the industry

During the initiation of this research, M. Minnesma indicated what a framework would need to be of value in practice. She emphasised that frameworks are used to communicate what challenges arise when adopting sustainable process technologies and what strategies are suitable to tackle these challenges (See Appendix I).

One of the main advantages of a TOE based framework is its simplicity. The three categories are easily understood, which has multiple advantages. First of all, it is known that one of the main limitations of adoption in the chemical industry is the elaborate adoption system (Wesseling et al., 2017). A variety of actors has to align and agree for innovations to land. Having a clear and easily understood framework makes it easy to communicate within the adoption system and increase awareness and support for innovations. Secondly, the framework's simplicity helps managers more easily integrate crucial adoption criteria in the discussions and decisions made surrounding adoption. One could imagine that a less holistic framework, which is only applicable in a small variety of adoption situations, is much less likely to be remembered and used. Thirdly, when used to guide the decision-making process, the TOE framework is a checklist of the technologies' maturity and suitability for the organisation. These arguments are particularly valid after the incorporation of the adoption dimensions. By having a clear view of what criteria are essential in the particular adoption situation, discussions become more effective and checklists more reliable.

Insights about the adoption process might give businesses an overview of their challenges while adopting sustainable process technologies. In turn, this allows governmental intervention to be more efficiently (Fu et al., 2018). Moreover, the technology suppliers could potentially use this framework to identify adoption barriers, allowing them to improve their service and identify new customers or collaborators (van Oorscot et al., 2018). Finally, having a thorough understanding of the adoption process can assist the industry in making well-informed decisions on adopting sustainable process technologies. It allows for strategic planning and better resource allocation for both businesses and research institutions (Coenen & Díaz López, 2010; Ren, 2009).

7.4. Chapter summary

This chapter unifies the three groups of sources from this thesis. These are the general adoption literature, the industry-specific adoption criteria found in literature and the insights obtained from the interviews. First, it shows how the general adoption theory of TOE is combined with the adoption criteria specific to the chemical industry. Second, it analyses how the industry-specific criteria found in the literature differ from those obtained during the interviews. Thirdly, this chapter proposes a methodology of using the interview results, particularly the adoption dimensions.

There are only minor differences between the adoption criteria mentioned by the interviewees and the literature derived adoption criteria. The main difference is the perspective on the adoption criteria. Seemingly, researchers have combined multiple adoption criteria into a descriptive and generalised form. The interviewees, on the other hand, describe specific adoption criteria. For example, relative advantage is further broken down by interviewees into product quality, safety, process conditions, risk and sustainability. The adoption dimensions can be integrated into the framework through a straightforward method. By assessing how the adoption situation scales on the different adoption dimensions, managers can determine what adoption criteria are more important than those of the default TOE framework.

In line with the original intent of the TOE framework, this thesis aims to present a framework for two audiences (Drazin, 1991). First, the framework has to maintain scientific relevance and rigour to be relevant for technology adoption researchers. Secondly, this work is written for the R&D manager or executive who might apply the framework in practice and use it to steer decisions. Concerning managerial relevance, the framework has one main strength. It's communicability (M. Minnesma, personal communication, 10 April 2019). Adoption in the chemical industry is characterised by an elaborate adoption system (Wesseling et al., 2017). All actors in this network have to align and agree for an innovation to land. Having a clear and easily understood framework makes it easy to communicate within the adoption system and increase awareness and support for innovations. Secondly, the framework's simplicity helps managers more easily integrate important adoption criteria in the discussions and decisions made about adoption.

8. Conclusion and discussion

The chemical industry needs to quickly adapt to deal with climate change's environmental and economic challenges. The chemical industry is a serious contributor to climate change, and its contribution to economic stability and growth is considerable. Adopting sustainable process technologies is the most promising solution for the industry as the current processes are the leading cause of emissions. However, current theories on technology adoption are not suited to effectively deal with the highly networked nature of innovation in the chemical industry. Furthermore, these theories fail to describe the dynamics typical for the process technology markets. These challenges have led to the following research question.

"What factors influence the adoption decision of sustainable process technologies by production companies in the chemical industry?"

To answer this question, four sub-questions are devised. First, we wondered whether previous literature provides a model describing adoption in the chemical industry. To answer this, the cornerstone theories of adoption are analysed. Second, we dove into the details and set out to find the adoption criteria typically used by decision-makers in the chemical industry. Interviews with industry experts provided a list of adoption criteria that coincided with criteria found in the literature. The third research question emphasises the influence of organisations other than the focal production firm. Production firms in the chemical industry are bound by, among others, a rigid supply chain. All these interactions can influence the adoption process of sustainable energy technologies. Fourth, the interviews revealed that the relative importance of adoption criteria changes according to the characteristics of the technology, organisation, and market environment in which the adoption occurs. The remainder of this section presents and answers these sub-questions, building towards the answer to the main question stated above. Next, the results of this thesis are discussed, and future research recommendations are presented.

Sub-question one

To what extent do cornerstone adoption theories apply to sustainable process technology adoption?

To better understand adoption in the chemical industry, an industry-specific sustainable process technology adoption framework is made. This framework is based on an existing framework from general adoption research and is complimented with industry-specific adoption criteria. This research set out to analyse a variety of cornerstone theories of adoption. This analysis and subsequent selection of the most suitable framework is explained in chapter three of this thesis. The cornerstone theories were determined based on a co-citation analysis executed by van Oorschot et al. (2018). Figure 34 below shows an overview of the different cornerstone adoption theories. In this figure, the theories are arranged based on their level of analysis and their complexity.

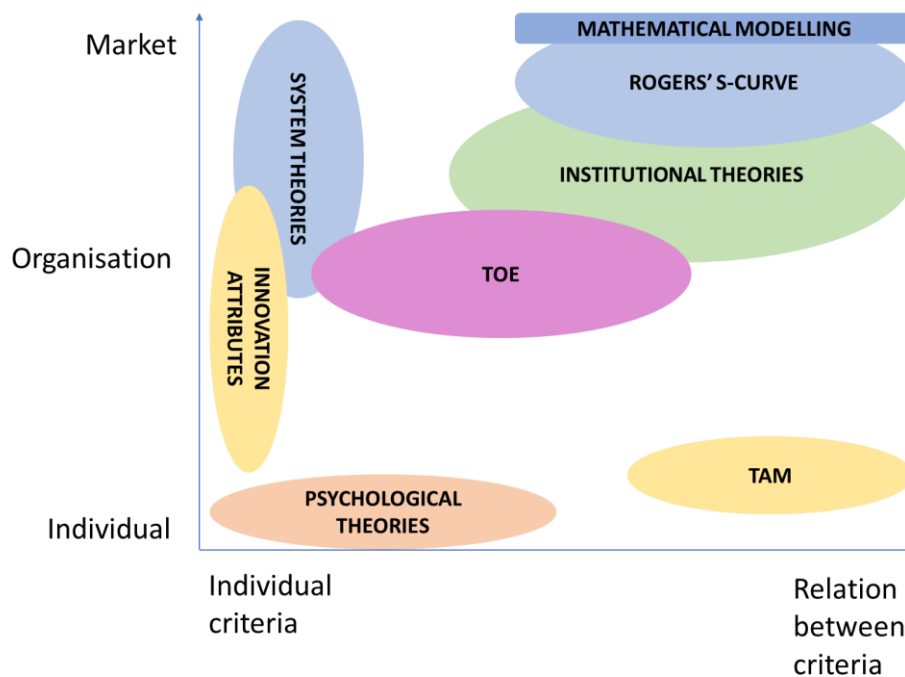


Figure 34 Overview of the cornerstone adoption models, organised by their level of analysis and complexity.

Most theories describing adoption focus on the diffusion of a technology using a market level of analysis. These studies include the S-curve, as well as the institutional theories. A market level of analysis does not fit the scope of this research, which aims to find the adoption criteria used by the adopter (i.e. consumer) of technologies. In that respect, the Theory of Reasoned Action and TAM are more suitable. These theories aim explicitly at the adopter and provide a detailed methodology to describe its behaviour. Unfortunately, this is the caveat for these theories. Next to the adopter's perspective, this research aims to find the interactions between the focal firm production firm and other proximate firms such as regulators or suppliers. As such, this research focuses on the aggregate behaviour of a firm instead of the individuals within. For the same reason, psychological theories are not helpful as the backbone for this research.

Between the models analysed, the Technology-Organisation-Environment (TOE) model is selected as a structural basis to describe adoption in the chemical industry. The TOE model was chosen for multiple reasons. First, the model fits the scope of this research. It analyses adoption from the perspective of the adopting company whilst having an organisational level of analysis. An organisational level of analysis means that the focal firm is seen as one actor in a network of organisations. This view reveals an essential aspect of adoption in the chemical industry: the influence of firms and organisations other than the focal production facility.

The second reason the TOE model was chosen is its embrace of environmental influences on adoption—a crucial aspect of adoption in the chemical industry. However, so far, the TOE model has not yet been applied in the context of the chemical industry. To do so, the adoption criteria used in the proposed framework are derived from interviews with industry experts in the Netherlands. These criteria are compared to adoption criteria for process technologies in the chemical industry found in the literature.

Sub-question two

What decision criteria are of importance when production companies adopt sustainable process technologies?

The interviews done during this research have identified thirty adoption criteria. These criteria are listed and further explained in section 6.1 of this thesis. These criteria were compared to a list of twenty-two statistically significant adoption criteria found in the literature. This comparison yielded satisfactory overlap, with the annotation that the interview derived criteria were more specific. For example, when literature proposed criteria such as relative advantage, the interviewees specified what constitutes a relative advantage for process technologies in the chemical industry. These criteria are arranged according to the categories proposed by the TOE model. Figure 35 below shows the criteria obtained from the interviews. Here, they are classed into the categories provided by the TOE model. The framework presented in Figure 35 can be seen as the TOE model's application in the chemical industry context.

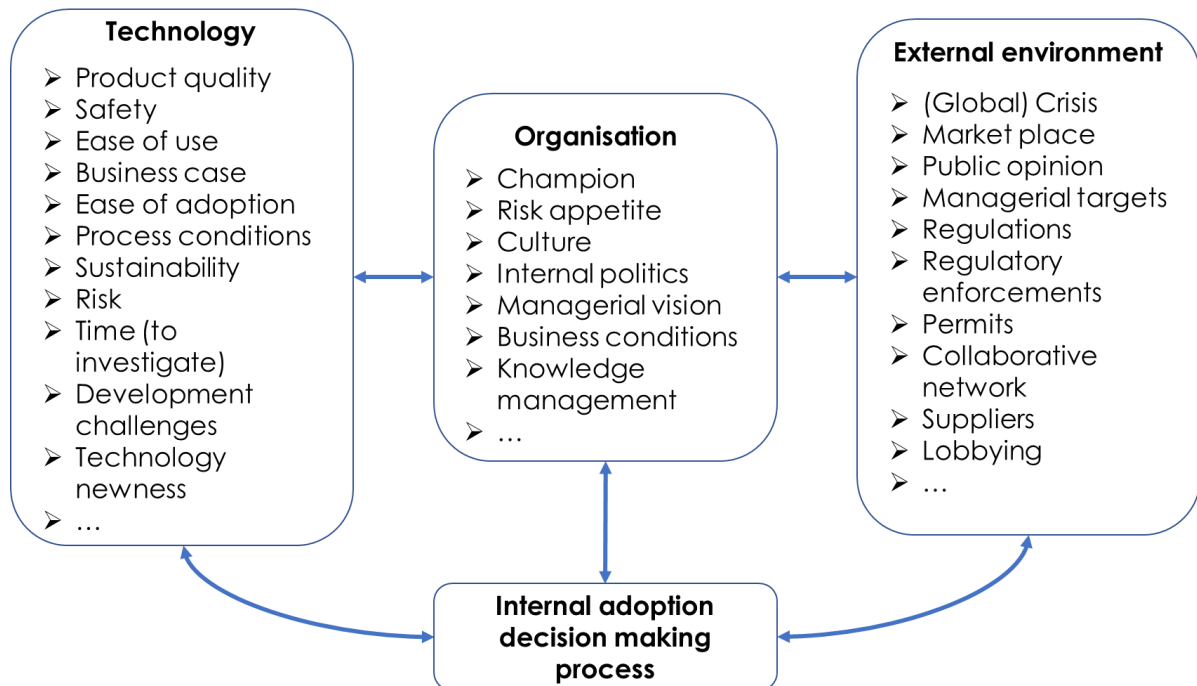


Figure 35 The TOE model applied to the domain of the chemical industry. Based on interview derived adoption criteria of sustainable process technology adoption.

Sub-question three

How do organisations other than the focal production firm influence the adoption decision of that production company in the chemical industry?

Because of the highly interwoven relations in the chemical industry, specific attention is brought to the effect on adoption of organisations other than the focal production firm. This group of

organisations and their interactions is referred to as the adoption system. The interviews found that the adoption system consists of regulators, clients, competitors, suppliers, engineering firms, and development firms. The adoption system is visualised in Figure 37 below.

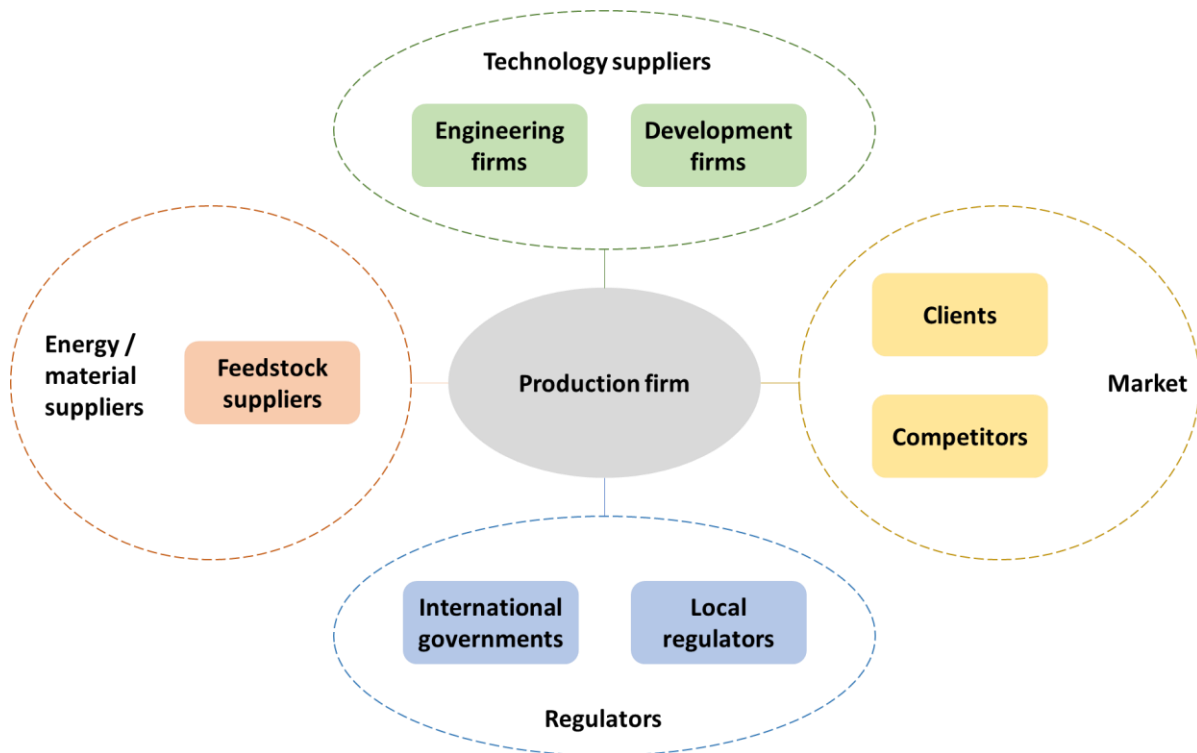


Figure 36 Overview of the adoption system, as found during the interviews.

In one way or another, all these organisations influence the adoption decisions of a production firm in the chemical industry by imposing requirements for the process or products and practically limiting the technologies available. For instance, regulators can initiate or hamper the adoption process. This is done by imposing additional (emission) requirements to the technologies or requiring stringent process certifications. Furthermore, policy changes of governments on other continents can create price fluctuations for local producers because of the chemical industry's global markets. The full list of interactions between the focal firm and the other actors in the adoption system can be found in section 6.2. The adoption system influences are accounted for in the TOE framework through a set of adoption criteria in the external environment category in Figure 35 above.

Sub-question four

How do the technical characteristics and market environment change the relative importance of adoption criteria?

A principal addition of this research to current literature is the notion of adoption dimensions. It was found that not all adoption situations are created equal. Each adoption situation can be described using the four adoption dimensions presented in Figure 37 below. In turn, these dimensions can be used to predict changes in the importance of specific adoption criteria. The adoption dimensions can be divided into two groups. The first group are the technical dimensions. These are process legacy (i.e.

greenfield process or existing process), technology newness (i.e. newly discovered technologies or developed technologies) and technology impact (i.e. auxiliary machinery or main process machinery). The second group of dimensions are the market environments (i.e. pharmaceutical, speciality chemicals and bulk chemicals). The insights from the adoption dimensions are explained in more detail in section 6.3.

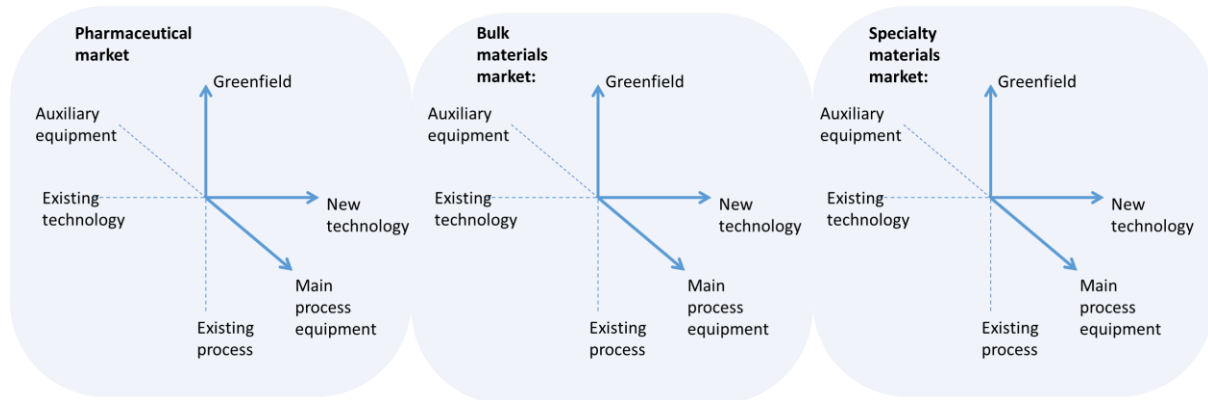


Figure 37 Visualisation of the adoption dimensions. Each rectangle marks a market environment in which the technological dimensions are found.

Combining the adoption dimensions with the TOE framework is quite simple. First, you take the default TOE framework as presented in this thesis. Next, the adoption situation has to be identified to discover the changes in adoption criteria weights. This means that the production company must find the positions of the adoption situation on the adoption dimensions grids as indicated by the red dot. Finally, an applied version of the TOE framework is made in which some criteria are of decreasing or increasing importance, indicated by the red and green arrows respectively. This process is visualised in Figure 38 below.

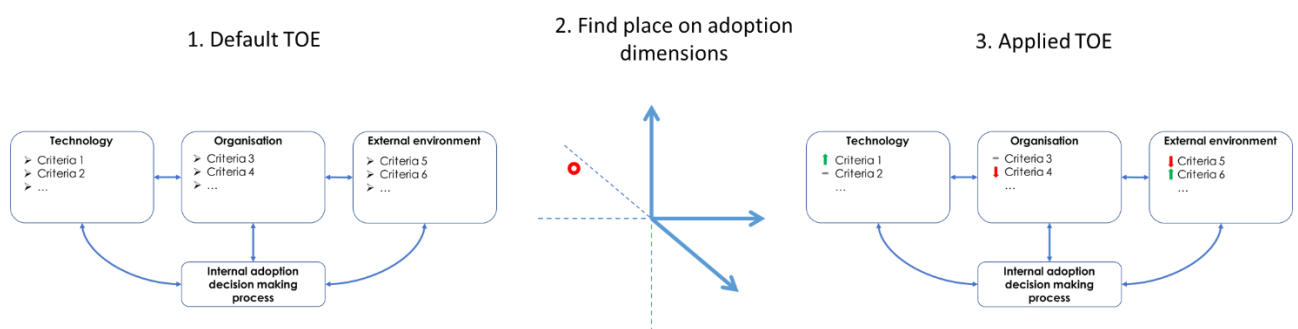


Figure 38 The process of using the adoption framework presented in this thesis.

For instance, whilst reacting to regulatory changes which require considerable process changes, it was found that time pressure was a determining factor in the adoption decision. In contrast, during a lifetime extension program, time seems plentiful. This is because the current process is already operating as required, meaning money is being made. Additional time spent during the preparation phase could potentially save money if the new process's start-up time is shorter. In this example, regulatory intervention and life extension programs are the adoption situations. The amount of change required to the process is reflected in the process legacy dimension. The regulatory intervention requires (part of) a new process to be built, resembling a greenfield process.

On the other hand, the life time extension program leans more towards a currently existing process as the process changes little. The time pressure is the changing adoption criteria, as time pressure is higher for greenfield processes than existing processes. With a little more information on the exact changes that have to be made in both cases, the technology newness and the impact on the overall process can be determined. This example assumes two adoption situations within the same market environment. This means that influences from the market will be equal in both cases.

In conclusion, the influences on the adoption decision of production firms in the chemical industry have many origins. Noteworthy are the characteristics of the sustainable process technologies and the influences from the adoption system. By embracing the adoption dimensions, the proposed framework seems to describe adoption decisions in the chemical industry better than a simple summation of the adoption criteria. Moreover, the research has found an implicit assumption that many adoption researchers have. Often, researchers assume that customers or users cannot fully understand the product they buy. Therefore, proximate adoption criteria are used, such as a technology's perceived usefulness or perceived relative advantage.

In contrast, adopters in the chemical industry are very knowledgeable about the technology they wish to acquire. This results from the time and effort put into understanding and testing a technology before purchasing. As such, the proximate adoption criteria are not representative of decision making in the chemical industry. The interviewees expressed much more detailed criteria, such as specific energy efficiency gains or process parameters instead of perceived usefulness. More information about the contributions and limitations of this research is given in the next section.

8.1. Discussion

This section reflects on the results presented in this thesis. First, the generalisability of the work is discussed. This is followed by the contributions and limitations of this study. Next, a critical reflection on the transition of the chemical industry is provided, in which learned lessons and future opportunities are described. Finally, advice for future research is given.

Generalisability

Throughout this thesis, it is argued that the current adoption literature does not fit with the adaptive behaviour of the chemical industry. This discrepancy between the incumbent theories and the adoption behaviour in the industry can be attributed to multiple shortcomings. First, most incumbent models are based on stylised settings in which adoption took place. For instance, TAM focuses on the final user of software products. Because of this focus, the decision to adopt is less important than how the technology will be used. Managers typically decide on a computer program and use TAM to determine whether or not their employees are likely to use the program. Other theories, too, fail to notice the lack of cross-industry generalisability. Take the original work of Rogers, for instance. The hybrid seed case's product quality, price, regulation, and supply chain were already highly organised and scaled up (Ryan & Gross, 1950).

Yet, the chemical industry typically develops its technology in-house, meaning these contextual influences must be accounted for. As suggested in this research, the most suitable model is the Technology-Organisation-Environment (TOE) model (Tornatzky et al., 1990). The domain-specific literature strengthens this argument. For instance, the model proposed by Dieperink et al. (2004) seemingly applies the TOE model. However, it mentions incorporating somewhat different literature sources and interviews as the sources for the model.

Second, the theories proposed assume that the perception of a technology determines whether it is adopted or not. This follows from the behaviour-oriented focus of the theories. But, again, this does not coincide with the observations done in the chemical industry.

The industry characteristics are similar to the observations done about innovation in the process industry (Fu et al., 2018). Furthermore, some articles describing innovation in the chemical industry refer to one of the innovation system theories (Dieperink et al., 2004; Jacobsson & Lauber, 2006; Wesseling et al., 2017)

Contributions

The theoretical contributions of this work are manifold. Most evident of all is applying the TOE framework in a new context, the chemical industry. TOE has been applied mainly in the information technology context by other scholars outside the original conception. This context is different from the highly networked, large scale and high stakes application of this thesis. Multiple additions to the literature have been made to achieve an agreeable fusion of the TOE model with the chemical industry.

First, industry-specific adoption criteria had to be added to the framework. Sustainable process technology adoption literature devotes much effort towards identifying factors that determine adoption. However, general adoption theories have not yet been employed as a theoretical basis of the research (Fu et al., 2018). This work introduces the theories to the sustainable process technology adoption field. By doing so, the area of study can progress beyond investigating individual factors and embrace the complexity of adoption recognised in general adoption research.

Second, the system dynamics identified in this work imply that all system actors, not primarily governments, can initiate and carry through strategic interventions in the transition away from fossil fuels.

Third, this work contains a content analysis of adoption and diffusion research based on previous research identifying adoption theories cornerstone publications using bibliographic proximity. At the time of writing, such a fine-grained review of the general adoption theories is unavailable. However, this effort is highly complementary to the bibliographic review methodology, as it unravels the details hidden underneath the empirical method (van Oorschot et al., 2018; White & McCain, 1998). Furthermore, the application of the work by Fu et al. (2018) into the Dutch context reveals more specific adoption criteria.

This research, however, does not only apply the TOE framework in a different context. During the merger of the two, it became clear that not all instances of adoption are created equal. A hot water pump, for example, receives much less development time than a new reactor concept. It thus seems that different technologies are evaluated differently. An additional level of complexity was required to describe adoption in the chemical industry. As such, a radically new concept is introduced. The adoption dimensions. Adoption dimensions give a distilled view of the adoption situation and can be easily linked to changes in criteria weights. Although some authors have emphasised that technology-specific criteria need to be incorporated in adoption research, no one has provided such a complete and integrated view as the adoption dimensions (Fleiter et al., 2012).

This study helps managers to understand better the mechanisms that exist during adoption. For instance, the adoption dimensions provide a way to interpret different adoption situations less ad hoc and more meaningful. The framework helps managers more easily integrate critical adoption criteria in discussions and decisions surrounding adoption. Furthermore, when used to guide the decision-making process, the TOE framework is a checklist of the technologies' maturity and suitability for the organisation.

Limitations

Ultimately, this thesis has made concessions to the extent to which specific research subjects are elaborated on. Some of these limitations are inherent to the research, while others are simply due to the limited time available for this work. This paragraph lists a variety of limitations.

Due to the qualitative nature of this research, this section only describes what dimensions could exist and what their influence on criteria importance might be. Further quantitative research could determine the extent of these criteria and the exact changes in criteria weight during adoption decisions.

The use of the sectoral view used for this thesis comes with some limitations. Using this view, risks of leaving out new actors in the market which are not yet thoroughly established. However, it is expected that this does not considerably affect the outcome of this study. As argued in the introduction, the chemical industry is not a new market and is seemingly aware of its high level of interconnectedness. As such, companies are better able to identify organisations that influence adoption decisions. Still, as new sustainable technologies emerge, this reason might eventually fail. New markets can be opened, or the interaction between end-users and production firms can change. Consider, for example, the implementation of a circular economy or the emphasis on upcycling. Both these changes are looming at the horizon for the chemical industry.

Furthermore, a more detailed analysis of internal politics would result in a more thorough understanding of why some companies adopt where others don't. The interviewees have commented that the championship of a manager or managerial targets affects the success of the adoption. However, most interviewees mentioned market conditions and technological characteristics as equal, if not greater, important than internal politics. As such, it can be concluded that the accounting for these interactions as a single variable is sufficiently complex.

Although this thesis aims to encompass as much of the adoption process as possible, some aspects inevitably have to be left undiscovered. A key insight is that, in the terminology of Rogers, this work has focussed on the 'evaluation criteria' step of the adoption process (Rogers, 2003). One of the aspects skipped for this work is the implementation phase. Future research could focus on these internal dynamics. This opportunity is discussed further down this chapter.

For this study, the industry network of the institute for process technology (ISPT) is used to contact the interviewees. The ISPT is a Dutch organisation providing a platform for industry, government and knowledge institutions to develop and introduce sustainable technologies in the Dutch process industry. As such, the companies associated with the ISPT can be expected to value sustainability more than those that are not. However, the majority of the Dutch chemical industry is associated with the ISPT. Therefore, this network is still expected to represent the industry properly.

Critical reflection on the transition of the chemical industry

This research assumes that the transition of the chemical industry is hampered by the decision to adopt sustainable process technologies. It could be expected that the firm readiness (i.e. technical and organisational changes required for the transition) further limits climate change mitigation.

The chemical industry has evolved to accept its status of being conservative. This is rationalised with high investment costs and vulnerability to geopolitical forces. However, higher management's lack of entrepreneurship and the inability to embrace organisational reform seems to be the driving forces behind the lack of action. The chemical industry requires more risk-taking managers to thrive in the climate crisis. Old notions of short-term profits should be lost, and the reality of long-lasting investments should be embraced. Instead, money is poured into technological research, resulting in incremental improvements or technologies unable to reach a mature state.

This research aims to become a guideline for industries during the transition towards zero-emission and circular production. Some companies do not have a function after the energy transition. These are the companies whose core processes are not suited for transitioning or producing goods no longer valuable after the change. Companies whose core resource or product is no longer needed after the regime shift will likely hamper change. However, companies seeking new technologies to adopt are expected to positively contribute to the network (Wesseling et al., 2017). One fascinating insight of this study is that the biobased industry is ahead in embracing the circular economy. For biobased firms, most definitions of sustainability mention recycling materials and minimising the impact on the surroundings.

On the other hand, petrochemical firms define sustainability more in terms of economic- and energy efficiency. It seems that the transition will require external forces to drive change in the industry. Pressure can come from activist shareholders, public outcry or governmental intervention. Public activism by the likes of Greta Thunberg and shareholders at the Royal Dutch Shell give hope for a swift

transition. However, the primary external pressure for change seemed to be the government (Bousso, 2021).

The role of governments

Governmental intervention, too, has not always proven to be highly effective. One of the main initiatives in Europe is the European Emission Trading Scheme (EU ETS). However, during this study, it was found that the EU ETS has little to no effect on sustainable technology adoption. An exciting alternative is the Refunded Emissions Program (Bonilla et al., 2015). This system was proposed to overcome the problem that best practices or standards have. Additionally, the system is more likely to be accepted as a portion of the industry profits from the regulation. This reduces the lobbying effort that usually blocks carbon taxes.

Furthermore, governments and other regulators should be aware that creating policy alone is not enough. It is standard practice to only tackle regulatory mandates once lacking efforts are exposed by enforcing agents throughout the chemical industry. In compliance with the industry standards, the production firms get a two-year extension before complying with the law. During this time, the production firm invests in incremental changes to act upon the omission. In the Netherlands, a lack of enforcement staff results in industries not adhering to new rules and regulations. Furthermore, governments can assist quick adoption if they make it easier for companies to obtain permits and certifications.

One of the interferences of national governments that have proved to work is the collaborative creation of roadmaps (Fischedick et al., 2014; Wesseling & Van der Vooren, 2017). Roadmaps might guide investments and allow multi-actor networks to work together towards a common goal. However, As Fischedick et al. (2014) stated, it is necessary for the roadmaps to be binding. This stimulates the actors to uphold their promises and push inter-organisational collaboration.

The specialisation of the industry

Remarkably, there is a tendency for Dutch production firms to produce specialised chemicals. In this context, specialisation means that production companies devolve horizontal integration and only focus on their most profitable, often specialised, markets. Following the current specialisation trend, a more decentralised industry might emerge. This comes forth from both inside and outside the Dutch chemical industry. Internationally, steep competition in the commodities markets due to innovation and high levels of government support in developing countries has made the Dutch industry less competitive. Simultaneously, waves of private equity firms are stripping down and selling Dutch industrial players aiming at short term profits (Company B, interview with A. Kieft).

The problem with specialisation is that it can hamper collaboration within a supply chain. If one company owns a large portion of the supply chain, it can more easily embrace radical changes. The splintered accountability of individual companies makes decision making much harder. Even though specialisation is not necessarily in line with the ambitions to adopt a circular and biobased economy, some opportunities arise.

With more different companies having a small share in the market, it might be easier for newcomers to enter. As such, a new source of innovations is introduced. Furthermore, smaller production capacities might entice the production firms to utilise local produce. The biobased economy works best if the raw material comes from local sources. Therefore, national scale biobased production firms might embrace the concept of a biorefinery. In a biorefinery, a wide variety of source materials can be

refined into multiple building blocks. The Dutch delta area, for instance, can be transformed into a production hub for biobased materials using locally derived raw materials (Vaessen, 2015). Future research could investigate what changes in the supply chain, technologies and regulations are required for such a hub to materialise (Dragone et al., 2020; Mossberg et al., 2018). Secondly, a reinforcement loop can occur once the chemical industry, e.g. the production firms of plastic pallets, is responsible for recycling consumer products. The production firms are likely to encounter types of plastics or composites which are more easily recycled. With this, an incentive arises for the production firms to advise these types of plastic to their customers. In turn, this would increase the number of recyclable plastics to the consumer, further reinforcing the cycle.

From a managerial standpoint, future research should focus on organisational improvements and business case innovation in the industry. Both desk research and the interviews revealed how underdeveloped the business models of the chemical industry are. Learning from advancements in service design exposes many opportunities. For example, the industry can adopt a service-oriented business model where each client can give specific needs. This requires the industry to extend its IT capabilities beyond process control. Furthermore, the machinery and knowledge of the factories can be used for production-as-a-service. An example of such activities can be seen at the biobased pilot facility of DSM Delft. Here other companies can test their biobased process on-demand while tapping into the vast knowledge that DSM has collected about the bioindustry.

Future research

During the literature study and interviews conducted for this research, it is found that criteria do change with changing conditions. From this insight, the adoption dimensions emerged. Some scholars have made compelling arguments for the change in adoption criteria based on the technology adopted (Barnett & Clark, 1996; Dieperink et al., 2004; Wesseling et al., 2017). However, this work has shown that other, non-technical reasons for changing adoption criteria exist. Examples are the market in which a company operates, whether a technology is incorporated in a new factory or used to improve existing processes, and the adopted technology's closeness to the primary process. Future research can identify more of these adoption dimensions and find a way for managers to determine which situation fits their adopted innovation.

Two possible candidates are the feedstock of the process and the urgency of adoption. Urgency can come from regulations, pressure from stakeholders or changes in the supply chain. More urgent adoption gives engineers less time to perfect the technology before implementation. As a result, changes to the technology or its setting have to be made during the operation. Adoption is not urgent during lifetime extension programs. Here, more emphasis is put on product quality and safety. The second potential dimension is that of feedstock. One variation between biobased- and petrochemical feedstock concerns the timing of adoption. Biobased firms tend to adopt new technologies outside the harvest season, particularly those who rely on crops as their primary feedstock. Another difference between the two types of feedstocks is the definition of safety. The strong acids or carcinogenic chemicals used by petrochemical firms focus mainly on damage to the environment and employees. On the contrary, the biobased industry is primarily biobased.

Moreover, the effect of the dimensions has to be quantified. This quantification can be done through surveys in which managers are asked to detail what adoption criteria they consider crucial for particular adoption situations. One way to do so is to ask the participants to rank adoption criteria

from more to less important whilst varying the adoption dimensions. For instance, one can rank the importance of firm size, regulations, investment costs, etc., in the pharmaceutical market. However, participants might feel uncomfortable in ranking criteria that are equally important. Although this research found that regulations play a more critical role in the pharmaceutical market, this does not mean that companies in the bulk chemicals market discard the input of regulators completely. Here, a pairwise comparison of criteria could help. Otherwise, a less detailed but more natural system of criteria evaluation might be needed.

Furthermore, future research could look into the implementation phase of adoption. This research has limited its view on the adoption process to the decision phase. However, another phase in the adoption process exists. In short, the implementation phase process can have multiple forms. The main concern for adoption periods of less than five years is selecting a supplier for the desired manufacturing capabilities. For adoption periods longer than this, engineers can design a new (section of a) plant in-house. Still, third party suppliers are needed for the final design, execution and delivery of the plant. During these later stages of the adoption process, the production facility becomes a client or project manager. During this research, a focus on the internal processes at play during adoption is more appropriate than the organisational level of analysis applied during this research. It is critical to consider sustainable process technology adoption not only as a technology challenge but also as a cultural one (Fu et al., 2018). As discussed in the previous section, the chemical industry is quite conservative. This is a result of the large investments and meticulous processes and the general risk-averse sentiment among the people working in the industry. Strong leadership is required for large technological changes in this context. Another aspect of company culture concerns the factory personnel, who have to trust new equipment and be willing to change their routine.

Finally, it could be wise to check whether the assumptions made for this thesis stand the test of time. The introduction of the circular economy in the industries' business models can change the way new product/market combinations are evaluated. Future interactions with end-users or recycling centres can change the adoption system of the industry, which in turn can change how technologies are evaluated. Furthermore, specific technological changes, too, can alter the business case and supply chain of production firms in the chemical industry. As electrification becomes more and more popular, the industry is decoupled from oil and switches to electricity. As such, suppliers change, and supply pipes or trucks are replaced with wires. The competitiveness of firms becomes linked to electricity prices in their region instead of the oil price. These and many more challenges await the chemical industry. The following section discusses in what other ways the transition of the industry is taking place.

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Appendices

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Appendix I – Interview Marjan Minnesma

Interview Marjan Minnesma, 10-04-2019

Over Urgenda

Marjan doet concrete projecten, presenteren voor het onderwijs of het bedrijfsleven. S 'avonds schrijft ze veel en overdag is het uitdragen of nieuwe projecten verzinnen. Voor ze aan Urgenda begon heeft Marjan ervaring opgedaan bij de VU, in het bedrijfsleven en een NGO. Hierdoor kent ze veel mensen en spreekt ze veel talen. Dit helpt om bij de transitie omdat er nooit een ding is dat moet veranderen. In de transitie moet je mensen met elkaar verbinden om dwars door denkpatronen heen te lopen. Het helpt dan dus erg om veel mensen te kennen. De integrale blik is ook nodig om de juiste oplossingsroute te zoeken.

Geschiedenis van Urgenda

History: Urgenda is ontstaan vanuit de Erasmus universiteit. Daar werkte Marjan samen met Jan Rotmans aan het instituut voor transitie. Op een gegeven moment werd er veel gepraat en onderzocht, maar was er geen verandering in de maatschappij. Deze uitdaging zijn ze aangegaan en samen hebben ze een festival georganiseerd met kennispartijen die bezig waren met een duurzame samenleving. De bouw, water, klimaat, etc. tien van deze programma's, die samen 400 miljoen te besteden hadden, kwamen bij elkaar. Tijdens dit evenement kwam naar boven dat er een duidelijke toekomstvisie miste. Alle programma's waren verzamelingen van projecten zonder visie of samenhang. Door de projecten onder de loep te nemen is er een visie opgesteld over hoe de samenleving er in 2050 uit moest komen te zien. Door deze inzichten te combineren met de transitie kennis uit het instituut van de Erasmus universiteit, is een Urgente Agenda ontstaan. Deze Urgenda Agenda is toen op het festival gepresenteerd als onderdeel van het festival. Dit onderdeel heeft media-aandacht gekregen en binnen de kortste keren was de telefoon roodgloeiend van alle belletjes die binnen kwamen. Van boeren tot bankdirecteuren met de vraag of het ook daadwerkelijk uitgevoerd ging worden. Ook dit is opgepakt door Marjan en Jan zo'n 40 uur aan de universiteit en 40 uur aan Urgenda werd er gewerkt om een toekomstvisie op papier te krijgen concrete doelen per jaar, 5 grote icon projecten, etc. Na enkele jaren werd dit te veel en is Marjan, samen met Urgenda, losgegaan van de Erasmus universiteit om Urgenda op eigen benen te zetten. Vanaf dit punt is Urgenda gaan focussen op de energie transitie. Dit terrein is al zeer veelzijdig door te kijken naar de bouw en de industrie. Echter is er ook gebiedsontwikkeling onder andere. Sinds dat begin zijn er verschillende spraakmakende activiteiten geweest.

Waar Urgenda voor staat

Urgenda heeft als basis dat het science-based moet zijn. Het gaat dan niet alleen om de kennis die je zelf hebt opgedaan, maar ook het netwerk van professoren die je kunnen blootstellen aan de nieuwste kennis. Door dit netwerk te hebben kun je ook zelf besluiten welke professor betrouwbaar is. Sommige professoren lopen nou eenmaal verder voorop als andere gebaseerd op hun wereldvisie en onderscheid te maken tussen waar een professor verstand van heeft en welke informatie deze persoon gewoon uit de krant heeft. Het maken van dit onderscheid kan lastig zijn voor veel burgers. Omdat een geranium professor zegt dat klimaatverandering een grap is, zullen veel burgers dit geloven puur omdat hij of zij een professor is. Onderzoekers kennen is dus belangrijk maar op de hoogte blijven van de stand van zaken is minstens zo belangrijk.

Er is een link tussen de technische kant van de chemie en de praktijk. Je ziet dat veel politici niet de technische achtergrond hebben om zelf een oordeel te vellen over de transitie. Hierdoor vallen ze vaker ten prooi aan de lobbyisten. Lobbyisten die vaker voor niet duurzame technologieën streven als dat ze voor duurzame technologieën doen. Om de transitie te helpen, moeten ook de besluitvormers goed geïnformeerd worden.

Voorbeelden van situaties waarin verkeerde informatie kan leiden tot niet duurzame oplossingen zijn de productie van waterstof voor kunstmest en de uitstoot die kassen doen (tot wel 95% van de CO₂ die erin te gaat). Om deze bekendheid te vergroten houdt Urgenda verschillende presentaties over het hele land, waarin ook de bèta kant van het verhaal wordt verteld. Ook de specialisten hebben soms een één dimensioneel beeld.

Transitie literatuur

De transitie literatuur heeft voornamelijk de functie om mensen het inzicht te geven in een bepaald patroon. Er zijn verschillende type mensen, waarbij sommige mensen niet goed in het herkennen van patronen. In de transitie literatuur wordt gesproken over micro, meso en macro veranderingen en verschillende paden die je kan bewandelen om de transitie te starten. Dit kan vanaf een kleine groep mensen die gaan groeien en het regime overnemen. In de praktijk kwam ook naar voren dat mensen binnen de overheid de transitie in gang zetten. Voor een deel is het gewoon met gezond verstand kijken maar zoals gezegd is het voor veel mensen fijn om een raster te zien om relaties te zien. Dit helpt dus om stappen te zetten, met een overzicht welke factoren nodig zijn om bepaalde stappen te zetten. Het helpt dus om te leren van het verleden om te voorkomen dat fouten zich herhalen. Dit is ook de kracht van consultancy bedrijven als McKinsey.

De theorie van Rotmans is ook veelvoudig vereenvoudigd om het te in de praktijk toe te passen. Het transitie onderzoek, waar Marjan leiding aan heeft gegeven, waar 20 miljoen in omging om het onderzoek op poten te zetten. Het veld was opgedeeld in een paar stukken. Eerst was er Johan Schot, die zich ging richten op history van transitie. Wat waren de succesfactoren en waar ging het mis van eerdere pogingen van bijvoorbeeld elektrische auto's of die van steenkool naar gas in woningen is wel gelukt. Met zijn team heeft Schot geprobeerd patronen te herkennen in de verschillende transities met de hoop er wat van te leren. Ten tweede was er de 'governance' poot van John Grin. Deze tak focust zich op hoe je een transitie kan sturen. Er is geen blauwdruk, maar als je weet waar je naartoe wilt kun je vanaf verschillende kanten die kant op werken. Ten derde was er het onderzoek naar transitie management, hoe kun je een transitie in de praktijk sturen. Marco Hekkert was een van de transitie theorieën, ook TNO had ook bepaalde transitie modellen die ze bestudeerde. Zij focust zich op het verschil te herkennen tussen de transitie van een gewone innovatie en die van een transitie. Het verschil tussen een 'game changer' of eentje die zorgt voor afbraak. Er zijn verschillende manieren hoe je het systeem kan veranderen en daar hebben zij naar gekeken. Voor een deel zijn mensen opnieuw gaan nadenken en tot de conclusie gekomen die al beschikbaar was in de klassieke verandering managementtheorie en product diffusie theorie. Hierdoor werd er wel eens gedacht dat een idee erg vernieuwend was terwijl dit nog helemaal niet zo vernieuwend was.

Innovatie in de chemische industrie

Zelf is Marjan van mening dat de ene innovatie de andere niet is. Als een innovatie compleet destructief is en een industrie op de kop zet of bedrijven aan de kant zet, zoals bij Kodak, is grote weerstand heel voorspelbaar. En dat er in dat regime dan weinig enthousiastelingen zijn lijkt dan ook duidelijk. Dus als je nu Shell eruit wilt gooien, levert dat ook weerstand op. Ondanks dat ze nu lijken

te werken aan verduurzaming is dit maar een fractie van wat ze investeren in de niet duurzame oplossingen als olie en gas. De boodschap naar Shell is ook dat ze geen bestaansrecht meer hebben binnen de nieuwe economie behalve als ze een duurzaam energiebedrijf worden. Dit nieuwe Shell zal echter veel kleiner zijn dan Shell zoals het nu is, omdat de toekomst veel decentraal is. Maar Shell zit gevangen in de huidige structuur omdat ze moeten presteren voor de aandeelhouders. Ze kunnen deze winst gerichte eigenaren moeilijk verkopen dat het bedrijf in de komende jaren flink minder groot zal worden door de verduurzaming. Het systeem waar Shell in vast zit kan het beste van buiten afgebroken worden. Er zijn ook andere partijen, zoals de chemie, die wel bestaansrecht hebben maar moeten stoppen met uitstoten. Dit kan dus ook met gezond verstand worden bedacht. Wanneer je wel bestaansrecht hebt, zijn er weer andere hobbels die je moet overwinnen.

Een raamwerk biedt dus wellicht weinig inzichten voor systeem denkers, maar kan heel waardevol zijn voor mensen die niet diep in de stof zitten of geen systeemdenker zijn. Bedrijven die een perspectief hebben op de toekomst zitten dus niet persé gevangen tussen de toekomst en huidige vraag van de aandeelhouders. De 'gevangen' bedrijven hebben wellicht ook een uitweg. Maar de bedrijven met perspectief moeten bepaalde hobbels te overkomen. Iedereen wilt blijven bestaan, dus als er een nieuwe technologie is zullen veel bedrijven een 'wait-and-see' strategie toepassen om te wachten tot andere de kinderziekten uit de technologieën te halen, en dit financieel opvangen. Zelfs als je dit gezamenlijk opvangt, zijn veel opties duurder dan de huidige bedrijfskosten. Hiervoor kan de overheid inspringen om comfort te bieden aan de bedrijven die de overgang willen maken zonder om te vallen. Binnen bedrijven zijn er conservatieven stemmen. 'Ik heb het al 100 jaar zo gedaan', 'ik heb het allemaal al geprobeerd' en dat soort redeneringen. Voor verandering heb je dus ook een bepaald type mens nodig die de ruimte moeten hebben. In sommige gevallen is er nog geen technologie, deze moet dan ontwikkeld worden. Hier komt de ontwikkelingsdiscussie om de hoek. Wie gaat het doen en wie gaat het betalen? Een voorbeeld is de papierindustrie, die hebben water nodig van 180 graden. Dat willen ze best betalen maar kernenergie zien ze dan minder heil in. Met kunstmest uit water in plaats van aardgas is het juist het prijsverschil en de internationale concurrentiepositie die in het bedwang komt, waar de overheid goed kan bijspringen. Soms is het garant staan, soms subsidie, soms onderzoek, wordt het samen oppakken of kijken we naar de overheid? De aandeelhouders zijn daar ook een bepalende rol in. Als deze hoge winsteisen hebben is er weinig speelruimte over voor het bedrijf om te investeren.

Los van het geld hebben veel bedrijven vanuit een toezichthouder of eigen accountancy ratio's opgelegd gekregen. Denk aan ROI, vreemd vermogen – eigen vermogen. Er wordt dus vanuit verschillende bestuurslagen van alles opgelegd op het management. De terugverdiertijden van duurzame oplossingen zijn vaak langer en daarvoor moet ook dit aspect aangepakt worden om de transitie te laten gebeuren. De CEOs die wel meer durven, moet zich toch aan die ratio's houden en worden daardoor tegen gehouden.

In Nederland zijn de financiële toezichthouders de Autoriteit Financiële markten (AFM) en de banken die onder BAVO 1, 2, 3 vallen zitten vol met allerlei regeltjes. Aan de andere kant kan het ook zijn dat, bijvoorbeeld bij een TATA steel in IJmuiden, het internationale management bepaalde doelstellingen op legt om investeringen door te laten gaan. Dit legt dan ook de transitie plat.

Er is een verschil tussen de wil om echt te veranderen en te doen alsof er veranderd wordt. Een bedrijf dat niet meer levensvatbaar is maakt hele andere afwegingen dan een bedrijf dat kan veranderen. Een Shell verkoopt olie, terwijl we elektrisch gaan rijden en de circulaire economie die olie overbodig maken. Deze bedrijven zijn vooral bezig met rekken en 'greenwashing'. De bedrijven dat kan

veranderen is opzoek naar geld voor investeringen om de omslag te mogen maken. Dat is een hele andere opgave.

Nederlandse transitie en een voorbeeld technologie

Marjan vindt dat de klimaat tafel te veel gedomineerd worden door bedrijven die weg moeten, en te weinig door bedrijven die kunnen blijven. De balans is daar niet goed. Haar visie op Carbon Capture en Storage (CCU) is dat het een technologie is die als laatste redmiddel gebruikt kan worden. Echter is het opslaan van gas en het investeren van, toch wel schaars geld, in deze innovaties niet de beste keuze. Het geproduceerde gas moet namelijk nog steeds worden schoongemaakt en daarna verstopt worden onder het gras. Ook heeft de olie-industrie geen goede reputatie op het gebied van gasopslag en afsluiten van gasvelden. De staat van de afsluiters op zee wordt niet in de gaten gehouden en hier is dus ook eigenlijk weinig kennis over. Eigenlijk moeten we het kunnen halen zonder. Geld is dus niet persé in overvloed aanwezig om de transitie te vergoeden. Voor een Shell zou het echter de enigste manier kunnen zijn om door te blijven gaan met de vervuiling. Ook kan niet alle uitstoot worden afgevangen, want auto's stoten geen CO₂ uit dat afgevangen kan worden. Door het 'vieze' door te zetten, blijven kleine lekkages van CO₂ bestaan. Liever hetzelfde geld in zon, wind en aardwarmte. De marginale kosten van zon en wind zijn relatief klein in vergelijking met fossiele brandstoffen. Dat maakt het leven simpeler maar past niet goed in de manier hoe nu naar investeringen wordt gekeken.

Drijvers van verandering

Een grote drijver is druk van buitenaf of intrinsieke motivatie. Het ISPT is een belangrijke speler omdat ze de grote spelers uit de industrie bij elkaar brengen om besluiten te nemen over hoe de transitie eruit moet komen te zien. Het ISPT geeft de mogelijkheid om samen onderzoek te doen of samen te werken, waardoor spelers minder het idee hebben dat ze alleen zijn. Ook kan het risico van onderzoek op deze manier verminderd. Drempels worden ook makkelijker overwonnen door een dergelijke samenwerking. In zo'n situatie zijn er ook mensen nodig die de schouders er onder zetten maar dit resulteert dan sneller in een sneeuwbaaleffect. Samenwerking, samen onderzoek doen en samen lobbyen werkt goed. Ondanks dat ze in hele andere bedrijfstakken zitten hebben ze wel overlappende belangen (bijv. duurzaam waterstof). Dit versnelt de transitie.

Strategieën binnen de industrie zijn heel verschillend. Sommige bedrijven hebben een bevlogen CEO die bij lokale bestuurders vraagt voor geld om de investeringen te kunnen maken. Als er dan iemand gevonden wordt die zijn portemonnee te trekken en het risico wil delen worden er snel stappen gemaakt. Het zoeken naar nieuwe technieken en uitproberen van nieuwe technieken kan de overheid bij helpen. Sommige managers stellen echt een visie en betrekken mensen hierbij.

Binnen een bedrijf is er niet persé een functie aan te wijzen die verantwoordelijk is voor de transitie. Een CEO kan heel belangrijk zijn, maar hoe groter het bedrijf, hoe minder tijd deze heeft. Het ideaalste zou zijn iemand die de bescherming en handelsvrijheid van een CEO geniet maar die zich volledig kan focussen op het aanjagen van de transitie. Binnen bedrijven is echter niet alleen de officiële hiërarchie belangrijk, maar ook de informele hiërarchie. Een stafid met de functie van duurzaamheidsmanager is minder ideaal. Hoe hoger in de pikorde hoe meer je voor elkaar krijgt. Voor de samenwerking in de industrie, werkt Urgenda met bijna alle bedrijven (op Shell na), soms voor toelichting, soms om de raad van commissarissen wakker te maken of om te leren van andere branches. Het is ook afhankelijk van hoeveel mensen er intern al gericht zijn op de transitie die meer weten van de details, waar het uiteindelijk altijd om draait. CEO's zijn vaak abstract, dus voor het echt landen van de ideeën binnen de organisatie moet er ook gesproken worden met de lagen eronder. Binnen MKB heeft de directeur

vaak nog een goed beeld op wat wel en niet werkt, dus kunnen deze best interessante gesprekspartners zijn. Elk bedrijf heeft andere gaten of behoeftes die vervuld moeten worden. Om de (informele) structuur van een bedrijf echt te leren kennen zul je een tijdje moeten meelopen in het bedrijf en bij het koffiezet apparaat meepraten. Soms is er iemand die al 30 jaar in het bedrijf zit, veel connecties heeft en op de achterhand van alles aan het bijsturen is.

Tijdens het vorige gesprek kwam omhoog dat marketing minder effectief is bij bedrijven als bij consumenten. Soms heeft marketing te veel effect. Marketing is ook veel veranderd met de 'influencers', Social media etc. wat een veel breder publiek kan aanspreken. Marketing, en daarbij Framing, is echter niet alleen belangrijk voor consumenten. Ook voor bedrijven en de politiek kan er geframed worden om bepaalde doelstellingen te halen. Het zou best slim kunnen zijn om een marketingcampagne te starten over duurzaamheid naar de aandeelhouders, CEOs en andere bestuursorganen. Echter moet het frame wel aangepast worden op de bedrijfstak/context waarin de bedrijven zich specialiseren. Onderscheid moet in ieder geval gemaakt worden tussen MKB - Internationale bedrijven, Bedrijven met aandeelhouders – familiebedrijven/ bedrijven die autonoom bestuurd worden, bedrijven met hoger bestuur in Nederland – hoger bestuur daar buiten die anders bezig zijn met klimaat en ontwikkelingen. Het effect van de Nederlandse politiek.

Er wordt redelijk intentioneel gehandeld in de industrie. Het helpt erg veel of je als werknemer intrinsiek gemotiveerd bent of niet. Dat maakt het verschil tussen na 2 hobbels opgeven en 10 uur per dag doorwerken om de transitie voor elkaar te krijgen. Toch zal de businesscase kloppend moeten zijn en zullen collega's ook enthousiast gemaakt moeten worden.

In het nieuwe boekje van Urgenda staan verschillende voorbeeld technologieën die interessant kunnen zijn voor onderzoek naar de transitie. Een voorbeeld hiervan is een nieuw procedé voor de papierindustrie die op 25°C kan opereren. Ook zijn er verschillende voorbeelden te vinden binnen het ISPT die werken met voedsel en de papierindustrie. Het gaat dan over warmte pompen, waterstof etc.

Appendix II – Interview Dr. A.C. Kieft

Introduction

Dr. A.C. Kieft is a researcher at the Copernicus Institute of Sustainable Development of Utrecht University. He has published multiple articles on innovation systems in the Netherlands, with a focus on heat pump technologies in the urban and industrial context.

The text below is a summary of the topics discussed during the interview on the 7th of March 2019.

Frameworks discussed

During his research, Dr Kieft has composed a list of barriers and their micro mechanism based on interviews, historical reviews of the industry and the current literature. The context is heat pump technologies, focussing on mechanical compression, thermo-acoustic and chemical heat pumps. For the analysis, the Technological Innovation System (TIS) approach is used. This approach contains seven factors that describe the actions done in a system to increase innovativeness. For each technology, the different markets are analysed. The factors are labelled based on a grounded theory method while collecting the different factors. The barriers are eventually put under the labels of the TIS framework. E.g., resources – types of resources, human resources – budgets, subsidies, etc.

The TIS factors are different from those of the pattern of diffusion framework (Ortt et al., 2013). In the pattern framework, a more descriptive approach is used to determine the status of the diffusion. In contrast, the TIS framework focuses on the actions done in (or functions of) the system to facilitate innovation. This is because describing the different factors does not value them (i.e. indicates if enough is done). It is argued that activities are a good measure of maturity and should thus be the focus of a TIS.

A first step in linking the theories is discussed: Pilots and production systems would result from entrepreneurial activities, complementary products and services are a way to loosen the market. Supplier and organisation are related to knowledge diffusion. Customers are linked to market formation activities. Institutional aspects can be both a part of the innovation system. The highly connected clusters typical for the industry are seen as contextual factors and not necessarily investigated. In the system, there are actors, networks of actors, institutions and artefacts. TIS argues that the barriers in the system are, for example, the legal boundaries, lacking customer demand. The activities and parts of the innovation system are pulled apart. In the pattern framework, this seems to be put on a heap. It is a more linear approach than the TIS, which embraces the linkage between actors and actions. Though the TIS also used to argue for a form of linearization. An example of non-linear innovation is the Offshore wind parks in the Netherlands. These are an example of customer pull projects before the technology is available.

Some barriers discussed

This paragraph gives a list of barriers that were discussed. Though not complete, it gives an overview of some of the pressing barriers in the process industry.

Ownership of companies & suppliers, Influence of multinational ownership and private equity firms: A lot of Dutch production companies are being bought by private equity firms. These typically cut out

the most costly operations (whole divisions or research activities), increasing the financial measures and sell with profit. On the other hand, the multinational conglomerates have deep pockets and are partly state-owned. They are therefore protected from private equity firms.

Historically, Dutch companies were growing because they kept seeking new markets and were front runners due to innovative power and supply chain integration, i.e. the company owned the supply chain. Currently, other countries are catching up on the innovations and can, with the help of governmental aid, create commodities for much less. This led Dutch companies to focus on the more valuable (specialised) niche markets, resulting in a reduction of company size. With respect to energy efficiency, this meant that nobody is able to see the complete picture of energy and material usage. For new integration products, now a wide variety of players is required to agree on the adoption of a specific technology. In the previous setting, the companies could have an internal discussion form on which new integration could be discussed.

Contracts and lock-in: Current contracts on energy supply and material sharing, dependency on production/waste streams of other plants, Interconnection between different organisations (utilities and maintenance is done by third parties)

(Financial) Resources: High investments, long payback time, long-term vs short-term profits (of which energy investment yield long term profits but are usually ignored due to short term profits from other technological investments), investment process (new plants are ideal situations for innovations but when there is time pressure, proven technologies are preferred).

Shareholders and sustainability: Theory states that pension funds would invest in the long term and sustainable initiatives while banks would focus on short term gains. From the cases investigated, another dynamic was found. Private equity firms set up a fund in which the pension funds invest. This money is then used to buy a production company (e.g. Akzo Nobel), split it up, strip it down, and increase the financial criteria. This practice is very destructive for innovation, of which the pension funds eventually gain profit.

Technology characteristics: For each sector, different 'typical' operating environments can be found. Examples of characteristics technologies are evaluated on are process temperature, ease of implementation, up-time, operating flexibility.

Maintenance and utility providers: Predictable maintenance cycles and the role of suppliers.

Strategies discussed

This paragraph displays some strategies that can be used to influence the diffusion of technologies discussed.

Influence of stakeholders: The shareholders are the most powerful people of the company as they control the management targets. If an increased focus on sustainability could influence them, the company would proceed. However, shareholders often use investors acting as are usually 'rational' economic agents. Power of advertisement? An example of this strategy at work is the investors of Unilever that preferred the long term stability and focused on the sustainability of the company over the short term gains that Heinz-Kraft proposed.

Develop and sell: Develop new technologies and be bought by big engineering firms. This would require a focus on modularity and scalability. How would the global context be of influence here?

Lessons from heat pump research

The alternatives for mechanical heat pumps are the chemical- and acoustic heat pumps and some technologies in niches. The different technologies are in different stages of development and have different applications. For example, the acoustic heat pump is never tested in the market. Market creation is what is required for this technology. The compression heat pump, however, is already available in the market. Different strategies for further adoption are required. Research can be done to expand the temperature ranges in which it can operate. These different sub-technologies within heat pump technologies make it tough to research heat pumps as a whole. Working on more technologies [e.g. Carbon Capture and Storage (CCS), electric boilers, geothermic energy production and bio-based feedstock] at the same time would become very complicated. In general, heat pumps are seen as short term gains. However, they do not mitigate all carbon emissions. This means that companies are doubting between investing in emission reduction now or emission omission through complete process changes.

Therefore, it is advised to focus on a specific market (e.g. paper, chemical, petroleum, etc.), specific technology and the barriers of some specific micromechanisms. It is expected to be the only way to create viable strategies. First, differentiating between commodities and speciality chemicals only might not yield comparable results. Therefore a sector can be chosen to investigate because this ensures that the context is somewhat similar. Next, having a broad technological perspective will introduce high complexity through several competing technologies. For example, the technology 'heat pumps' has a wide range of characteristics, competing for various other technologies in different contexts. Finally, the high interaction between barriers makes a one-size-fits-all strategy unviable. Therefore, it is advised to focus on a specific set of barriers and create a strategy for those barriers in their specific context. The pattern of diffusion model can be used to give an overview of the different technologies available to resolve the customer need. An example is the petroleum industry in which process temperatures can reach 700°C or more. Heat pumps are not really applicable here, so only CCS, biomass or electric boilers can be applied.

A characteristic of the heat pump is that it is not very flexible and should work most of the time to reasonably pay itself back. In the commodity sector, there is the opportunity to save a lot of money by becoming energy efficient. However, this requires (early) replacement of machines introduces even more (fixed) costs.

Researching institutes and SMEs selling the heat pump innovations go through great effort to market and sell their technology for various subsidies and pilots. Eventually, their goal is to make money too.

Contracts between energy suppliers and consumers in the industry make heat pump integration limited. That is, if a producing company installs a heat pump, they will create more energy. This, however, cannot easily be sold to others, thus creating a surplus of heat. On the other hand, becoming more energy efficient for the consumer is not incentivised by the fixed amount of energy coming from the supplier. The economic advantage is diminished because of the contractual obligations.

Heat pumps and the pattern of diffusion framework

Applying the pattern of diffusion theory on heat pump technologies yield the following: the acoustic heat pump is in the development phase since it has not been applied in the market. The chemical and mechanical compression heat pumps are in the adoption phase, of which the mechanical compression heat pump is adopted by some first users. However, the potential market is much bigger than currently addressed.

The pattern of diffusion model suggests that the technologies are in direct competition. However, the mechanical heat pump is viable up to 120°C, while thermo-acoustic can go up to 250°C. This means that they do not directly compete. In some contexts, one technology is more viable than the other. Chemical heat pumps are only viable from 100°C and can go up to much higher technologies. Moreover, the heat pump serves different purposes. First, it is technology that can help with incremental energy efficiency innovation. Secondly, it helps with the implementation of electrification. Finally, it is a very suitable technology for heat integration networks.

History of the Dutch industry, the influence of the international context

Research on the Dutch process industry has found that there is a strong influence from the global regime. The companies are part of the TIS, but they operate under the heavy influence of the global regime. Currently, this regime is for western companies to focus on high margin markets. This attracts private equity firms that see the share price decreasing, buy them and increase the financial measure to sell. Firms like Akzo have the opportunity to become more sustainable because of their markets. They have multiple plants in Delftzijl with the opportunity to further integrate. At the same time, these companies have international pressure. This is not something for big companies like Sabic etc. Factories from big owners get investment criteria from the headquarters in which all different projects are evaluated, and the emphasis is given to short term gains. For energy efficiency technologies, the payback time is relatively long, making them less interesting to invest in. The gains are much longer for these energy projects.

Within the industry, incremental innovation was more common in the last 30 years. This is very different from the context of high-tech market. This means that the pattern of diffusion framework needs to be analysed to its based assumptions. In the industry, the technology suppliers cannot develop a device without testing and applying it in the situation of the final customers.

Additionally, there is a big role for the international context and goals in the industry. The international context is part of the global regime literature. There have been different goals and missions in the industry, and this has an effect on the view on heat pumps and their application. The interest in heat pumps is lost because the industry goals have shifted from incremental innovations towards zero-carbon changes.

Further research advices

For further research, the following five topics are suggested.

First, the effect of standardisation of the heat pumps on the Netherlands was suggested. Currently, companies are standardising heat pumps so they can be easily implemented and produced on scale. Heat pumps (and other innovations) are usually produced by smaller technology developers located

in the same region. They specialise in the production of one technology. The users of the technology, in this case the production companies, are not used to contact those firms. It is more common to hire a big engineering firm like Tetrapak, Siemens or GEA when a factory needs to be build. These big engineering firms use standardised modules when creating new technologies, not specifically focussing on new innovations. Usually, once a small innovative firm contacts a client about investing in their technology, a contract with Siemens is already signed [the timing is of essence as innovative companies are usually to late or to early]. By producing a standard heat pump module, these new technologies can be more easily implemented. Additionally, the heat pumps can be sold as part of the system immediately. Some questions arise when applying this strategy. First, is Siemens eager to adopt technologies produced by other firms, decreasing their margin? Why would Siemens not just buy the innovative firm? Given the global competition and focus on specialisation in the Netherlands, it wise to sell standardised technologies? Is this the direction we want in the Netherlands?

Next, it was found that electrification/process changes is not possible due to links between companies in the industry. There are clusters in the world based on the available resources, like salt and natural gas in Groningen. What is the effect of changing the input materials of a factory, and how does it affect the supply chain and contracts currently used in the clusters. To what extend is the efficiency coming from the integration of production companies diminished when changing the process? How do different clusters around the world solve this issue?

Coming from another angle: Why focus on best practices only? It might not be very generalizable and can only be valuable for the companies that were involved in the project. It is more interesting to see where it went wrong. What project failed. When asking people what the barriers are, they give information on the mechanisms that stopped the technology from diffusing. Facilitating factors were barely found since Alco has been looking for barriers. Some facilitating factors are the contextual factors. As discussed before, globalization has increased the competition for Dutch companies. On the other hand, it has given Dutch companies to grow immensely in the past decades. Another driving factor is the focus on core processes. The companies that provide the utilities and maintenance companies could have an overarching role, since they visit a wide variety of plants.

Drafting strategies based on the found barriers and micro mechanisms is an interesting topic too. So far, this is not properly supported by the TIS framework. Of course some advises are given based on the results of the TIS, but their effectiveness has never been studied. What could you use to select a specific strategy? Based on the literature on system thinking, which states a ranking from different intervention. The paper published by Dhr. Kieft, (A. Kieft et al., 2018), is another way of looking at typical strategies and when they should be applied based on the given criteria. E.g.: Changing the mind of people is much harder than giving a subsidy to convince someone to take action. However, the effects of the first one is more profound and presumably much bigger. Drafting strategies is going to be very complicated because of the complexity of the industry.

In this respect, the top niche strategy has not worked well for heat pumps. This is because both demonstration and subsidised niche strategies were not in order. For heat pumps, the redesign strategy is that of producing modular heat pumps. The heat pumps are given less 'tough' characteristics and have the opportunity to be sold against a lower price to more customers through standardisation. Most of the strategies given in the pattern literature are already applied but do not seem to be a guarantee for the technology to succeed. Why do the strategies not work for heat pumps? The heat pump does not diffuse in potential markets, subsidies are not used because, presumably, the actors are unable to find each other.

Appendix III- Interview Peter de Jong

Introduction

Peter de Jong is a professor of dairy process technology at the VHL university of applied sciences. Additionally, he is a principle researcher at NIZO research. He is a well cited researcher and has many years of experience in R&D management.

Barriers of adoption

Factors that hamper innovation adoption are: high investment, Proof of technology (including the eventual product quality, satisfying conservative customers, risk of failure and maintenance), business control (example is the construction in which a foreign (American) company owns the factory in the Netherlands. Therefore, the factory is benchmarked against other factories of the same company. This yields three interesting dynamics. First, to implement an improvement, the companies have additional tasks to do on top of their already pressing list posed on them from the headquarters. Second, There is a risk they prefer not to take because they are doing what is expected at the moment. Last, they have told the owners that they perform the best they can and then, out of nowhere, there is a 5% efficiency increase. This might create suspicion at the headquarters. It was noted that this was not the default response but a commonly seen one.)

It is observed that automation and instrumentation providers do innovation, incremental as it is. They then force the companies to adopt this new innovation because they stop supporting the old systems. On the other hand, suppliers of machinery are not incentivised to innovate much. There is little margin on the construction of plants and it is much more profitable to exploit the currently available technologies. An example of this behaviour was participation of Tetrapack in a project concerning heat exchanger cleaning with ultrasonic sound. The expected downtime reduction for cleaning was substantial, thus threatening the redundancy system sales of Tetrapack. This let them to leave the research. It was noticed that most innovation occurs within SMEs. However, because they cannot pay fines coming from potential damages, it is risky for big production companies to invest in those innovations.

Facilitating factors

Governmental support is found to be a facilitating factor. However, it should be consistent for long term projects. A growing market could lead to the need for additional capacity. This is usually paired with innovation adoption, as long as there is enough time to design innovations into the factory and the previously mentioned barriers are overcome.

Opportunities for improvement are the application of big data in factories. Plants usually collect and store all process data for a long period, giving data analytics the opportunity to further optimise the factories.

Appendix IV – Iterations on framework 1.0

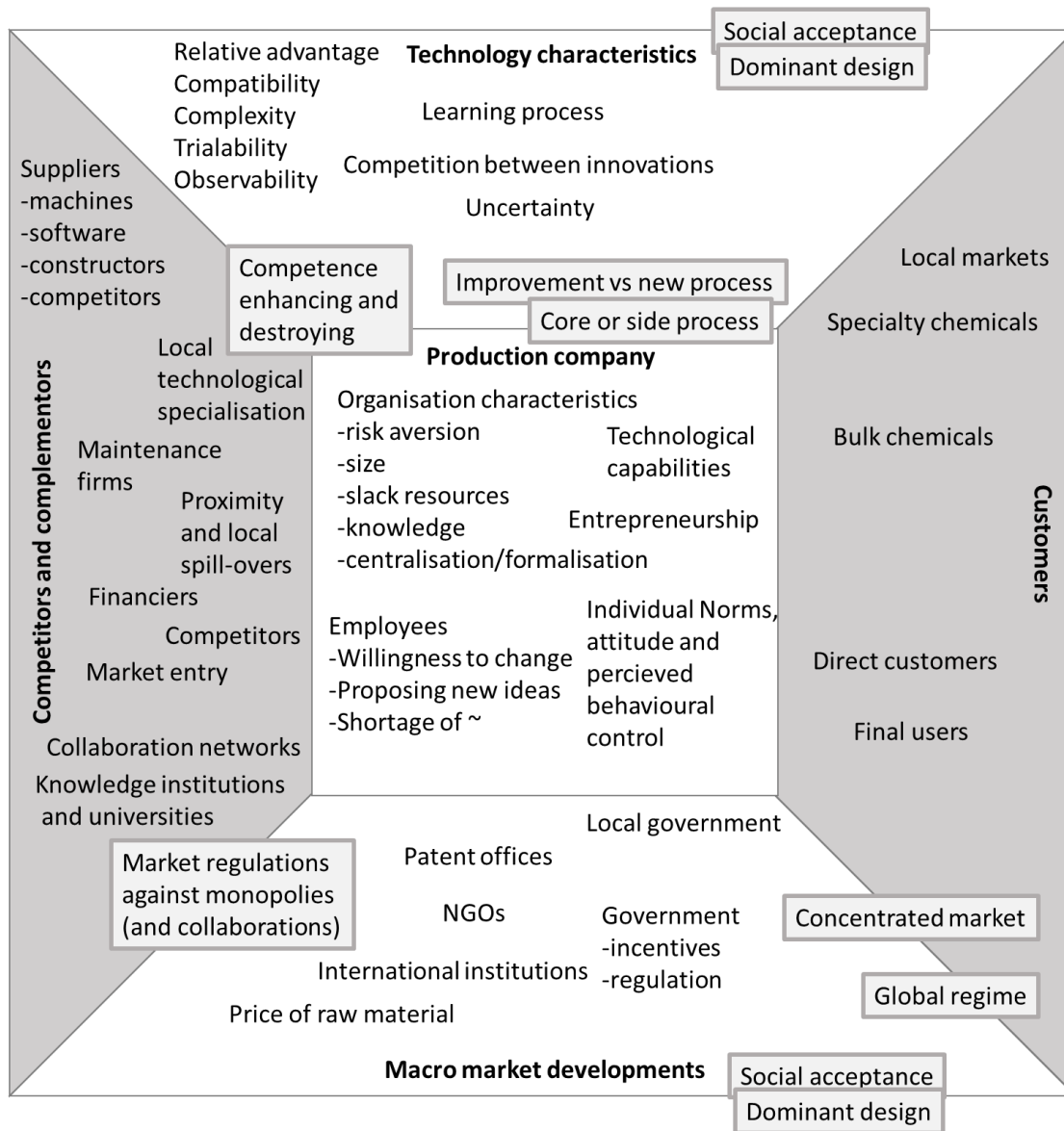


Figure 39 Overview of all factors found in the chemical industry literature - (Ashford, 2005; Dieperink et al., 2004; Fu et al., 2018; Jacobsson & Lauber, 2006; Ren, 2009; Schoenberger, 2009; Trianni et al., 2016; Triguero et al., 2013, 2015; Wesseling et al., 2017)

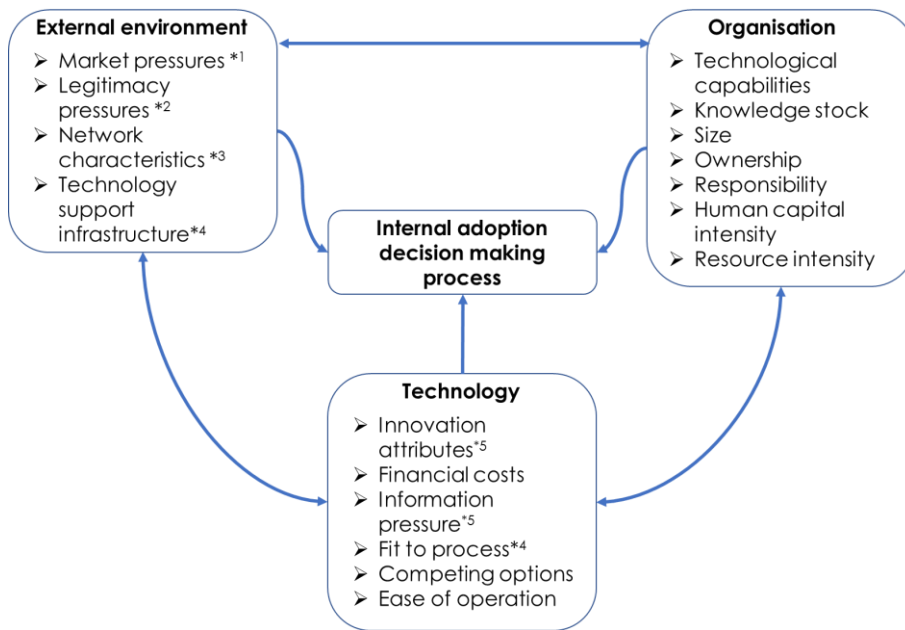


Figure 40 First version of the framework, based on TOE model proposed by Tornatzky et al. and the factors identified by Fu et al. - (Fu et al., 2018; Tornatzky et al., 1990)

First version of the framework, based on TOE model and the factors found by Fu et al (2018).

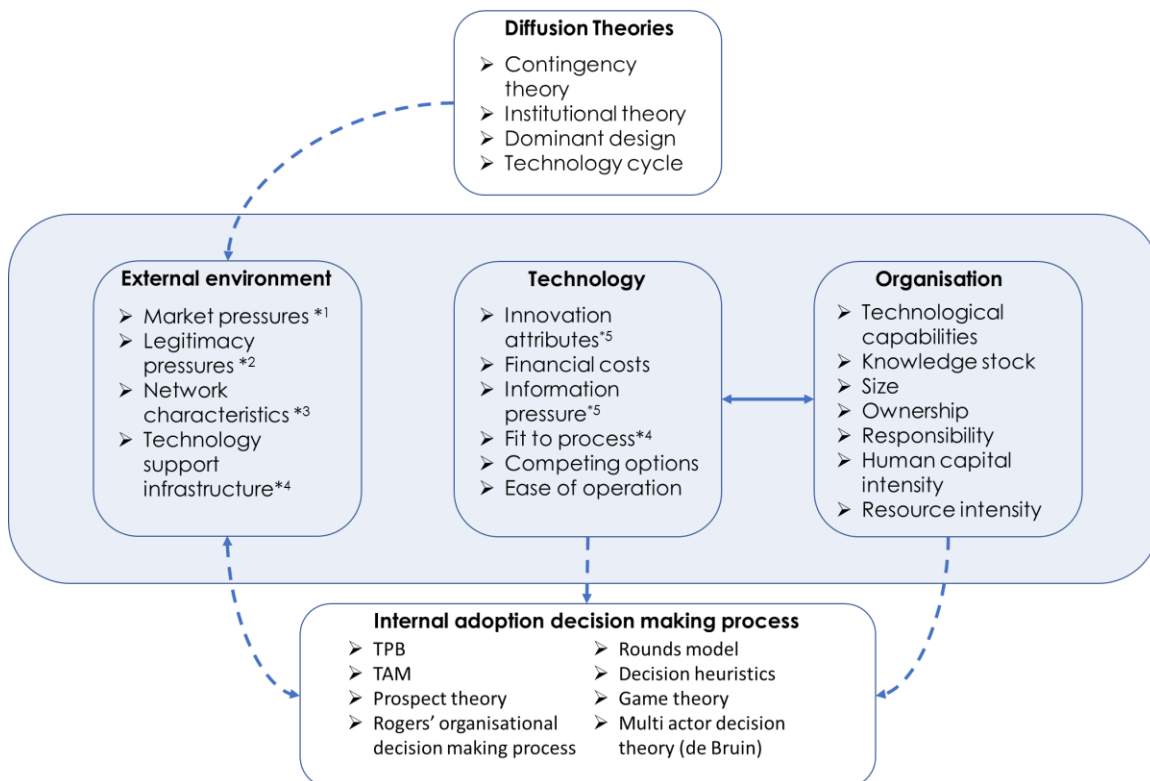


Figure 41 Second version of the framework, based on the differentiation between types of theories as proposed by (Arifin & Frmanzah, 2015). Now including the position of this research.

Now including the position of this research. Diffusion theories measure at a higher level, while internal decisions are below the focus of this research.

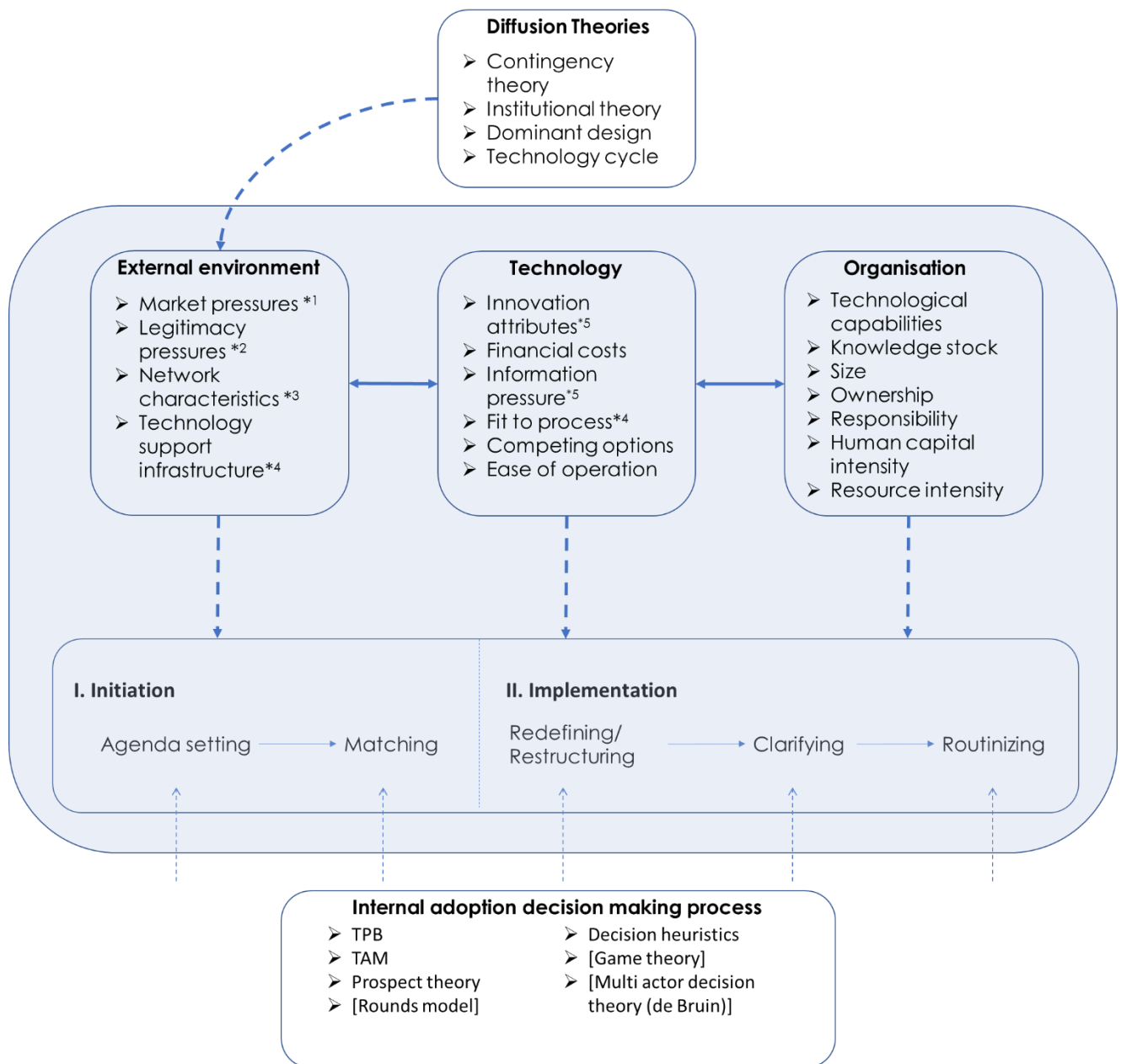


Figure 42 The third version of this framework takes out the organisational decision-making process as this might influence the adoption process - (Frambach & Schillewaert, 2002)

Delft University of Technology ETHICS REVIEW CHECKLIST FOR HUMAN RESEARCH

(Version 01.02.2019)

This checklist should be completed for every research study that involves human participants and should be submitted before potential participants are approached to take part in your research study.

In this checklist we will ask for additional information if need be. Please attach this as an Annex to the application.

Please upload the documents (go to [this page](#) for instructions).

Thank you and please check our [website](#) for guidelines, forms, best practices, meeting dates of the HREC, etc.

I. Basic Data

Project title:	Sustainable process technology adoption in the Dutch chemical industry
Name(s) of researcher(s):	Otto Tobé
Research period (planning)	February 2019 – October 2019
E-mail contact person	o.v.tobe@student.tudelft.nl
Faculty/Dept.	TPM
Position researcher(s):¹	Student
Name of supervisor (if applicable):	J.R. Ortt
Role of supervisor (if applicable):	Ass. Professor

¹ For example: student, PhD, post-doc

II. A) Summary Research

(Please very briefly (100-200 words) summarise your research, stating the question for the research, who will participate, the number of participants to be tested and the methods/devices to be used. Please avoid jargon and abbreviations).

The research concerns the adoption process of sustainable (process) technologies in the chemical industry. The research focusses on the Dutch chemical industry. Participants include R&D managers and CTOs of the Dutch chemical industry.

B) Risk assessment

Please indicate if you expect any potential risks for the participants as a result of your research and, if so, how you will try to minimize these.

Please take into consideration any personal data you may gather and privacy issues.

Risk might include the participant to share company secrets. To prevent such thing from happening, the transcripts will be send to the participants to check before adding them to the report. Furthermore, all data is stored on a secured thumb drive.

III. Checklist

Question	Yes	No
1. Does the study involve participants who are particularly vulnerable or unable to give informed consent? (e.g., children, people with learning difficulties, patients, people receiving counselling, people living in care or nursing homes, people recruited through self-help groups).		X
2. Are the participants, outside the context of the research, in a dependent or subordinate position to the investigator (such as own children or own students)? ²		X
3. Will it be necessary for participants to take part in the study without their knowledge and consent at the time? (e.g., covert observation of people in non-public places).		X
4. Will the study involve actively deceiving the participants? (For example, will participants be deliberately falsely informed, will information be withheld from them or will they be misled in such a way that they are likely to object or show unease when debriefed about the study).		X
5. Personal data <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Will the study involve discussion or collection of confidential (sensitive) personal data? (e.g., BSN number, location, sexual activity, drug use, mental health)? <p>If 'yes': Did the data steward approve your data management plan? Please upload proof.</p>		X
6. Will drugs, placebos, or other substances (e.g., drinks, foods, food or drink constituents, dietary supplements) be administered to the study participants?		X
7. Will blood or tissue samples be obtained from participants?		X
8. Is pain or more than mild discomfort likely to result from the study?		x

² **Important note concerning questions 1 and 2.** Some intended studies involve research subjects who are particularly vulnerable or unable to give informed consent. Research involving participants who are in a dependent or unequal relationship with the researcher or research supervisor (e.g., the researcher's or research supervisor's students or staff) may also be regarded as a vulnerable group. If your study involves such participants, it is essential that you safeguard against possible adverse consequences of this situation (e.g., allowing a student's failure to complete their participation to your satisfaction to affect your evaluation of their coursework). This can be achieved by ensuring that participants remain anonymous to the individuals concerned (e.g., you do not seek names of students taking part in your study). If such safeguards are in place, or the research does not involve other potentially vulnerable groups or individuals unable to give informed consent, it is appropriate to check the NO box for questions 1 and 2. Please describe corresponding safeguards in the summary field.

Question	Yes	No
9. Does the study risk causing psychological stress or anxiety or other harm or negative consequences beyond that normally encountered by the participants in their life outside research?		X
10. Will financial inducement (other than reasonable expenses and compensation for time) be offered to participants?		X

Important:

if you answered 'yes' to any of the questions mentioned above, please submit a full application to HREC (see: website for forms or examples).

11. Will the experiment collect and store videos, pictures, or other identifiable data of human subjects? ³	x	
<p><u>If 'yes'</u>, please fill in Annex 1 and make you sure you follow all requirements of the applicable data protection legislation. In addition, please provide proof by sending us a copy of the informed consent form.</p>		
12. Will the experiment involve the use of devices that are not 'CE' certified?		x
<p><i>Only, if 'yes': continue with the following questions:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Was the device built in-house? ➤ Was it inspected by a safety expert at TU Delft? (Please provide device report, see: HREC website) ➤ If it was not built in house and not CE-certified, was it inspected by some other, qualified authority in safety and approved? (Please provide records of the inspection). 		
13. Has or will this research be submitted to a research ethics committee other than this one? (if so, please provide details and a copy of the approval or submission).		x

IV. Enclosures (tick if applicable)

- Full proposal (if 'yes' to any of the questions 1 until 10)
- Informed consent form (if 'yes' to question 11)
- Device report (if 'yes' to question 12)
- Approval other HREC-committee (if 'yes' to question 13)

³ Note: you have to ensure that collected data is safeguarded physically and will not be accessible to anyone outside the study. Furthermore, the data has to be de-identified if possible and has to be destroyed after a scientifically appropriate period of time. Also ask explicitly for consent if anonymised data will be published as open data.

- Any other information which might be relevant for decision making by HREC
- Data management plan approved by a data steward (if yes to question 5B)

V. **Signature(s)**

Signature(s) of researcher(s)

Date:

Signature (or upload Electronic Consent) research supervisor (if applicable)

Date:

Appendix 1: Privacy and data protection

Please fill this in if you have answered 'yes' to question 11 in the checklist

- a. Will the participants have access to their own data? If no, please explain.
Yes, if requested by them the data can be accessed through the researcher.

- b. Will covert methods be used? (*e.g. participants are filmed without them knowing*)
No, the participants will be asked to sign an informed consent form and will be told prior to the start of the recording.

- c. Will any human tissue and/or biological samples be collected? (*e.g. urine*)
No.

Appendix VI - Interview invitation

Dear (...),

Recent developments in political and public awareness of climate change have posed the chemical industry with large challenges. Have you ever wondered how our industry can cope with this dynamic natural- and regulative environment?

During my time at the ISPT, I noticed that a lot of great technologies are developed. However, these new technologies hardly make it into our factories. How is it possible that so much potential is left unused? I became intrigued by this question and decided to pursue a master in Management of Technology.

My name is Otto Tobé and I am a graduate student at TU Delft. For my thesis, I hope to find an answer to my question. Specifically, I am interested in the evaluation of sustainable technologies by the leading firms in the Dutch chemical industry. To do so, I request your help.

Would it be possible for us to converse about your experiences in the adoption process within (...)? The interview will take about two hours and can be held at any convenient location.

Thank you very much for the consideration. Please do not hesitate to contact me if there are any questions.

With kind regards,

Otto Tobé

o.v.tobe@student.tudelft.nl

06 18 565 701

<http://www.linkedin.com/in/ottotobe>



Institute for
Sustainable
Process Technology



Beste (...),

Het recente klimaat akkoord en publieke aandacht voor het klimaat heeft verstrekkende gevolgen voor onze industrie. Heeft u zich ooit afgevraagd hoe de industrie om kan gaan met de telkens veranderende wetgeving?

Gedurende mijn tijd bij het ISPT is mij opgevallen dat een hoop technologieën worden ontwikkeld. Echter zijn deze technologieën maar weinig terug te vinden in de fabrieken van Nederland. Hoe kan het zijn dat dit enorme potentiaal niet benut wordt?

De TU Delft en het ISPT slaan de handen ineen om de evaluatie van duurzame proces technologieën onder de loep te leggen. Om dit te doen, heb ik uw hulp nodig.

Bent u in de gelegenheid om met mij in overleg te gaan over uw ervaringen bij de aanschaf van duurzame proces technologieën binnen (...)? Het interview duurt ongeveer twee uur en kan op een locatie naar keuze gehouden worden.

Hartelijk dank voor de overweging. Als er nog vragen of opmerkingen zijn hoor ik het graag.

Met vriendelijke groet,

Otto Tobé

o.v.tobe@student.tudelft.nl

06 18 565 701

<http://www.linkedin.com/in/ottotobe>



Appendix VII – Information letter and consent form

Dear participant,

Thank you for your cooperation with this research project. The purpose of the research is to gain insight into the adoption process of sustainable process technologies. By doing so, companies can better control the adoption process and dedicate to more realistic technological strategies.

Participants of the research gain access to the results of the study. The conclusions and recommendations that follow from the study will be based on the generalisations and examples given by the participants. As the examples are used, the participant can be sure to find organisation specific strategies and lessons from other organisations which complement the current operations.

Because of the explorative nature of the research, the data provided by the participant will not be anonymised. On the accompanying consent form, the participant can indicate to what extend in text citations are allowed. Furthermore, the information shared during the recorded sections of the interview will be transcribed and uploaded to the TU Delft Thesis repository. Here the thesis and transcripts are openly accessible.

For the interview the participant is asked to consent to an audio recording. These recordings, together with all other data gathered, will be stored on an encrypted flash drive which is held by the researcher. After the study is completed, the audio recordings will be deleted.

The participation to this research is completely voluntary. The participant is allowed to retract from the study during all times, without having to specify a reason to do so. Please note that once the consent form is signed, the transcripts and research results will be publicly available. Kindly sign the accompanying consent form to confirm the above information is well understood.

If there are any questions, please contact:

Otto Tobé

o.v.tobe@student.tudelft.nl

+316 18 565 701

Consent Form

Please tick the appropriate boxes

Yes No

Taking part in the study

I have read and understood the study information dated [DD/MM/YYYY], or it has been read to me. I have been able to ask questions about the study and my questions have been answered to my satisfaction.

I consent voluntarily to be a participant in this study and understand that I can refuse to answer questions and I can withdraw from the study at any time, without having to give a reason.

I understand that taking part in the study involves an audio recording of the interview. This text might be transcribed to text and published at the TU Delft repository. After the research is concluded, I understand that the audio recordings will be deleted but the transcripts will exist on the TU Delft repository.

Use of the information in the study

I understand that information I provide will be used for the MSc thesis of the researcher, including a report and defence hearing.

I understand that personal information collected about me that can identify me, such as my name or professional career, will not be shared beyond the study team.

Signatures

_____	_____	_____
Name of participant [printed]	Signature	Date

I have accurately read out the information sheet to the potential participant and, to the best of my ability, ensured that the participant understands to what they are freely consenting.

_____	_____	_____
Otto Tobé	Signature	Date

Study contact details for further information:
 Otto Tobé
otto.tobe@hotmail.com
 +316 18 565 701

Appendix VIII – Interview preparations

Jl;dfjl;a

Text made previous

Appendix IX - Interview questions, 2nd round

The interview consists of five phases, introduction, internal or company criteria identification, external or environmental factor interaction, adoption process actors and debriefing. Please see **Error! Reference source not found.** below. During the introduction the research is introduced to the participant. The second phase focusses on identifying and ranking the different adoption decision criteria. Next, the interactions between the criteria are derived in phase three. The fourth phase aims to validate the actor frameworks identified in chapter 1. Finally, the researcher debriefs the participant, answers any remaining questions. An overview of the interview is given in Figure 43 below.

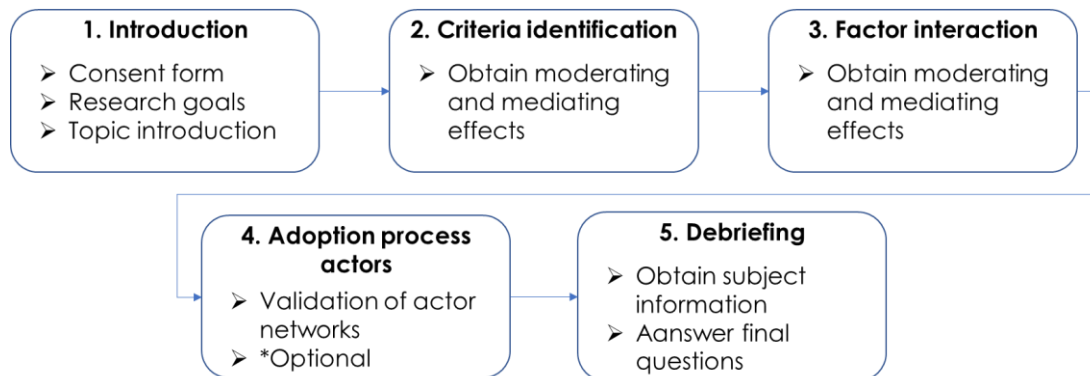


Figure 43 Overview of the interview steps

Introduction

Before the interview starts, it is requested to record the interview. The recordings are used to make sure that the interview data is correct. Furthermore, it is used to precisely quote the participant later on. All information that will be used for the research is written down and send to the participant for permission to be used.

Next, the aim of the research is explained. The aim of the interview is to derive the decision criteria used by the experts while adopting a technology. Throughout the adoption process, decisions have to be made. These adoption decisions are made based on a set of technological, organisational and environmental criteria (Tornatzky, 1990). It is hypothesised that the environmental criteria play a different role in the decision process than the organisational and technological criteria. This is because the environment cannot easily be changed. To emphasis this property, the environmental criteria will be referred to as environmental factors.

At the start of the interview, the interviewer needs to understand what the interviewee uses to define adoption, sustainable process technologies and how the decision making process was experienced.

1. What would you define as a sustainable process technology?

This question is asked to ensure equal use of the ambiguous term 'sustainable'. The answer is supplemented with the other characteristics of sustainable process technologies, namely: a technology which is added to the process or which replaces a part of the process such that emission

or energy consumption is reduced. Alternatively, the technology could allow for other raw materials to be used.

Next, the interviewer has to understand the decision processes. Knowing how the adoption decisions are made can inform why certain criteria are made. Furthermore, it allows the criteria to be linked to the steps in the decision process.

First, it is important that the method of decision making is clarified. According to literature the adoption process is identified to contain two phases, the initiation and implementation phase (Rogers, 2003). Next to the two phases, this figure also displays the sequential actions relevant to the phases. The problems are identified during agenda setting action. The technologies are selected based on their ability to solve these problems. Figure 44 below is shown as a visualisation of the organisational adoption process.



Figure 44 Theoretical organisational adoption process - Adopted from Rogers (2003)

2. According to theory, the adoption process consists of five steps. These steps are agenda setting, matching, restructuring of the technology, clarifying and routinisation. Would you say this abstraction fits adoption processes as you have experienced them?

This concludes the introduction of the research. The next questions are about the decision criteria's.

Criteria identification

During the adoption process a lot of small evaluations have to be made. These evaluations typically revolve around a specific characteristic or criteria. For this research we seek for somewhat generalised selection criteria to be used during the research. An example of this would be 'financial costs' which constitutes of ROI, initial investment and payback time. When making a decision to adopt a sustainable process technology, a lot of evaluation of criteria takes place. I am interested in the criteria that you use during the adoption process.

3. What decision criteria do you use to evaluate whether a technology is suitable for your company?

In case the interviewee has a hard time describing the decision criteria, they are asked to give examples of projects in which SPTs were adopted. This question is asked later, since focussing on particular examples might reduce the generalisability of the answers.

4. Can you give an example when these criteria were of importance?
5. Some criteria can be more important during the adoption than others. Could you rank the criteria from most to least important for overall adoption?

The criteria are expected to have different importance in different cases. i.e. the criteria are case dependent. However, this action forces the reconsideration of all factors mentioned.

The factors found in literature consists of these criteria. ***gets stack of cards***

6. How do you think that the criteria you just mentioned are related to the ones on the cards?
7. What do you think of the factors that are added on by the literature?

Environmental factors

Now the interview will focus on effect of the environmental influences. Environmental influences are the criteria that are dependent on the state of the environment. That is, only if a certain environmental influencer is present, the adoption can proceed. (if necessary: An example of an environmental influence is the law surrounding a technology.)

8. What environmental influences do you feel are important when adopting a sustainable process technology?
9. During the adoption of which technology did you notice these influences were of importance?

The literature found these environmental factors. ***gets stack of cards***

10. How do you think that the factors you just mentioned are related to the ones on the cards?
11. What do you think of the factors that are added on by the literature?

Actors of importance during adoption, optional

Throughout the literature it is mentioned that the actors of the innovation system play an important role. Successful adoption is a function of gathering the correct actors. The

12. What organisations or individuals did you experience to be of importance during the adoption of the process technologies mentioned?

Debriefing

After the above questions are answered, the final stage of the interview can begin. The participant is told that the data collected will be written down and shared with them for approval. Next, the theories used for this research are elaborated upon and the initial findings are shared. Furthermore, any final questions are answered and the participant is asked to evaluate the interview. Finally, the participant is thanked for their time and the interview is finished.

Financial costs	Financial considerations such as ROI, initial investment size and payback time.	
Information pressure	The availability of information, or knowledge, typically influences decisions. Limited influence of competitor and customer behaviour is found on SPT adoption. The most effect comes from the operational uncertainty of new technologies (Weng & Lin, 2011). Furthermore, firms that ignore the environmental problem, do not seek technologies that prevent further damage. Thus, awareness is an important factor.	
Fitness process/compatibility	to A relative scale that indicates the fit between the new technology and the installed process.	
<i>Competing options</i>	Next to the fit to certain criteria, decisions can be made based on the selection of alternatives.	
<i>Ease of operation</i>	High tech equipment can seem too complicated to operate. This might be particularly important in less developed nations (links to knowledge stock).	
Organisational criteria:		
Technological capabilities	Overall knowledge of the firm. A compound construct of research output, internal experience and innovation capabilities (such as NPD).	
Knowledge stock	The level of experience a firm has with adopting sustainable process technologies. More	

	experience means a higher adoption rate. This effect might be mediated by the adherence to pollution regulation.	
Size	Amount of employees, revenue or production capacity.	
Ownership	Multinational, state owned or family business. Foreign ownership stimulates adoption of SPTs. However, power generation is a much neglected pollutant. State owned businesses have easy access to capital which positively influences adoption.	
Responsibility	The culture (higher management support) within the company to strive for sustainable solutions. Not very thoroughly studied. It was found that corporate social responsibility program was a bad predictor of SPT adoption.	
Human capital intensity	Defined as the level of education or investment per capita, human capital intensity is positively correlated with adoption, except in the pulp industry.	
Resource intensity	<p>The costs of resources or the amount of resources used does not necessarily relates to investment in SPTs. This positive correlation does appear in the energy sector.</p> <p>An interesting observation is that fossil fuel based companies invest in the European Trading System, while bio based companies invest in energy efficiency.</p>	

	bodies, investors and advisors (Ren, 2009). Market competition (aka price competition) was only found important in the electromechanical market.	
Customer demand	The (increased) demand for products pushing the adoption of new, improved and more sustainable processes.	
Resource price	The price of the resource might incentivise a switch to a more sustainable resource, as it has become relatively cheaper.	
Coercive pressure	<p>The focal firm behaves a certain way because institutions or other organisations on which they depend forces them. In contrast, mimetic and normative pressure have not proven to be very effective.</p> <p>Coercive regulation from governments was found effective for adoption. Furthermore, voluntary standards support incremental innovations.</p>	
Cooperation	Most organisations operate in networks. Whether for research, sales or supply, networks are an important part of an organisations performance. In the context of adoption, there is a positive correlation between business group membership and recycle- energy efficiency technologies. A diverse network positively influences adoption. Vertical integration with neutral-, partly- and	

	predominantly environmentally concerned actors is most effective (Wu, 2013).	
<i>Technological infrastructure support</i>	The availability of maintenance parts and personnel. If a technology is young, the continuity of the machine might not be proven and spare parts might run out before the expected life cycle is researched. (links to information pressure.)	

Appendix X – Interview Company I

Overview of the interview

Adoption has its challenges. Some are obvious, like the initial investment. However, there is a mindset problem. Usually, the developed technologies are technically successful but the adoption is lagging and costs most of the time.

From a theoretical perspective, much research is focussed fast moving consumer goods. But this is not relevant for process innovations. An example of such research comes from the Delft school of innovation (with book).

The interviewee has a Msc in biotechnology but found and found additional challenge in the development of companies.

Next the interviewee discussed the innovation process within Company I and how he, during a financial struggle in 2004, started a spin-off called Company Ia. It was built with 20-25 people as a separate organisation with its own culture, knowledge building, rules and dynamics. The interviewee classifies the company as an incubator.

When creating Company Ia, the interviewee faced cultural, financial and knowledge related challenges. Company I does not have a culture that embraces change, instead it focusses on exploration. This was different from the dynamic and knowledge-based culture embraced by Company Ia. The financial story is twofold. First, Company Ia was financially linked to Company I. This ensured control from Company I on Company Ia, which was seen as a unnatural push for the growth of the company. This production push made that the start-up was rushed (i.e. building more factories). Second, the spin-off quickly attracted funding from venture capitalists. The funding was to be provided under the condition that the three champions would actually get shares in the company. Company I was afraid to lose the spin-off through this set up and thus decided to integrate Company Ia once it was successful. After placing Company I personnel in Company Ia, the culture of Company Ia was changed and the original innovation team left. company now exploits the technology, but has little idea how new innovations can be made.

Company I's knowledge retention was not very good. They strongly depend on a network of experts whom feel they already know everything there is to know about their topic. Therefore, when new knowledge is introduced, it is not always accepted. Furthermore, this means that knowledge was not managed properly, as competences would not be identified and trained. Knowledge management is a large challenge for the bio-based industry. This is particularly true for companies from the chemical industry whom aim to go bio based.

As CTO, the interviewee focussed on conscious knowledge management (patents, literature reviews, capabilities of the employees, etc.) and defining the problems. The lack of problem definition is the biggest problem in many organisations.

Problem identification and decision making is done based on TRIZ. After the problem is identified solution scenarios are built. From these the most valuable solutions are identified. Furthermore, the Dunning-Kruger effect is also at play at management layers. This psychological phenomenon predicts that unqualified people are unaware of their disability. Therefore, they claim to be knowledgeable.

For the interviewee, the process of adoption started with the sustainability targets (including their financial gains) and link this to the local supply chain and the process that obtains these targets. Next, he explored the possible product characteristics. By applying mild processing, value is maintained.

When scouting for new technologies, the interviewee focussed on technologies that were easily scaled up to larger production capacities. Furthermore, the challenge during the crisis was to find technologies that were discarded by other sectors or were not invented yet.

As Company I serves the food market, more and more suppliers ask for a CO₂ or water food print of the product and track and trace. This is a trend which can be observed throughout the food industry.

Internal decision Criteria of the company

Criteria	Description	Example	Importance
Technological criteria			
Product properties	<p>The part that is responsible for the value creation.</p> <p>Other materials cost money. The turn over should be increased.</p>	<p>New technologies are used for new products. Product managers and marketeers force a standstill of developments in older products.</p> <p>Within Company I it was noticed that, when a new technology was plugged, the overall efficiency could be lowered as recycling loops were lost.</p>	
Financial	The cost aspect of innovations	<p>Technologies that save water never rely caught on since water was a cheap resource.</p> <p>To meet the short-term targets, sales people prefer short term gains over long term investments. Furthermore, there is a strong sense of first mover disadvantage. The first movers have to develop technologies while they cannot easily profit from their gains as competitors are quick to copy.</p>	
Sustainability	How sustainable is the new innovation?	The sustainability targets are set such that they actually make a difference. It takes several years for a technology to be implemented. During these years, the technology should not lose its relevance. Furthermore, an annual efficiency gain of 1% per year can be obtained through six	

		<p>sigma processing. These benchmarks made the interviewee to set reduction targets of 50% or more on energy, water and capital.</p> <p>The ISPT network is a way to knowledge on sustainable technologies as Company Ia was unable to invest in all technologies. This results in opportunistic collaborations.</p>	
Safety	<p>Safety of the products and processes. Product safety is enforced by the government. Other institutions are concerned with process control / safety.</p>	<p>Process intensification is seen as a technological development which could increase safety. When smaller reactors are operating, processes can be controlled more easily and the use of hazardous materials can be brought to a minimum.</p> <p>Furthermore, there is a trend towards the tracking of product ingredients in the food sector. This can improve the product safety, as producers are required to monitor the whole supply chain.</p>	
Organisational criteria			
<p>Absorptive capabilities/ Technological capabilities</p> <p>Knowledge stock</p>	<p>Development and retainment of knowledge.</p> <p>Keeping the competition at bay through intellectual property protection or economies of scale.</p> <p>Additionally, the knowledge can be retained through proper hiring and educational practices.</p>	<p>New products and technologies require a change to the company's knowledge stock and competences. For company I it was hard to innovate as they lacked the ability to absorb new knowledge. In order to produce a new product, a separate company was needed.</p> <p>This company was Company Ia. The culture within Company Ia was such that knowledge from other companies and universities was attracted. An important feature which Company I did not necessarily had.</p>	

		<p>When traditionally chemical companies invest in biobased research, it seems that higher management fails to manage knowledge properly. This means people are not competent or knowledgeable enough of the particularities of a bio-based product.</p> <p>Sustainable innovation means that it should not easily be copied. This could be achieved by two strategies, through intellectual property or economies of scale. IP is a great tool to use, as long as it is done properly and continuously.</p> <p>The latter serves as a deterrent for competitors as larger investments are hard to recuperate with the first mover/ existing monopoly in place. The downside of this strategy is the ability for small (specialised) competitors to steal the high value applications.</p> <p>Furthermore, if the market turns out to be larger or more profitable than initially expected, competitors are able to seize the opportunity and reduce the barrier provided by economies of scale.</p>	
Culture	Mindset van de mensen die om je heen zitten . eager mensen die binnen afzienbare tijd (5-10 jaar) moeten weer doorgaan.	Als je wilt innoveren moet je mensen buit hun comfort zone nodig. Belbin types kunnen hiervoor gebruikt worden. Bedrijven met super experts denken alles te weten maar staan mentaal niet open voor dingen die anders denken. Hier kan triz	
Partnerships or networks	Buiten je eigen groep treden. Weet wat je goed weet en wat je niet weet moet je samenwerking zoeken.	Companies whom are seeking to invest in a biobased process gather knowledge through collaborations and partnerships with the ISPT.	

		Een spinout heeft minder te maken met de rest van een organisatie. Het ISPT is een goed voorbeeld van een platform. Oplossingen zijn triviaal als je het probleem weet. Het sparren zorgt er voor dat je dingen kan inschatten. Mensen vertrouwen je.	
Ownership	<p>There is a difference between 'organic' growing companies (such as Company I) and the acquisition-based companies (i.e., DSM, Unilever).</p> <p>Corporations that think on the long term. Omdat het bedrijf aan de zoon of dochter overgedragen kon worden.</p>	<p>Unilever was gecascadeerd, over veel schijven. Focus op regionaal die kort en midden langetermijn deden. Kennis netwerk is de bron van lange termijn onderzoek. One of the reasons this happened is because of the OMO power failure in the 1990s because of marketing failures [not a technology].</p> <p>Company I is 3^e graads innovatie. Er zijn verschillende portefeuilles de portfolio werd puur gedreven door producten die bepaalde waarden hebben.</p>	
Licenties van de site			
(Product) champion	<p>An individual that pushes the innovation through the organisation, such that it is widely accepted.</p> <p>Championing can also protect an idea to be lost in politics.</p>	<p>Within Company I, during a crisis in 2004, MG selected a team whom started assessing different technologies to make more money. The team was important for the champion to succeed. Every suitable technology selected championed to ensure it was actually implemented.</p> <p>OMO power. Because of a lack of a champion, the alignment between marketing and technology was wrong. This meant that the product was used wrongly by the consumers.</p>	
Crisis, never spoil a good crisis.	Chinees saying emphasising the power of 'percieved need'	During a lurking bankruptcy in 2004, the interviewee was able to transform the company. He was tasked to find new sources of	

		income. The interviewee found a solution by gathering technologies and start-ups with proper market analysis. Once potential clients were identified the new company (Company Ia) was funded by venture capitalists. This proved to be a challenge since this type of funding was not in line with the business model proposed by Company I	
Competability, past het in het DNA van het bedrijf	Als je naar een heel nieuwe product gaat past het niet in het bedrijf.	Het verschil tussen zetmeel en eiwit is hetzelfde. Proces technisch is het prima competitibel. Maar de kennis is niet aanwezig, of verdwijnt.	
Ease of operation	Technologisch is control heel belangrijk.	PH meter die niet gecalibreerd wordt omdat dit niet nodig is in het zetmeel proces. Echter is dit wel nodig voor de eiwitten en deze verandering moet duidelijk zijn.	
Intergration of the technology. Fear for continuity en belangen.	Plant wide modeling in scenario's is een technisch probleem. Een van de weinige manieren om management te overtuigen.	Supply chain en process modification. Seisoens gebonden productie en	
Globalisation	Competition from other countries, including the ones that are heavily subsidised.	Zetmeel is een commodity product en de interne concurrentie wordt te groot als voor het eiwit bedrijf. Verder wordt er vanuit Europa een gratis fabriek gegeven aan een Deens bedrijf die, na de verplichte tentoonstelling, alle websites offline heeft gehaald en nu een oneerlijke concurrentie positie heeft. Ook Duitsland, Frankrijk en Italië hebben van dit fenomeen kunnen profiteren.	
Knowledge stock	Innovatie doen zit niet in het DNA van AVEBE. AVEBE heeft geen tot weinig ervaring met het integreren van nieuwe processen of technologieën.	Verder gaat er knowlegde stock verloren over eiwit productie. Het nieuwe proces dat onder een zusterbedrijf is opgebouwd is na 7 jaar weer terug genomen door het moeder bedrijf. Tijdens deze overname is er nieuw personeel	

	<p>De kennis zit verstopt in 'experts', maar deze experts ontwikkelen zich minimaal omdat ze denken alles al te weten.</p> <p>De organisatie is te veel gericht op korte termijn doelen omdat ze gestuurd worden door de winst gedreven marketing medewerkers. Deze medewerkers zijn bezig hun huidige sales hoog te houden.</p> <p>The lacking knowhow on what is important when adopting new technologies</p>	<p>in gekomen met een andere cultuur wat er voor heeft gezorgd dat de oude medewerkers de benen namen. Hiermee zijn er nog maar 2 individuen over die kennis hebben over het eiwit proces. Gelijktijdig zijn met het vertrek van MG de gemeente teams opgeheven waardoor er veel minder communicatie is.</p> <p>Especially for the bio-based industry, knowledge about the molecules is less abundant. This might differ from the chemical industry as most chemical engineers are knowledgeable about regular chemicals. This means that when normal companies start embracing biobased, their knowledge is low, they have little clue about the importance of the supply chain and create a lot of waste.</p>	
Koppel tussen de resources	Warmte kracht koppeling was een limitatie voor het duurzame proces. Door warmte te integreren in de chemische industrie kan er een lock-in ontstaan die er voor zorgt dat nieuwe innovaties niet plaats vinden.		

Criteria found in literature

Technology criteria:		
Innovation attributes	The relative advantage of one technology over the other. This has been found of much importance in regular adoption literature but has not been thoroughly studied in SPT adoption literature.	
Financial costs	Financial considerations such as ROI, initial investment size and payback time.	
Information pressure	The availability of information, or knowledge, typically influences decisions. Limited influence of competitor and customer behaviour is found on SPT adoption. The most effect comes from the operational uncertainty of new technologies (Weng & Lin, 2011). Furthermore, firms that ignore the environmental problem, do not seek technologies that prevent further damage. Thus, awareness is an important factor.	
Fitness process/compatibility	to A relative scale that indicates the fit between the new technology and the installed process.	De fit in het huidige proces heeft meerdere aspecten. Ten eerste maakt het integreren van een nieuw 'vries droog' proces het productie proces veel minder energie intensief. Gelijk verliest het bedrijf hiermee rest warmte dat gebruikt wordt voor het indampen van het eind product. Om dit tegen te gaan moet het laatste genoemde proces deel dus ook worden aangepakt met membranen en andere droog technieken. Gelijktijdig was het erg voordelig om de stoom-elektriciteit opwekking van elkaar te scheiden. Op het moment gebeurt dit in de warmtekracht koppeling, waar

		zowel stroom als stoom gemaakt wordt. Dit stoom is nu opeens in veel mindere mate nodig als het stroom en hierdoor komt er een conflict met de toeleverancier. Dit wordt uiteindelijk opgelost door een langzame overgangsfase en uiteindelijke loskoppeling van stoom en stroom productie.
<i>Competing options</i>	Next to the fit to certain criteria, decisions can be made based on the selection of alternatives.	Er moet altijd een keuze gemaakt worden tussen alternatieven
<i>Ease of operation</i>	High tech equipment can seem too complicated to operate. This might be particularly important in less developed nations (links to knowledge stock).	Sommige apparaten zijn moeilijk te besturen en daardoor is veel kennis nodig binnen het bedrijf. Als je als bedrijf je knowlegde stock niet op orde hebt, zul je ook niet in staat zijn om
Organisational criteria:		
Technological capabilities	Overall knowledge of the firm. A compound construct of research output, internal experience and innovation capabilities (such as NPD).	
Knowledge stock	The level of experience a firm has with adopting sustainable process technologies. More experience means a higher adoption rate. This effect might be mediated by the adherence to pollution regulation.	
Size	Number of employees, revenue or production capacity.	
Ownership	Multinational, state owned or family business. Foreign ownership stimulates adoption of SPTs. However, power generation is a much-neglected pollutant. State owned businesses have easy access to capital which positively influences adoption.	
Responsibility	The culture (higher management support) within	

	<p>the company to strive for sustainable solutions. Not very thoroughly studied. It was found that corporate social responsibility program was a bad predictor of SPT adoption.</p>	
Human capital intensity	<p>Defined as the level of education or investment per capita, human capital intensity is positively correlated with adoption, except in the pulp industry.</p>	<p>Mensen zijn erg belangrijk.</p>
Resource intensity	<p>The costs of resources or the amount of resources used does not necessarily relates to investment in SPTs. This positive correlation does appear in the energy sector. An interesting observation is that fossil fuel based companies invest in the European Trading System, while bio based companies invest in energy efficiency.</p>	<p>Binnen Company I waren de energie kosten 30% van de product kosten. Dit was dus van groot belang om de kosten te drukken. Hierin voldoet Company I aan de in de literatuur gevonden correlatie tussen energie efficiëntie en biobased zijn.</p> <p>To transform to a bio-based company, the supply chain should be in order. If product is not locally available, the process is doomed to fail. Furthermore, chemical industries prefer multiple sources. This is hard to do with climate dependent bio based materials.</p>

Environmental factors

Factor	Description	Example	Importance
Regelgeving		Duurzaamheid en veiligheid arbeidsveiligheid, emissies. De emissies voor water worden strenger, wordt opgelost door te verdunnen. CO2 taks op de productie geeft wordt er gesjoemeld.	
Consument bewustwording		De consumenten die bewust worden en de supermarkten die het eisen. Alle vervangers zijn er maar die zijn duurder.	
Netwerk/		<p>De Nederlandse innovatienetwerken zijn zo sterk en toegankelijk dat er een grote participatie is van multinationals (coca cola, nestlé etc.) die in het netwerk kruipen en met grote monitaire bijdrage de toon van de nederlandse innovatie hub zetten. Deze innovaties zijn dus niet meer goed voor Nederland BV maar wel een goedkope manier voor de multinationals om onderzoek uit te zetten. Dit is komt ook terug in de ontwikkelings strategie van unilever. Deze heeft bepaald om lange termijn onderzoek in netwerken te doen.</p> <p>Nederlandse bedrijven worden nu naar de achtergrond gedrukt en hebben minder te zeggen in de netwerken. Gelijkijdig profiteren duitse bedrijven van de netwerken omdat deze goed georganiseerd (en dus toegankelijk zijn) terwijl de duitse innovatie netwerken erg versplinterd zijn en daardoor weinig toegankelijk voor nederlandse bedrijven.</p>	
Technology support infrastructure		Dit is onderdeel van de technological characteristic.	

Factors found in literature

Market stakeholders	The influence of market stakeholders on adoption. These include regulatory bodies, investors and advisors (Ren, 2009). Market competition (aka price competition) was only found important in the electromechanical market.	
Customer demand	The (increased) demand for products pushing the adoption of new, improved and more sustainable processes.	Voor eindgebruikers goederen zeker belangrijk. Niet perse voor b2b, behalve dat de product kwaliteit constant moet blijven. Dit gaat zo ver dat de marketing afdeling innovatie projecten tegenhoudt om er voor te zorgen. Als de consumenten (ie. Supermarketen) traceerbaarheid of foodprints eisen, is dit een deal breaker. Daarom moet hier naar geluisterd worden.
Resource price	The price of the resource might incentivise a switch to a more sustainable resource, as it has become relatively cheaper.	De prijs is een probleem. Om problemen op te lossen werd het TRIZ raamwerk gebruikt.
Coercive pressure	<p>The focal firm behaves a certain way because institutions or other organisations on which they depend forces them. In contrast, mimetic and normative pressure have not proven to be very effective.</p> <p>Coercive regulation from governments was found effective for adoption. Furthermore, voluntary standards support incremental innovations.</p>	De overheid moet veel input geven. Zie hierboven. Andere vormen van pressure lijken weinig indruk te maken maar zijn niet expliciet besproken.
Cooperation	Most organisations operate in networks. Whether for research, sales or supply, networks are an important part of an organisations performance. In the context of	Erg belangrijk. Open innovatie is de nieuwe standaard. Binnen unilever al heel belangrijk en de meest voorkomende manier om lange termijn innovatie te doen. De regionale kantoren

	<p>adoption, there is a positive correlation between business group membership and recycle- energy efficiency technologies. A diverse network positively influences adoption. Vertical integration with neutral-, partly- and predominantly environmentally concerned actors is most effective (Wu, 2013).</p>	<p>focussen op de korte termijn innovatie. Bij Company I was de focus op 3^e fase innovaties. Netwerk was eng omdat je geen eigen kennis behoud hebt. Echter is samenwerking erg belangrijk, vooral als je een ambidextrous organisation aan het opzetten bent. de participatie in het ISPT netwerk was dan ook niet altijd voor nieuwe ideeën maar vooral om het netwerk warm te houden.</p>
<p><i>Technological infrastructure support</i></p>	<p>The availability of maintenance parts and personnel. If a technology is young, the continuity of the machine might not be proven and spare parts might run out before the expected life cycle is researched. (links to information pressure.)</p>	

Appendix XI – Interview Company II

The adoption process within the organisation *Rogers is explained*.

The description given is a bit too theoretical. The decision process is more organic during which the problem has been identified a long time ago and a range of solutions were already present. Especially during the formalisation of the problem. Furthermore, there is no 'we' whom decide what technology is needed.

The reason the adopt new technologies differ. Sometimes a new process is needed because of expansion. Other times it is because a new product is developed. New products usually differ little from current products. Therefore, only require small changes to the production process. Sometimes completely different products are required, but this has not happened often.

The board of directors produce a plan on a strategic level, the business plan. The technical challenges of the plan are given to the engineering department of the organisation. They decide on a technology including its location, dependencies and utilities required. Once the engineering department made a decision on a particular technology, it is presented to the board for approval. Typically, the board would insist on shrinking the projects budget before approval. The engineering department typically chooses to either develop a new technology in house, or to buy a turn key solution elsewhere. Most of the time, a supplier is sought whose technology is later made to fit the factories process. Both adoption pathways are elaborated upon below.

If the technology is produced outside the company, the technology is only accessed. The supplier does all designing and construction. However, as the device is tied to the current production process, the focal company has to extract data from their own administration. Furthermore, the focal firm composes a large list of actions and links these to the parties which are involved. These parties include the suppliers, surroundings, regulatory bodies, governments, raw material suppliers and internal operations for installation and testing. Because delays in construction means less production time, managing the development is crucial for the firm.

Otherwise, the technology can be developed in house. These projects typically suffer from time pressure. The development of the technology is rushed, forcing the realisation of the technology to take place before the final engineering is done. This results in a situation in which the device is changed while it is already in operation. Sometimes parts have to be remanufactured, based on the promise that the process will improve. These projects typically suffer from capital overshoots.

To finalise the implementation, a start-up phase. Sometimes the suppliers have to prove that the device performs as promised in terms of safety, process control, leakage and product quality. Furthermore, the operators are trained to work with the new operating systems based on models in the control rooms. This is done in parallel to the implementation.

Within the organisation there is a drive to move forward. Therefore, the investment decision is seen as a blockage. It is experienced that, once investments have been made, the technology will be finished anyway. However, it is not the case that the engineering department deliberately suggests projects which are supposed to cost much more than allowed. However, under pressure the decisions typically become more risk seeking.

A third adoption pathway occurs when current processes are replaced or refurbished. Since the factory is already operating, there is little time pressure and risk-taking behaviour. Mostly, these

instances allow for in dept research. The product quality cannot be changed, as goes for the safety, controllability and reliability. During the third pathway, no chances are left since shutting down the currently operational process are direct losses which only grow larger as unexpected problems occur. These are most of the adoption projects done.

At one point, Company II wanted to build new desulphurization capacity. However, the capacity would only be needed five years later. During these five years, the R&D department was able to thoroughly develop and design a factory with new technologies. For Albemarle this was the minimum time needed to select and design new technologies. The usual 2 years forces R&D to buy Chinese copies of the existing factory. Eventually, this resulted in a cheaper, smaller, more flexible and better quality product site.

Personally, the interviewee has no experience in technology adoption for Company II factories. He specialised in R&D studies for business units of Company II. The studies they had done were given to those business units whom had to further develop and implement the propositions. Within Company II the interviewee focussed on the development of their catalysers. Because of the production focus of the CTO, the new catalyst recipe would need testing in the factory. This is what the interviewee would focus on. This was mostly a process parameter change and required little construction.

During the implementation phase, there are not a lot of big decisions to be made. Most decisions are incremental and serve the realisation of the hardware. This is evident from the cases in which a new factory is started for the first time and it immediately works. Otherwise, there are some cases known where a year of problem solving was needed to get the factory running. These problems come from unexpected pollution, by products or heat profiles that do not match the models used. However, the interviewee suggests to take this section out of the research.

For the decision criteria, the interviewee feels he can add little to the available books. The technologies economics should work out but, maybe even more important, the process should be reliable. The interviewee is unaware of any analysis on raw materials.

The replacement of technology implies slow and more detailed preparations. The process legacy process is already operating satisfactory, making the interruptions to the process very costly.

If a new process, such as additional capacity, is needed, engineers need a least 5 years to develop and implement it. For shorter periods, one typically ends up with Chinese copies.

Decision criteria and environmental factors

Internal decision Criteria of the company

Criteria	Description	Example	Importance
Financial efficiency	Includes the energy costs (big part of the operational expenses), except in high value raw material industries (e.g. pharma). The energy costs of raw material production is incorporated in the price.		2
Reliability	Trust that the process will deliver as promised. Security of raw material supply, possibly through multiple suppliers.	More important than the finance of the technology.	1
Strategic fit	Sustainable processes, staying in line with the rest of the industry.	Electricity becomes cheaper and fossil fuels more expensive (through taxation)	
Safety, environment of the factory	Can the process be executed safely?		
Government	Permits, rules and regulations by governments. Not only current but also the chances of obtaining permits in the future.	There is good collaboration between the production facility and the municipality in Amsterdam. The regulation on discharge is influenced by the industries in this area. Dow and Huntsman (textile industry) are recovering more valuable components from their waste streams and thus reducing the pollutive discharge.	
Culture	Is the quality maintained and can this be controlled and maintained.	When membranes are used instead of distillation, the (technical) improvement.	
Customers	B2B or B2C. there are differences in both market and research perspective	Unilever and Akzo (B2C) vs Shell and Dow (B2B). For the first, development resources are used for packaging, the label and brand name. For B2B, the strategic efforts focus around product quality and costs. Their	

		<p>sustainable efforts go into technological developments within the factory. B2C companies on the other hand mainly focus on the raw materials (no more E numbers etc) and supply chain.</p> <p>Something about advertisement?</p>	
<p>Fossiel tegen niet fossiel. Energie tegen niet energie bedrijf. Fossil versus non-fossil companies. Energy vs non energy companies</p>	<p>Different raw materials.</p>	<p>Different raw materials require different technologies.</p>	
<p>Ownership</p>	<p>Cultural differences between 'portfolio' companies and companies whom grow more naturally.</p> <p>Naturally growing companies are more innovative.</p> <p>Some companies have a strong strategical technological vision next to their economic vision. They focus on knowledge and areas of development.</p>	<p>A clear difference is obtained when comparing Akzo to DSM. Both use acquisition to grown the company, but their exploitation was different.</p> <p>Akzo used the acquired companies as a deck of cards (implying that the companies can be easily bought, sold as separate entities without integration in the organisation).</p> <p>Conversely, DSM completely transformed their business from a mining company to a specialty chemicals company and from there to a life science specialist. Their acquisitions served a strategic purpose. Furthermore, DSM has a larger focus on internal development (Carbon as an umbrella over all research activities). By integrating all business aspects, DSM has a more homogeneous culture across its business units than Akzo Nobel has.</p>	
<p>Size</p>	<p>The effect of company size.</p>	<p>KW has worked in two large multinationals so cannot be speak from personal experience. However, smaller companies are known to switch more easily from one strategy to another. Conversely, they have limited funding and are thus also limited</p>	

		in their ability to explore different strategies.	
Knowledge stock			
Knowledge management		This is an ICT related question. How can knowledge be made accessible and how can one division of the organisation utilise the knowledge of another.	

Criteria found in literature

Technology criteria:		
Innovation attributes	The relative advantage of one technology over the other. This has been found of much importance in regular adoption literature but has not been thoroughly studied in SPT adoption literature.	
Financial costs	Financial considerations such as ROI, initial investment size and payback time.	
Information pressure	The availability of information, or knowledge, typically influences decisions. Limited influence of competitor and customer behaviour is found on SPT adoption. The most effect comes from the operational uncertainty of new technologies (Weng & Lin, 2011). Furthermore, firms that ignore the environmental problem, do not seek technologies that prevent further damage. Thus, awareness is an important factor.	
Fitness to process/compatibility	A relative scale that indicates the fit between the new technology and the installed process.	
<i>Competing options</i>	Next to the fit to certain criteria, decisions can be made based on the selection of alternatives.	
<i>Ease of operation</i>	High tech equipment can seem too complicated to operate. This might be particularly important in less developed nations (links to knowledge stock).	
Organisational criteria:		
Technological capabilities	Overall knowledge of the firm. A compound construct of research output, internal experience and innovation capabilities (such as NPD).	

Knowledge stock	The level of experience a firm has with adopting sustainable process technologies. More experience means a higher adoption rate. This effect might be mediated by the adherence to pollution regulation.	
Size	Amount of employees, revenue or production capacity.	
Ownership	Multinational, state owned or family business. Foreign ownership stimulates adoption of SPTs. However, power generation is a much neglected pollutant. State owned businesses have easy access to capital which positively influences adoption.	
Responsibility	The culture (higher management support) within the company to strive for sustainable solutions. Not very thoroughly studied. It was found that corporate social responsibility program was a bad predictor of SPT adoption.	
Human capital intensity	Defined as the level of education or investment per capita, human capital intensity is positively correlated with adoption, except in the pulp industry.	
Resource intensity	The costs of resources or the amount of resources used does not necessarily relates to investment in SPTs. This positive correlation does appear in the energy sector. An interesting observation is that fossil fuel based companies invest in the European Trading System, while bio based companies invest in energy efficiency.	

Environmental factors

Factor	Description	Example	Importance
Landscape	Emissions, physical area		
Social environment	Employment opportunities, growth		
Infrastructure	Raw materials, utilities and road network		
Politics	What is the local political climate, is it stable or supporting of the process.	Operate in Indonesia or not?	
Shareholders	Owners of shares, particularly those whom are invited to the shareholder meetings.	At Company II, the board of directors was highly involved in the company strategy, with a high awareness of secondary factors. Shareholders do not really interact with employees. The closest contact between the CTO and the shareholders was a presentation for a group of analysts.	
Champions	Individual whom follows an idea until it has become a reality.		

Appendix XII – Interview questions, 3rd round

For the interviews, this implies a slightly altered approach is required. In the old setting to focus was on retrieving adoption criteria, linking them to the adoption decision process. As the adoption decision process is not considered in this research, space is made to discuss the importance of the dimensions described above. The changes made to the interview structure and questions will be made explicit in the thesis. The new interview is structured as follows:

First the participants' perspective on sustainable process technologies is asked for. This gives an indication of the level of knowledge and vocabulary they feel comfortable with.

1. Can you please explain what you think counts as sustainable process technologies?

The answer is supplemented with what is considered to be a sustainable process technology according to this research. Process technologies are defined as technologies that are added to the production process or peripherals. SPTs are defined as process technologies that reduce the pollution of the factory. The categories of SPTs are energy efficiency gains, emission reduction, end of pipe technologies, change in raw material. Next, the participant is asked what examples of sustainable process technologies they have adopted.

2. Could you give an example of sustainable process technologies you have adopted?

As these examples are collected, they are put on cards, as depicted in Figure 45 below. Next, the participant is asked to list the adoption criteria they think are important when deciding on adopting new SPTs.

3. What criteria do you use when adopting process innovations?

The participant is thanked for their insights, and the list of criteria from literature is shown. This list is then supplemented with criteria mentioned by the participant. Now, both examples of technologies and adoption criteria are listed. This means that the second research question (What factors are important while adopting SPTs) is now covered.

The remainder of the interview aims to identify the dimensions that determine what criteria are important during the adoption of SPTs. However, the participant is not expected to know the generalised forms of the dimensions. Therefore, the examples previously given are used. First, the participant is asked if they notice any differences between the examples they gave.

4. Can you find any difference between the adoption examples you have mentioned?

If the question is too vague, it is rephrased. The aim, however, is to find two technologies that have specific opposing characteristics important for adoption. Next, the decision criteria are linked to the chosen examples.

5. What were adoption decision criteria of importance with these examples?

By contrasting the criteria from the examples, a pattern can emerge. If the criteria are different in all cases, the participant is asked why these different criteria are used.

6. Why do you think different criteria are important for the different technologies you described?

If the criteria are the same, the participant is asked if the relative importance of the criteria changes throughout the technology.

7. What is the relative importance of the criteria for each example?

If the relative importance is also constant, the participant is asked what would eventually tip the balance to choose to further the adoption of the technology.

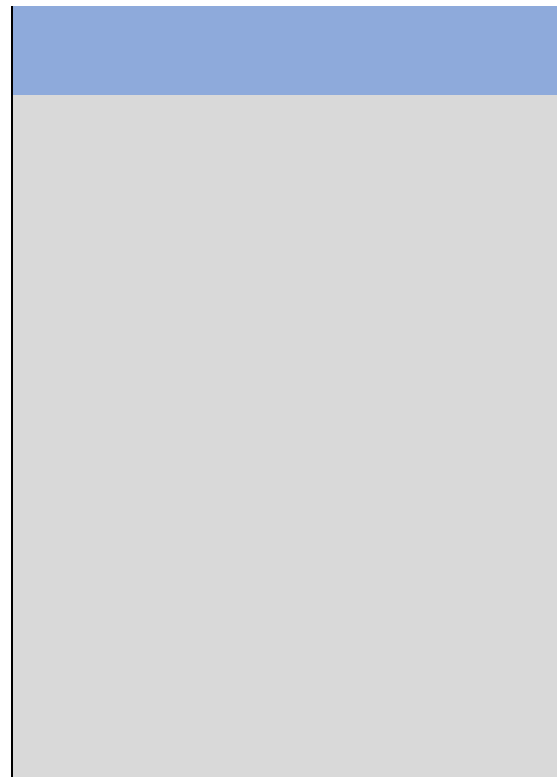
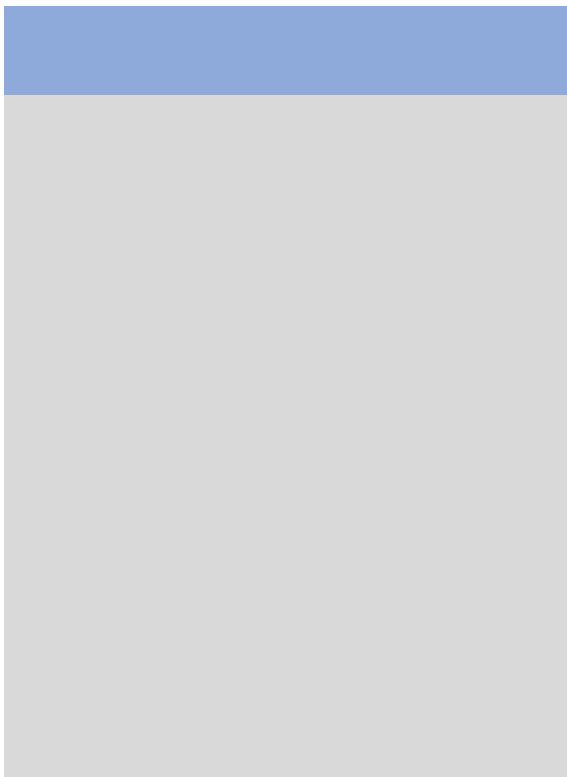
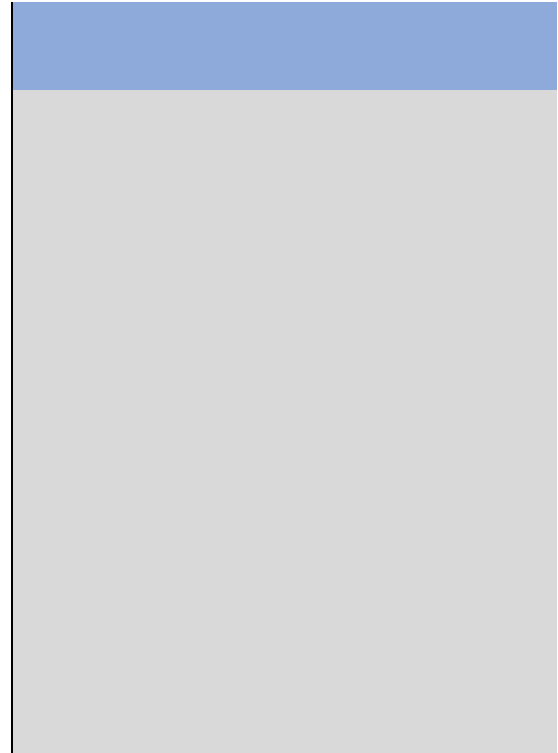
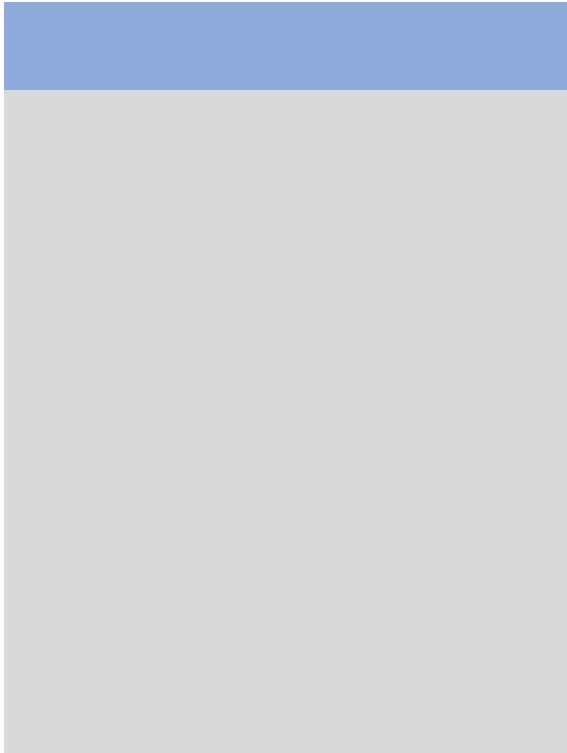
8. What would you say to be the requirement for the adoption of the mentioned SPTs?

Now the interview is over. The participant is thanked for their time, and the results of the interview are summarised.

e.g. Heat pump	e.g. Freeze drying	Example tech. 3
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Cost benefit • Production disruption • ... • ... 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Proof of concept • Business case • Environmental advantages • ... 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Criteria 1 • ... • ... • ...

Figure 45 SPT and criteria cards

Technology – criteria combination cards



Appendix XIII – Interview Company A transcript

1
2
3
4
5
6
7 *Wat definieer je als een duurzame procestechnologie?*
8 Vaak is de primaire visie van duurzaam vanuit het milieu. Echter is er ook een vorm van duurzaamheid
9 met betrekking tot succes of langer termijn toepasbaarheid. Deze tweede is belangrijker als we praten
10 over het implementeren van nieuwe technologieën. Duurzaam is voor mij dus meer gericht op een
11 product ontwikkelen die echt werkt in de markt. Er moet dus naar alle omstandigheden van
12 implementatie worden gekeken. De inhoud zelf is dan niet alleen belangrijk. De context of omgeving
13 is minstens zo van belang. Waar gaat deze technologie landen? Waar is deze technologie voor? Welke
14 motivatie hebben de belanghebbende en wie zijn de belanghebbende? Verder is ook de organisatie
15 die om de te implementeren techniek heen zit belangrijk.

16 *Als we iets technischer gaan, zijn er verschillende classificaties van duurzame process technologieën.*
17 *Dit is dan bijvoorbeeld CO₂ mijndend of het veranderen van de grondstoffen. Zijn er nog andere van dit*
18 *soort groepen duurzame technologieën die hier veel voorkomend zijn bij ons?’*

19 Dit is een lastig gebied en een van de dingen die lastig blijft, is het synchroniseren van de begrippen.
20 Als we voor productieprocessen kijken (Process Development), zijn een aantal dingen van belang. Een
21 gaat over de grondstoffen. Kunnen we grondstoffen vinden met een lagere footprint? Dit hoeft dan
22 niet persé bio based te zijn, als de footprint maar verminderd wordt. Dan komt de vraag, wat heeft
23 grondstoffen met de technologie te maken, maar dat is best wel wat. In de grondstoffen zit best wat
24 vervuiling. Hierdoor heeft het veranderen van de grondstof effecten op het gehele proces.

25 Een ander belangrijk onderwerp is de efficiëntie van de fabriek in zijn geheel. Hier zijn elementen die
26 te maken hebben met energie efficiëntie en het verminderen van afval van de productie. Het liefst wil
27 je zo veel mogelijk stappen bij elkaar schuiven of combineren. Het verbeteren van je productieproces
28 om energie te minimaliseren en opbrengst te verbeteren vraagt iets aan het ontwerp en de
29 onderdelen van de fabriek. Als je deze verandering goed doet, kun je reducties krijgen in CO₂ emissies.
30 Bij ons is dit een belangrijk onderwerp maar komt dit nog niet terug in de bedrijfsvoering. Op het
31 moment is ons bezig met het afvangen van laag hangend fruit op dit niveau. Hier wordt gekeken waar
32 de energie toevoeren, en hoe deze uit een duurzame bron kunnen komen. Dit betekent dat de
33 geïmporteerde elektriciteit van windmolenparken of zonnen parken moet komen i.p.v. kolencentrales
34 en gasturbines. Op dit gebied is ons momenteel gefocust. Hiernaast doen we op de verschillende
35 locaties de scans om de energiehuishouding om te gooien. Tijdens deze scans worden de fabrieken
36 direct geüpgraded door energie onzuinige opties te wisselen met zuinige apparatuur. Dit is
37 vergelijkbaar met het vervangen van een gloeilamp met een ledlamp vervangen in huis. Het vervangen
38 van de complexere technologie wordt pas in de volgende fase gedaan. Tijdens deze vervolgfase is
39 duurzaamheid een ontwerp criteria geworden complementair aan de criteria voor
40 kostenvermindering. Dit gaan dan veranderingen brengen in de oplossingen die voorgedragen
41 worden. Verder wordt er gekeken naar de recycle mogelijkheden van de producten die ons maakt. Dit
42 wordt later ook een verbetering van het productieproces.

43 Wat ook interessant is, zijn de restricties waar de farmaceutische industrie mee te maken heeft. De
44 manier van produceren is erg gecertificeerd en vast gelegd. Om hierin te veranderen moet er een

45 complex autorisatie cyclus door voordat het product op de markt komt. Dit maakt dat de farmaceuten
46 erg conservatief. Het onderdeel Biomedische, een van de groei kernen, zoeken naar materialen die in
47 het menselijk lichaam toe gepast kunnen worden. Denk hierbij aan oplosbaar hechtingsdraad of
48 vervanging of steun voor een meniscus. Deze applicaties zijn medisch, dus het productieproces van de
49 grondstoffen moet van voor tot achter erg nauw worden omschreven. Dit is een barrière van
50 ontwikkeling. Het nieuwe proces moet dus vele malen beter zijn dan het oude om dit proces in te
51 gaan. Dit is niet simpel, aangezien het oude proces ook niet uit de lucht is komen vallen. Dit bekend
52 dat de standaard is om kleine stappen te verbeteren in plaats van een heel nieuw proces neer te
53 zetten.

54 *Is het dan wel zo dat de kern van de fabriek wordt verbeterd of zit de verbetering meer in de periferie*
55 *van het proces?*

56 Als de kern van de fabriek veranderd, zoals een ander reactor concept veranderen, heeft dit als
57 implicatie dat de rest van de fabriek ook moet worden veranderd. Meestal wordt dan wel bekeken of
58 het hele proces dan wel interessant is om te doen. Dit maakt dat de verbeter stappen aan de periferie
59 veel vaker gedaan worden.

60 Bij materialen heb je formele constrictie van certificaten niet, maar je wordt wel gestuurd door de
61 markt. Wij leveren geen eindproduct maar een grondstof voor een ander bedrijf. Bijvoorbeeld plastic
62 korrels die gebruikt worden door hun klant om bumpers mee te spuitgieten. Afnemers hebben hun
63 eisen aan het product, zodat het aansluit op hun eigen productieproces. Hier zit wel iets bandbreedte
64 in maar niet onbeperkt. De vrijheid om te sleutelen aan de formulering is er niet omdat de klant dit
65 bepaald. In dit geval is het dus niet een beperking uit wetgeving, maar vanuit de markt. Het
66 management van ons, zoals de CEO, zijn duidelijk over hun duurzaamheid targets. Echter noemen ook
67 zij dat de gemaakte producten wel moeten blijven werken. Het bedrijf moet namelijk financieel
68 gezond blijven.

69 *Is er dan ook een sterke samenwerking tussen de klanten en jullie?*

70 Ja zeker. We willen continue verbeteren in de processen en materialen. Dit gebeurt dan wel in nauwe
71 samenwerking met de klanten. ons produceert pure polymeren maar verkopen compound aan hun
72 klanten. De verkoop van deze producten komt tot stand na een langdurige interactie tussen de klant
73 en ons. Dit spel is ook dynamisch. De klanten zoeken naar verschillende toeleveranciers en kiezen
74 hieruit hun favoriet. Gelijktijdig zijn wij bezig met het vinden en binden van nieuwe klanten waarvan
75 zij verwachten dat hun product een toepassing heeft en op hun machines gemaakt kan worden. De
76 klanten zoeken dan naar specificaties en proeven. Bij grote klanten ben je langere tijd bezig. In de
77 elektronica-industrie zijn de toepassingen veelzijdig. Chips behuizing, isolatie voor transistoren en
78 ingangen van displays. Apple was een van de klanten die met strakke eisen kwam voor de product
79 specificaties. De bewijslast die geleverd moet worden verschilt per klant en de relatie die in het
80 verleden is opgebouwd met de klant.

81 *Het is interessant om te zien dat de klant bepalend is voor de materialen die gemaakt worden in jouw*
82 *fabriek.*

83 De compounding, het gebruik maken van componenten om aan de klant vraag te voldoen is leidend
84 voor ons. De productie van polymeren is ondersteunend voor deze afdeling. De polymeren moeten
85 op de juiste momenten beschikbaar zijn. Dit is op zichzelf gecompliceerd omdat de toelevering en
86 afname bepaald moeten worden. Ook de productiekwaliteit moet zo stabiel mogelijk zijn. Dit in

87 moeilijk bij een chemisch proces dat van zichzelf veel schommeling heeft. In de laatste 10 tot 20 jaar
88 is dit high end belangrijk geworden. Dit verschilt met de bulkchemie, ten opzichte van de
89 polymeerchemie, is wat er in het proces gebeurd veel belangrijker voor de klant relaties. Het
90 bulkproduct dat uit de fabriek komt is het product dat direct naar de klanten gaat. Hier speelt de
91 afstelling van de fabriek (productkwaliteit stabiliteit) een veel belangrijkere rol.

92 *Oké interessant. Maar is het ook niet zo dat bij bulk er veel minder communicatie is met de klant omdat*
93 *er een grote hoeveelheid wordt geproduceerd dat op de markt wordt verkocht? Bij polymeren kan het*
94 *zijn dat je meer ten dienste staat van de marketingafdeling om voor elke klant een speciaal recept te*
95 *leveren.*

96 Ja dat is zeker waar. De basisprincipes zijn niet verschillend. Maar het aantal klanten en de intensiteit
97 van contact verschilt zeker.

98 *Dus het verschil komt dan door de hoeveelheid klanten?*

99 Ja en de volumina waar men over praat. Een leuke meet parameter is het aantal personen in de sales
100 ten opzichte van de omzet. Het uitgangspunt van deze discussie is in ieder geval dat de
101 productieprocessen een zo constant mogelijke kwaliteit moet leveren. Dat de markt hier mee gaat
102 zitten spelen maakt het lastiger. Natuurlijk zijn er van tijd tot tijd verbeterstappen in het product, maar
103 sec genomen is het credo dat er niet aan de fabriek wordt gezeten. Lever het product in de juiste
104 hoeveelheden en de juiste kwaliteit. Een plant manager wordt ook niet per definitie gelukkig als je aan
105 komt met de boodschap dat je iets in het proces gaat veranderen.

106 *Binnen ons, de materiaal afdeling waar je nu zit, noemde je net dat er gekeken is naar de oorsprong*
107 *van de energie. Kun je hier over uitweiden?*

108 Er is een GHG (Green House Gas) target in 30 procent reductie ten opzichte van 2016, ondanks de
109 groei van omzet. Zoals het er nu uit ziet gaat dat ook lukken. Voorbeelden van technologieën zijn het
110 inkopen van groene stroom, zonneweides in Amerika en Zwitserland. Zo'n project start met een
111 nulmeting op 2016, hier wordt per plant een plan gemaakt en wordt gekeken welke stappen er
112 genomen kunnen worden. Een voorbeeld is het vervangen van een compressor met warmte
113 terugkoppeling. Dit is een grote investering waar geld voor vrij moet komen. Dit plan gaat ook in detail
114 over waar het geld voor de investering vandaan moet komen. Dit maakt dat er veel mensen betrokken
115 zijn vanuit de centrale organisatie om de methodiek te begeleiden, tot in de business en de lokale site
116 als kennis dragers voor die processen.

117 *Dus hier besteed ons nu zijn aandacht aan. Is er naast de focus op energie ook aandacht voor andere*
118 *mogelijke vervuilende bronnen zoals materie?*

119 Er wordt nu al gekeken naar de stappen die volgen na de huidige 30%. De CEO heeft al gezegd dat wij
120 helemaal naar nul uitstoot gaan. Hier is nog veel werk te doen en Johan weet niet wat er staat te
121 wachten. Het werkveld polymeren heeft de afgelopen 2 jaar geen richting gekregen waar er naartoe
122 moet worden ontwikkeld. De huidige trend is om te focussen op wat de technologische uitdagingen
123 zijn voor de 0% transitie. Op het moment wordt er gekeken naar welke mensen er nodig zijn en welke
124 onderwerpen er worden behandeld. Het huidige competentie portfolio is gericht op
125 procestechnologieën en opschalen. Betekent dat de mensen die nu in huis zijn (gedeeltelijk) zullen
126 moeten gaan veranderen in de komende jaren. De vraag is dan echter welke competenties wel nodig
127 zijn. Echter kunnen wij niet alles zelf doen en zullen sommige activiteiten door andere bedrijven
128 gedaan moeten worden. De concrete planning van deze planning is nog niet duidelijk. Wat zijn de

129 vragen die gesteld moeten worden? Waar moet een technologie aan voldoen? Hoe moeten we dit
130 aanpakken? Wat gebeurt er in de buiten wereld? Hoe zit dit voor onze business als benchmark in
131 elkaar? Al deze factoren moet een plan voor maken om het meest interessante plan te kunnen
132 selecteren.

133 *Het is wel gelukt om met polymeren mee te gaan om met de 30% reductie? Vaak zijn deze afkomstig
134 van aardolie en is dit de energiebron.*

135 Ja zeker, hier zitten ook grote uitdagingen in. In de eerste fase zitten mensen met een technologische
136 basis die nu bij de afdeling 'corporate' terecht zijn gekomen. Deze mensen tuigen daar nu deze
137 programma's op om de business te ontwikkelen. Deze golf heeft echter weinig R&D bemoeienis. Deze
138 golf is dus ook eigenlijk straight forward implementeren van bestaande technologieën. Dit verhaal
139 wordt anders bij de 30+% golf. Hier zijn bestaande innovaties niet toereikend en is het nog onduidelijk
140 wat de nieuwe technologieën worden om dit te bewerkstellen. Hier kan nog lang naar worden
141 onderzocht.

142 *Wat zijn dan de technologieën waarnaar gekeken wordt?*

143 Afvalgas opvangen is een optie. Maar dit is, voor nu, nog geen onderdeel van onze kerntaak. Wij zijn
144 niet bezig om technologieën te gebruiken waar CO₂ als grondstof gebruikt wordt. De ontwikkelingen
145 moeten in het businessmodel blijven passen.

146 *Dus jullie wilt innoveren, maar binnen de markten waar ze nu zitten.*

147 Ja. Wij hebben ook niet de strategie om binnen 20 jaar de kern processen te veranderen. De
148 ontwikkeling zit meer in composieten als in de basis polymeren. De vraag is dan sowieso hoeveel
149 nieuwe basis polymeren er nu nog ontwikkeld kunnen worden. Veel polymeren zijn uitgevonden maar
150 niet in productie gebracht omdat hun eigenschappen niet goed zijn. Echter, als je een lagere footprint
151 wilt hebben, zul je moeten kijken naar de productie van de monomeren. Bijvoorbeeld voor Stanyl® is
152 een van de grondstoffen diaminobutaan, een monomeer dat wij zelf produceert. Dit product kan ook
153 door middel van fermentatie gemaakt worden. Het proces is beschikbaar, maar niet economisch
154 rendabel. Daarbij is ook dit proces niet zonder uitstoot te bedrijven. Dit lijkt echter wel de meest voor
155 de hand liggende route.

156 *Bij bio based polymeren komt al gauw het voorbeeld van Corbion omhoog. Corbion produceert PLA op
157 basis van gefermenteerd melkzuur. Wat zou een reden kunnen zijn dat Corbion wel een dergelijk proces
158 rendabel acht en jullie niet?*

159 Elk monomeer is anders. Voor DAB is de kostprijs niet interessant, en de footprint gaat ook niet
160 voldoende omlaag. Hierdoor is er in de huidige context geen driver. Over 10 jaar is het misschien
161 anders. Dan gaat ook de wetgeving een rol spelen. Het voorbeeld van de EU dat de gloeilampen eruit
162 moesten. Dit heeft gezorgd voor een enorme innovatie slag voor ledlampen. Nu kan een ledlamp
163 worden gekocht met het vermogen van ledlampen, dezelfde kostprijs en een langere levensduur. De
164 kostprijs van het feed stock is niet de enige factor. Als recyclen plaats kan vinden, is de oorsprong van
165 de feed stock niet heel interessant meer. Veel initiatieven zijn niet allemaal goed gecoördineerd maar
166 er gebeurt wel veel en het is moeilijk te zeggen welke oplossing het meest rendabel is. Over 10 jaar is
167 het waarschijnlijk dat er verschillende oplossingen het beschikbaar zijn.

168 *Dat klinkt aannemelijk. Olie is de rode draad in veel industrieën, dus als dit ter twijfel getrokken wordt*
169 *zal een instabiele situatie ontstaan. Recycling is dan een goede methode om de footprint laag te*
170 *houden. Is dit iets waar ONS mee bezig is?*

171 Ja zeker. Er wordt gekeken hoe de gebruikte materialen opgepakt en geconverteerd kunnen worden.
172 Het liefste haalt ONS het materiaal als geheel terug. Bijvoorbeeld een kunststof auto-onderdeel dat
173 als zijnde wordt ingezameld en terug geleverd aan het huidige productieproces kan mee nemen. Een
174 andere strategie is om het composietmateriaal terug te leiden to een puur polymeer. Als dit niet gaat,
175 kan de keten dan worden opgebroken en her polymeriseren zodat op deze manier het materiaal
176 gerecycled kan worden. Die recycling heeft heel veel stappen en processen. Eigenlijk alle onderdelen
177 in dit proces zouden moeten worden onderzocht.

178 *Het is mij ook opgevallen dat veel composieten gemengd worden. Het lijkt mij dat zulke materialen*
179 *lastig te recyclen zijn.*

180 Ja dat klopt ook. In zo'n geval is kraken een van de weinige oplossingen. Samen met de mensen van
181 analyse wordt er al een tijd gewerkt aan methodes of polymeren te karakteriseren. Nu gebeurt dat
182 met een soort infrarood scanners. Dit is een methode om plastic te identificeren en te scheiden. Hier
183 zou een goede samenwerking met afvalverwerkers plaats kunnen vinden. Uiteindelijk kan een rest
184 stuk, de slak, wat de wegenbouw in kan. Binnen ONS ligt nu echter de focus op de basis stappen. Met
185 welke materialen zou dit wel of niet kunnen en hoe ziet dit proces eruit. Binnen ONS staat dit echter
186 nog in de kinderschoenen. Wanneer dit pad wordt uitgelopen komen vanzelf de vragen weer of ONS
187 dit zelf zou willen oppakken of een andere partij hiervoor geschikt is en aan ONS gaat leveren.

188 *Er bedankt. Er zijn al verschillende technologieën benoemd die binnen ONS gebruikt worden. Zou je*
189 *een idee kunnen geven welke van deze technologieën het verst uit elkaar liggen. Voorbeelden van*
190 *technologieën zijn de zonneweide, compressor, verandering in het reactor vat of een*
191 *zuiveringsmethode en een ander ruw materiaal.*

192 Wat is dan de achtergrond van de vraag?

193 *De vraag is eigenlijk welke connecties u maakt. Wat maakt nu dat één technologie anders is als de*
194 *ander.*

195 Ik zit even te denken. Even een toets: waar kijk je naar als je een heel proces ontwerpt, wat is er dan
196 van belang?

197 *Ja dat kan, maar het kan ook voor één technologie zijn. Maar als het helpt om vanuit een nieuw proces*
198 *te denken mag dat ook.*

199 Oké. Ik denk dat er een link is met de ontwikkeling van een geheel proces. Wat zijn de stappen erin en
200 wat doe je dan? Waarom neem je voor een bepaald proces de keuze om een technologie verandering
201 te maken ja of nee. Vanuit die optiek hebben we het over duurzaamheid, staan de technieken los. Als
202 je proces development in het algemeen hebt zijn er twee situaties.

203 1) Groene wei ontwikkeling: vanuit het lab een chemische route die je wilt opschalen. Nieuw product,
204 en nieuw proces. In dit proces heb je verschillende stappen. Een idee, lab experimenten, chemie
205 koppelingen, concept, berekeningen, engineering principes, een principe in een proces, proces pilot,
206 recycle stroom meten. Vervolgens komt een engineering bureau om de hoek en worden design route,
207 tekeningen en specificaties opgesteld. Er worden vervolgens contractor aangenomen en wordt er
208 gebouwd. Dit eindigt met opstart, running en uiteindelijk sleutel overdracht. Dit traject is groot,

209 kostbaar en kent veel onzekerheden. Die pilot doe je om te testen of dingen ook echt kunt maken en
210 om de verrassingen te minimaliseren. Mensen zijn hier geneigd om risico's zo veel mogelijk te
211 verkleinen. Hier is een sterke drijver om zo veel mogelijk conventionele technologieën in te zetten,
212 zelfs bij nieuwe processen. Bijvoorbeeld: Er moet een complexe scheiding komen na de reactor. Een
213 van de meest robuuste scheidingen technologieën is destillatie zuivering: enkele kolommen om
214 selectief te zuiver, veel bedrijven die goed zijn in het maken van destillatie kolommen, veel kennis
215 over opschaling en pilot voor je kunnen doen, goed te controleren en toeleveranciers. Jammer dan
216 dat destillatie niet het duurzaamste is. Pas als het echt niet anders kan wordt er gekeken naar een
217 andere zuivering stap.

218 2) Bij een bestaand proces komen ook onderdelen voor die verbeterd kunnen worden. Hier wordt
219 net zo argwanend gekeken naar nieuwe technologie. Er zit ook veel kennis en gebruikerservaring in
220 de conventionele technologie. Pas als het bestaande proces echt rammelt zal de omgeving toegeven
221 dat er een nieuwe technologie bekeken kan worden. Er zijn veel redenen waarom vooral naar
222 conventionele alternatieven wordt gekeken. Ik denk dat dit niet uniek is voor de procestechnologie.
223 Dit komt ook voor bij andere kapitaalintensieve stappen. Hier komt 'valley of death' voor innovaties
224 en innovatie funnel naar voren. Begin routes bestaan uit veel initiatieven die qua kapitaal en
225 inspanning niet veel kosten. Opschalen maakt dat de belangen steeds groter worden wat leidt tot
226 opboksen tegen traditionele technologieën. Soms lukt dit wel maar de meeste sneuvelen.

227 Alle factoren moeten de goede kant op staan. De verbeterstap in het proces moet duidelijk zijn. De
228 financiële performance moet goed zijn, regulering is ook een oorzaak. Er moet een duidelijke
229 noodzaak zijn, ook voor alle individuen in de organisatie. Het management van een fabriek moet ook
230 duidelijk voelen dat ze moeten verbeteren. Er is geen project voor procesverbetering zonder dat de
231 eigenaar van het proces ja zegt tegen het principe dat verbeterd wordt. Er zijn ook genoeg
232 voorbeelden waar dit stuk loopt. In een grote organisatie is het ook niet voor de hand liggend dat
233 onderdelen goed met elkaar overleggen. Interne communicatie en connectie loopt vaak mis. Veel
234 mensen in R&D hebben geen management en operationele ervaring. Hierdoor hebben zij geen idee
235 wat die verantwoordelijkheid betekent. Veel beginnende onderzoekers hebben het idee dat hun
236 nieuwe idee geliefd is bij managers, terwijl dit vaak niet het geval is. Het is dus belangrijk dat ook zij
237 goed onderzoeken of het project gaat landen. Een nieuw idee vraagt dus public relations en
238 stakeholder management om een ontwikkeling door te krijgen.

239 *Is dit dan ook een primaire taak van iemand binnen ONS om die koppeling te maken?*

240 Dat is een gedeelde verantwoordelijkheid met verschillende mensen. Mijn speerpunt is dat er zo veel
241 mogelijk mensen op deze manier gekoppeld zijn. Maar ik doe dit niet alleen. Programma management
242 kijkt hoe relevant de onderzoeksprojecten zijn voor de business. Vanuit Johans positie kijkt hij naar
243 vakspecialisten met de juiste mensen in de business gekoppeld zijn.

244 *Dit is een hele interessante twee deling tussen de groene wei en huidige processen. Is er nog een andere*
245 *scheiding waartussen technologieën gecategoriseerd kunnen worden? Allicht terugkijkend op de*
246 *technologieën die we vandaag besproken hebben. Technologieën die makkelijk geaccepteerd worden*
247 *in fabrieken?*

248 In dit geval is het interessant te kijken naar de impact van de technologie op het geheel. Hoe goed of
249 duidelijk is de opbrengst tegen het risico van de implementatie. Bijvoorbeeld een oude compressor
250 vervangen met een nieuwe compressor met warmte koppeling. Dit systeem zal weinig problemen
251 opleveren. Anders is het voorstel om een reactorsysteem te vervangen voor een nieuw concept. Dit

252 verhaal wordt moeilijker omdat Jan en alleman vragen gaan stellen over de werking van het apparaat.
253 Verder heeft dit ook gevolgen voor alle apparatuur die eraan staat en de uiteindelijke productkwaliteit.
254 Een voorbeeld uit Resins, een uitgebreid product portfolio van ingewikkelde polymeer
255 samenstellingen. Deze worden als basis voor verf of als verf bij poeder coatings of inkt. Dit is polymeer
256 technologie in diverse gebieden. De product eigenschappen van Resins wordt bepaald door de
257 samenstelling van de polymeer systemen en de achterliggende chemie. De chemie is hier dus ook veel
258 belangrijker als bij engineering plastics. Van oudsher is de R&D van Resins werkt vanuit de chemie
259 gestart als methode om de producteigenschappen voor de klant te verkrijgen. Als tussenstap zit hier
260 procestechnologie afdeling om de opschaling te verzorgen. Deze opschaling is echter vaak een directe
261 opschaling van het geroerde potje van het lab naar een grote geroerde pot in de fabriek. Dit heeft zijn
262 uitdagingen, maar het systeem zelf is ouderwets en oerdegelijk. Met bepaalde producten werkt met
263 deze opschaling niet heel goed, waar dus veel uitdaging zit. Er wordt in de afgelopen 10-15 jaar
264 gekeken hoe een andere productiemethode kan worden bedacht. Er zijn veel uitdagingen en het
265 alternatief, bijvoorbeeld continue productie, is ook niet altijd goed. Echter, de product eigenschappen
266 zijn toch net anders als in het lab. Hier speelt de markt weer een rol omdat zij een bepaalde formule
267 bestellen en deze ook verwachten. Als ONS dan aan komt met een andere productiemethode die net
268 andere product karakteristieken oplevert, is de klant niet tevreden. Hierdoor is over het algemeen voor
269 bestaande producten een nieuwe techniek introduceren een lastig traject. Product eigenschappen is
270 dan dus ook belangrijk. Om dan toch een alternatief te kunnen gebruiken, zal het op het lab al anders
271 ontwikkeld moeten worden. Binnen resin gaat het makkelijker om een nieuw product te starten maar
272 dan met de nieuwe technologie ontwikkeld. De implementatie gaat dus niet alleen om het
273 ontwikkelen van de technologie op zichzelf, maar ook de mind set binnen de organisatie om op een
274 andere manier te werk te gaan. Als er binnen de organisatie de juiste mensen niet mee gaan met het
275 nieuwe idee, is het heilloos. Er hoeft maar iets kleins te gebeuren in het project, en mensen gooien
276 direct de handdoek in de ring. De bedrijfscultuur en mentaliteit ten opzichte van verandering.

277 *Je hebt het over het kleinste hikje. Kan dit ook iemand zijn die geen besluitrechten heeft?*

278 Ja zeker. Het kunnen opiniemakers zijn die beginnen te stoken. Als er iets kleins gebeurt in de
279 ontwikkeling is dat voer voor andere om te vertellen waarom het allemaal niet kan. Dit kan bij de
280 beslisser de definitieve doorslag zijn om het project te stoppen. Om iets voor elkaar te krijgen is er dus
281 meer nodig dan één beslisser. Denkend aan Elon Musk, echt een gigantische ondernemer. Ik kan me
282 dus ook niet anders voorstellen dan dat de mensen die daar werken best verschillende meningen
283 hebben over hoe het werk moet gebeuren. Echter twijfel ik er niet aan dat ze allemaal naar een
284 gezamenlijk succes werken. De mind set is volledig gericht om het product te laten slagen. Dit is
285 verschillend met bedrijven met een lange historie. Het is lastig om deze uitlijning te doen. Als Johan
286 met een team moet samenwerken is dit ook zijn eerste zorg. Waarom zitten we bij elkaar en wat
287 moeten we daarvoor doen. Dit is een grote uitdaging binnen de chemische industrie. In het technisch
288 denken en organiseren om de uitdaging aan te gaan staan we in het begin. Bijzonder gezien de
289 industrie al redelijk oud is.

290

291

292

293 *Welkom. Bedankt voor de controle van onze vorige bespreking.*

294 Helemaal goed. Ik heb geen redactie gedaan of grammatica gecontroleerd maar kleine
295 onduidelijkheden verhelderd.

296 *Dat is fijn. Tijdens ons gesprek hebben we het gehad over het verschil tussen groene wei*
297 *ontwikkelingen en procesverbeteringen. U gaf aan dat dit een bepalende factor is voor de manier hoe*
298 *een technologie geadopteerd wordt. Ik vroeg me af of u hier verder op uit zou kunnen wijden aan de*
299 *hand van specifieke technologieën.*

300 Specifieke voorbeelden zijn lastig. Er zijn natuurlijk wel voorbeelden maar dan moet ik goed nadenken
301 hoe ik dit kan uitleggen. Hoe duidelijker en specifieker hoe beter, dat snap ik heel goed.

302 *Misschien is de technologie an sich niet eens het interessantste. Het is natuurlijk wel belangrijk maar*
303 *als het heel lastig is, kunt u dan uitweiden over de besluitcriteria die gebruikt zijn bij de technologieën?*

304 Misschien kan ik er eentje van de groene wei aangeven die een aantal jaren geleden gestart is als groot
305 project. Dat gaat over pretreatment. Pretreatment is een proces waarbij je biomassa die niet eetbaar
306 is, alsnog op een werking gaat omzetten om te gebruiken als voedingsmateriaal voor bio refineries en
307 uiteindelijk biobrandstof. Je moet die technologie plaatsen in de context dat in America veel bio
308 ethanol wordt geproduceerd uit mais corn, de maiskolven zelf. Je doet daar dus competitie met
309 veevoer. Wat veel interessanter is, waar al langer over na wordt gedacht, is om niet de maiskolven te
310 pakken maar het blad en stengels. Het blad en stengels hebben een compositie waardoor je ze niet
311 direct, als je ze fijn maalt ofzo, in een fermentor kan voeden want het organisme kunnen dan niet bij
312 de suikers. Die zitten in de cellulose, hemicellulose en lignine. Er zitten dus bestanddelen in die de
313 eigenlijke voedingsstoffen voor het organisme beschermen. Pretreatment is dan de stap waarbij je die
314 grote, harde polymeerachtige structuren afbreekt. Afbreken in kleine stukjes en dan krijg je in het
315 proces bij de volgende stap enzymen die dat nog verder afbreken en omzetten naar voedingsstoffen.
316 Dat is een prachtige technologie om veel meer plantenvoeding te gebruiken voor biobrandstof als
317 enkel het eetbare stuk. Dat is heel mooi. Het eerste gedachtegoed over al deze stappen, net als veel
318 andere, is al heel oud. Maar wij waren als ONS een jaar of 8 terugdruk bezig met een eerste stap voor
319 het ontwerpen van dit proces. Dan gaat het over welke technologie kun je überhaupt inzetten? Dan
320 zijn collega's van mij, ik heb dat niet zelf gedaan, hebben toch wel langere tijd naar beschikbare
321 technologieën gekeken die al langere tijd in processen gebruikt werden. Bijvoorbeeld in de
322 papierindustrie. Daar zijn zegmaar allerlei opties mogelijk om die harde bestanddelen af te breken,
323 met hitte kun je een soort kraken. Met zuur of met base met een bepaald solvent systeem kun je erin
324 zetten. Maar je hebt hier nog steeds alle vrijheidsgraden om overal voor te kiezen. En natuurlijk ga je
325 kiezen op basis van zekere criteria wat dan gunstig is voor het proces, ja of nee. Daar zit een criteria
326 in, en dat is heel logisch, die gaan over kosten. Wat je bij een technologie doet is je maakt een eerste
327 fase een beetje ruw procesontwerp. Hoe zou dat er dan uit zien, hoe groot is het en wat worden de
328 temperatuur en drukken en hoe veel voeding? Al dit soort vragen die wil je graag weten en dan ga je
329 een sommetje maken hoe het apparaat er dan uit komt te zien en hoeveel kost dat. Je hebt dus
330 kostenramingen voor zowel de investeringen voor het apparaat of de sectie van apparaten. Ook heb
331 je schattingen voor de operationele kosten. Deze moeten ergens in een plaatje vallen met
332 verwachtingen tegen kostprijs in de markt en onzekerheden die je kunt verzinnen. Dat is een criterium.

333 Een ander criterium heeft te maken met veiligheid. Dus welke stoffen ga je gebruiken om de proces
334 condities. Dat kan best wel meetellen als je gevaarlijke stoffen onder hoge druk gaat behandelen. Dan
335 is dat iets wat je liever niet doet als je tegelijkertijd een proces optie hebt staan waarbij je dezelfde
336 bewerking kunt halen tegen dezelfde kosten maar dan op een veel veiliger principieel operatie niveau.

337 Dus veiligheid speelt een belangrijke rol in de overweging. Dat is veiligheid in de omstandigheden van
338 het apparaat en het proces maar ook in de veiligheid over welke chemicaliën gebruikt worden en
339 kunnen vrijkomen. Veiligheid speelt dus ook een rol.

340 Dan krijg je allerlei operationele vraagstukken. Een voeding zoals van planten resten of boomschors
341 gaat krijgen, dan is bijvoorbeeld relevant wat de samenstelling van de voeding is. En wat kan het
342 proces aan? Hoe robuust is het proces? Hoeveel veranderingen in voeding kan het proces hebben?
343 Dat kan voor de ene best verschillend zijn dan een ander. Dat is dus ook een criterium. Hoe robuust
344 het proces is. Dan is er ook nog een proces dat zeker wel mee speelt. Dat is hoe goed het proces
345 bestuurbaar is. Er zijn natuurlijk processen die intrinsiek heel makkelijk en stabiel zijn en nooit
346 problemen geven. Er zijn er ook die heel lastig zijn en heir wil je van tevoren wel iets van weten. In
347 een chemische fabriek wordt er vaak naar gekeken maar met een technische aanpassing op te lossen.
348 Maar als je het over nucleaire installaties hebt, is dat uitermate belangrijk.

349 *Ja precies, maar is dat ook een sector waar ONS in zit?*

350 Nee zeker niet. Het is maar even om een voorbeeld te schetsen. De controle van het systeem is wel
351 belangrijk. Wat ook wel een rol speelt bij het screenen van een nieuw proces is dat als je ergens een
352 apparaat vandaan haalt, of een idee dat eerder in een ander proces gebruikt is, wat zijn dan de
353 ervaringen met dat systeem? Over het algemeen is het een beetje wantrouwen tegen veel
354 mechanische delen in een apparaat. Je weet dat mechanica is draaien, trillen schudden en dat slijt
355 altijd. Dus ook criterium als hoe betrouwbaar, hoe lang gaat is mee, gaat mee tellen om een bepaalde
356 keuze te maken.

357 *Precies. Dus betrouwbaarheid en kans op uitval is dat belangrijk.*

358 Ja dat is betrouwbaarheid. Robuustheid. Als je met een groene wei bezig bent zijn de mogelijkheden
359 om iets te verwezenlijken daarin wat groter omdat je kunt zeggen dat als mijn reactor robuust is, het
360 pretreatment stuk is heel robuust. Dat je er van alles in kan gooien maar je er wat variërende uitvoer.
361 Dan kun je bij groene wei technologie zeggen, laten we tussen de uitvoer en de reactor nog een
362 zuivering doen. Een scheiding. Je kan dan het ontwerpen van de scheiding of zuivering ook doen met
363 vrijheidsgraden.

364 *Oké. Dus dat geeft groene wei technologie meer mogelijkheid om verschillende variaties uit te
365 proberen.*

366 Ja

367 *Zijn er nog andere factoren die u nu kunt bedenken?*

368 Dat zou ik zo af en toe wel mee kunnen tellen, maar nu moet ik wel echt diep gaan zitten graven.

369 *Wat misschien een andere interessante inval zou kunnen zijn is de meer organisatorische criteria. De
370 criteria die we besproken hebben zijn veel gericht op de inherente eigenschappen van de technologie.
371 Of de technische eigenschappen van de technologie op het gebied van betrouwbaarheid en
372 robuustheid. Zou u willen stellen dat er ook criteria zijn vanuit de organisatie? De mensen die binnen
373 de organisatie werken die niet zo zeer direct met de technologie te maken hebben?*

374 Daar zijn wel wat dingen over te zeggen. Als start punt van grote projecten om een proces te bouwen
375 of te verbeteren heb je met een heel groot stappenplan te maken. Daar zijn veel mensen van binnen
376 en buiten de organisatie bij gemoeid om het uiteindelijk te maken. In termen van welke stappen je

377 dan doorloopt en wie ervan wie bij zit is denk ik niet zo heel veel verschil in. Er zijn wel degelijk een
378 paar factoren die bepalen of beslissingen wel of niet genomen worden. Waar je dat verschil gaat zien
379 is dat bij een nieuw groene wei project staat sowieso in de business. Dat wordt niet zomaar gedaan,
380 niet voor de lol gedaan, omdat er hele goede kansen zijn en er goed geld verdient kan worden. Als dat
381 er niet is, ben je een stom bedrijf want dan gaat het niet werken. In de situatie dat er perspectief is
382 van nieuwe business met goede marges en winsten, geeft een mindset bij mensen dat ze graag willen
383 en door willen. Als je dat vergelijkt met een verbeter project in de fabriek in een onderdeel, ja dan
384 moet je natuurlijk bewust zijn dat je niet altijd meteen hele duidelijke winsten in de toekomst hebt.
385 Daar moet je wat meer je best voor doen. Nu zijn er natuurlijk ook verbeter projecten, nou alle
386 projecten die gedaan worden, worden van tevoren goed bekeken en beredeneerd en getest en
387 gecheckt of ze wel hun waarde gaan opbrengen. Dat geldt net zo voor een verbeter project. Het is
388 alleen dat de reden waarom verbeter projecten worden gedaan, die kunnen een andere achtergrond
389 hebben. Het kan zo zijn dat je een fabriek en die maakt productie, een afname, naar de markt en dat
390 zal ook wel zo blijven. Maar die fabriek heeft erg groot onderhoud nodig. En in plaats van dat
391 onderhoud ga je dan nog wat stappen verbeteren vanwege verschillende ideeën waarmee je de
392 productie nog iets om hoog kan voren. Ik heb ze mee gemaakt dat er een life time extensie programma
393 gedraaid moet worden omdat de boel verouderd.

394 *Zit daar dan ook veel verbetering bij, bij dit soort projecten?*

395 Dat kan heel erg van de omstandigheden afhangen. Er zijn van die projecten waar eigenlijk nauwelijks
396 innovatie in gestopt wordt. Maar gewoon recht toe recht aan een op een vervangen. Dan wordt de
397 research er eigenlijk niet eens bij betrokken. ER zijn ook projecten waarbij zo'n extensie programma
398 gebruikt is om op duidelijke punten echt verbeter slagen in een proces in te bouwen.

399 *Watt maakt dan dat dit de ene keer wel besloten wordt en de andere keer niet om zo'n verbeter proces
400 in te gaan.*

401 Het is moeilijk om een factor toe te wijzen. Een gedeelte heeft te maken met de harde technische kant
402 van zaken, met marktcondities en business condities. Het heeft ook te maken, op sommige plekken,
403 met bedrijfscultuur en mindset van bepaalde mensen die in de beslissing cyclus mee doen.

404 *Ja precies. Dus dan kan binnen de organisatie een cultuur of een individu kunnen een rol spelen.*

405 Ja dat is wel het verhaal van management. Dat daar een bepaalde mindset staat waardoor typische
406 beslissingen wel of niet worden genomen. Dat is wel de cultuur van het bedrijf. We hadden hier
407 pas geleden, een paar maanden terug, hadden we een delegatie van Avantium op bezoek. Avantium
408 is al langer bezig met een nieuwe procesontwikkeling waar we het vorige keer ook over hebben gehad.
409 Nou goed ik vind het een heel erg leuk bedrijf omdat ze een enorm ondernemende mindset hebben.
410 Met alle mensen die je spreekt en met wie je in aanraking komt zijn erop gericht om dat proces verder
411 te brengen.

412 *Ja precies. En die drive maakt ook dat het allemaal wel van de grond komt.*

413 Ja dat hoop ik wel voor ze. Soms nog niet zo makkelijk begrijp ik. Dan wil ik niet zeggen dat we dat hier
414 in ONS niet hebben. We hebben hier ook allemaal mensen die werken voor het bedrijf en dingen
415 willen doen. Soms heb je als je in een iets werkt waar je alle details van kent, om te zeggen dat iets
416 niet kan.

417 Met andere woorden. Kijk maar naar veel kleine middenstanders die eigen ondernemers zijn. Veel
418 mensen beginnen gewoon met een project zonder dat ze nadenken over allerlei moeilijkheden
419 verderop. Als je wel zou nadenken doe je het niet.

420 *Dan laat je jezelf dus erg beperken door risico's of onzekerheden.*

421 Misschien is dat wel een factor in het vergelijken van bestaande technologieën en groene wei. De
422 onzekerheden. Bij bestaande technologieën is die kaart van wat er allemaal gebeurd is en kan
423 gebeuren is er al. Die kennis is er al. Bij groene wei is dat veel minder.

424 *Dat zou dan betekenen dat een groene wei technologie minder risico aversie oproept bij de*
425 *besluitnemers.*

426 Ja je kan stellen dat het traject meer risico heeft. Het is maar net van welke insteek je het bekijkt. Er
427 zitten wel verschillen.

428 *Als ik dat nog even kan verduidelijken dan betekend dat er bij groene wei het risico hoger is omdat je*
429 *niet weet wat je niet weet. Bij bestaande technologieën is de neiging om risico te nemen lager omdat*
430 *mensen heel bewust zijn van alle risico's die er zijn.*

431 Ja correct. Die redenaties gebeurt heel vaak bij onderhoud, vervanging of verbeter projecten.
432 Conventionele, hetzelfde terughalen maar een slagje nieuwe van hetzelfde principe omdat mensen
433 weten dat het werkt. Dat is het risico mijden. Bij een nieuw traject, de groene wei, heb je altijd een
434 vertaalslag uit een nieuwe situatie. Dat geeft altijd onzekerheid. Voor een groene wei ontwikkeling
435 wordt wel heel veel tijd besteed om die risico's zo goed mogelijk in te schatten maar ze zijn toch altijd
436 anders als bij bestaande dingen.

437 *Dat is interessant. Zo krijgt eigenlijk het hele stukje onzekerheid een andere invulling tussen de twee*
438 *situaties.*

439 Ja.

440 *Als ik dan even terugpak op de criteria die u hiervoor genoemd heeft voor groene wei technologieën,*
441 *dan zie ik dingen als veiligheid, betrouwbaarheid. Veranderen deze criteria op het moment dat er*
442 *wordt gekeken naar bestaande technologieën? Of de weging van deze criteria?*

443 Ja daar moet ik even over na denken. Kijk als je vraagt over het ontwerp met betrekking tot veiligheid
444 dan is in een bestaand proces vaak gegeven welke chemicaliën er in en uit gaan. Dus is de vrijheid om
445 aan dat risico te profiel te veranderen beperkt. Anders ben ik mijn hele proces kwijt. Of ik moet het
446 hele proces integraal vervangen. Maar dat is meer een groene wei verandering.

447 *Dan wissel je naar het andere type ontwikkeling.*

448 Ja precies. Het bestaande proces geeft allerlei rondvoorwaarden aan je vrijheid van mogelijkheden.
449 Dus veiligheid is er zeker eentje. Op het moment dat je een bestaand proces hebt, en daar zit een
450 onderdeel in wat je zou willen veranderen word je daar beperkt door veel stappen die niet veranderen.
451 Ik kijk dan uiteindelijk naar wat er aan het eind van de rit op de teller staat. Als ik dan een groene wei
452 stuk aan het maken ben, is die trim over de onderdelen druk ook veel groter. Dus het criterium is
453 geldig. Je kijkt naar bekostiging, veiligheid en robuustheid. Alleen de ruimte waarin je kunt bewegen
454 is duidelijk verschillend. Een groene wei heeft veel meer ruimte en een bestaand proces heeft veel
455 meer inperkingen. Het risico van de verdere implementatie van het proces zit daar een beetje

456 andersom. De inschattingen van risico's zijn veel beter te maken bij een bestaand proces. Dat maakt
457 het evalueren wel lastiger.

458 En als ik daarop voortborduurt, zie je dat als je naar groene wei kijkt, die allemaal stappen,
459 onzekerheden, risico integraties of inschattingen vragen. Dan is een van de methode om dat terug wat
460 te schroeven is om bestaande technologieën in te zetten. Dus hoe wel je bij groene wei meer ruimte
461 hebt, vanuit 'je weet het risico toch niet, dus kun je net zo goed de nieuwste technologie inzetten', is
462 het toch vaak zo gedraaid naar 'doe toch maar die belovende conventionele, want dan weten we in
463 ieder geval goed dat het werkt.

464 *Dat komt inderdaad overeen met wat we vorige keer hebben besproken. Dat er ook bij groene wei*
465 *technologie nog hoog risicomijdend gedrag wordt vertoond.*

466 Ja precies. We kunnen wel gewoon stellen dat er in het algemeen bij het implementeren van
467 technologieën een hoog vermijdend gedrag aanwezig is. Eerlijk gezegd denk ik dat dit niet zo gek is.
468 Nieuwe technologieën komen er alleen maar in als ze heel duidelijk een groot voordeel leveren. Of,
469 en daar krijgen we steeds meer mee te maken, dat de randvoorwaarden aan het proces scherper
470 worden. Dus alle eisen ten aanzien van emissiereducties, die maken ook dat er meer naar
471 alternatieven worden gekeken.

472 *Dus dat zijn de omgevingsfactoren die een leidende rol gaan spelen.*

473 Ja klopt.

474 *Dat is ook interessant Vorige keer hebben we het gehad over wetgeving voor de farmaceutische*
475 *industrie. Ziet u nog verschil tussen de verhouding of kracht van wetgeving, of andere contextuele*
476 *factoren, voor een groene wei technologie of een bestaande technologie?*

477 Nee, niet echt. Een fabriek zet je altijd neer op een site, een industrie site, met een aparte vergunning.
478 Je kunt niet op een weiland een chemische fabriek neerzetten. Die vergunningen voor sites zijn altijd
479 gereguleerd en vastgelegd. Hier moet je voor zowel het nieuwe als het verbeter proces aan voldoen.
480 Hier zie ik dus niet direct een verschil in. Dit wordt een ander verhaal als je een plek hebt waar je
481 opereert, waar fabrieken staan, en dat dan de site permits stap voor stap strenger worden. Daar
482 hebben we hier in Geleen bijvoorbeeld wel mee te maken. Bijvoorbeeld voor de uitstoot naar het
483 water. Als dan op een gegeven moment de eisen scherper zijn geworden en de fabriek gaat gewoon
484 door, komt de overheid controleren en die geeft op dat het niet meer mag of kan. Vervolgens krijg je
485 een periode waarin een plan wordt geformuleerd en maatregelen getroffen worden om het aan te
486 passen. Dit duurt dan één of twee jaar. Dat is de gedoogperiode en dan moet de fabriek in orde zijn.
487 Dan is een strakkere eis aan de vergunning, maakt dat er op een gegeven moment een verandering in
488 je proces gedaan moet worden. Als je nu op een gegeven moment een groene wei aan het bouwen
489 bent, en tijdens deze fase zulke eisen gaan veranderen, ben je niet lekker bezig. Een bedrijf, ONS ook,
490 zal altijd voor een groot project gaat starten met de vergunninghouders en overheden wat de plannen
491 zijn komende jaren.

492 *Dat kan dus ook bepalend zijn in wat voor technologie er geïnvesteerd wordt?*

493 Ja dat zou kunnen ja.

494 *Oké. We hebben het net gehad over bedrijfscultuur en mindset van mensen wat effect kan hebben op*
495 *adoptie. We hebben het vorige keer ook gehad over communicatie tussen mensen, dat deze van belang*
496 *is. Is hier een groot verschil in tussen groene wei technologieën en verbeter processen?*

497 Ik denk het niet. Het zijn dezelfde project benaderingen die je doen. In grote lijnen heb je vergelijkbare
498 stappenplannen. Ik zie dus ook niet echt verschil tussen die twee.

499 *Een hypothese hierover is dat bij een verbeter proces je met stakeholders te maken hebt die*
500 *verandering juist niet graag zien, zoals de plant manager die niet persé positief tegenover verandering*
501 *staat, terwijl er bij groene wei processen die afhankelijkheid van huidige kennis en ervaringen is. Dit*
502 *zou een effect kunnen hebben op de communicatie.*

503 Als je het zo bedoeld lees ik hem even anders. Het communiceren an sich met dezelfde partijen alleen
504 de positie van die stakeholders kan verschillen. Een voorbeeld is dat van de plantmanager die iets wel
505 of niet wilt. Als de site leeg is en er wordt een nieuwe fabriek gebouwd en er wordt een nieuwe plant
506 manager aangesteld zal die het proces als zijn taak opvatten. Die gaat dan niet roepen dat hij bepaalde
507 dingen niet wil, maar dat is toch logisch? Hij heeft een nieuwe baan, dus zijn positie als plant manager
508 is vrij duidelijk gekoppeld met het starten van het nieuwe proces. Je kunt hem dan ook vrij makkelijk
509 mee krijg of te overtuigen. Bij bestaande systemen is dat duidelijk anders. De plant manager moet
510 gewoon zijn doelen halen zoals hij met zijn baas heeft afgesproken en dat is gewoon productie van
511 een bepaalde hoeveelheid en een bepaalde kwaliteit zonder ongevallen. Dan komt er een clubje langs
512 met een verbeter voorstel om een stuk technologie in te bouwen. Dat vindt die waarschijnlijk leuk en
513 aardig maar hij heeft wel betere dingen te doen.

514 *Dat heeft dan dus te maken met het uitlijnen van doelen?*

515 Ja dat heeft te maken met dat het verbeter traject moet ook zodanig procesverbetering
516 bewerkstelligen dat die plant manager daar iets interessants in ziet. Als je een beetje in het extreme
517 geval zegt dat een plant manager alleen maar denk aan 'geen ongevallen', dan weet je van tevoren
518 dat hij tegen elk project nee gaat zeggen.

519 *Duidelijk. Maar dit geldt dan zowel voor vervanging als groene wie.*

520 Bij groene wei is er niets tot dat het proces gebouwd gaat worden. Maar als je het niet bouwt heb je
521 het niet.

522 *Dat is dan een gegeven risico bij groene wei.*

523 Ja precies.

524 *Bedankt voor het interview.*

525 Ik denk dat als je met wat meer mensen praat, en dat je dezelfde vragen moet stellen. Dan krijg je
526 andere meningen en ervaringen. Ik snap dat het lastig is om deze conclusies op een rijtje te zetten.
527 Dat is natuurlijk ook de uitdaging. Als het heel makkelijk was, zou je niet gevraagd zijn het te doen.
528 Het is gewoon materie waar heel veel factoren te gelijke tijd doorheen lopen.

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1 Appendix XIV – Interview Company B transcript

2 Disclaimer:

3 De tekst is niet voor integrale publicatie waarbij het uit de context gehaald wordt van het onderzoek
4 naar belemmeringen in de innovatie.

5 Binnen de context van belemmeringen voor innovatie: Haal eruit waar je behoefte aan hebt.

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9 29 oktober 2019 tussen 09.00 en 11.00

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16 *Ik wou graag beginnen met de vraag of u zichzelf wilt voorstellen.*

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32 *Heel goed dank je. Kunt u wat vertellen over uw huidige taak?*

33 Waar ik het meest mee bezig ben, is het verder helpen van de ons bedrijf. Nu focus ik me vooral op
34 nieuwe ontwikkelingen en de strategie voor Het bedrijfe. Hoe we dit met elkaar rollend kunnen krijgen
35 en de input die R&D hierin kan plegen. Waar ik de eerste jaren heel erg gepusht heb met
36 technologische ontwikkeling, zien we dat, nu ons van de productielocaties verlangt dat ze
37 innovatietrek hebben, de push aan het omslaan is naar pull. Dat is een goede zaak omdat we aan het
38 einde van de push periode tegen een belemmering aanlopen dat de innovatie niet helemaal was wat
39 de fabrieken wilden waardoor er veel tijd en energie verloren ging. Nu is het andersom. Nu is het heel
40 erg wachten tot het bedrijf zo ver is, als business groep van ons, maar ik denk dat dit een goede
41 ontwikkeling is.

42 *Dat is dus ook een culturele omslag geweest binnen het MT van de fabrieken zelf?*

43 Ja, de betrokkenheid is groter en de taak die ze nu op innovatie hebben voelen ze ook zelf.

44 *Interessant, dank je wel. Ik zal even wat kort over mijzelf vertellen... Tijdens mijn HBO heb ik*
45 *meegedaan aan het talenten programma van het ISPT.*

46 DSTI/ISPT ken ik vanaf de beginfase. We zijn hier vanuit Ons ook actief in. Weliswaar niet met heel
47 veel geld maar wel met één ticket. We hebben daar ook ontwikkelingen gezien waarvan we zeggen,
48 eerst onderzoeken en kijken wat het waard is. Maar de volgende stap krijg je niet altijd
49 geïmplementeerd.

50 *Dit is dan ook 'technology push' met de haken en ogen waar u zelf tegenaan bent gelopen hier bij ons.*
51 *...*

52 Ik beschouw onszelf niet zoals chemische industrie. We zitten meer in de food sector. Alles wat met
53 food te maken heeft is water gedragen en het is relatief veilig. Natuurlijk zijn er hulpmiddelen die
54 gebruikt worden die niet veilig zijn maar dat is maar op een klein plekje. Verder loopt de organisatie
55 misschien net iets makkelijker als in de chemische industrie. Neemt niet weg dat wij als
56 voedingsmiddelenbedrijf zodanig groot zijn dat de vrijheden om te experimenteren in de fabriek niet
57 heel groot is. Het is niet zo dat de veiligheid bedingt dat je je precies aan de regels moet houden, maar
58 eerder het volume dat erdoor loopt omdat je het anders niet meer kunt handelen.

59 *En ook de toeleveranciers?*

60 Wij zijn een coöporatie van suikerbiet akkerbouwers, de bieten worden op de productie locaties
61 verwerkt. In dat tempo draait ook de logistiek, en draait alles op de akkers mee, de rooi machines. Dit
62 zet je niet even stop dus is er een eis om constant te draaien en voorspelbaar.

63 *Ik interview verschillende bedrijven voor mijn onderzoek.*

64 Ik ben ook heel nieuwsgierig wat voor informatie je uit de interviews haalt. Het kan interessant zijn
65 om te zien waar wij kunnen verbeteren en kunnen zien waar de adoptie soms stukt. Meestal kom je
66 er pas achter op het moment dat het niet loopt.

67 *Het is wel leuk om even te beginnen met de vraag wat Ons bedoelt met duurzame*
68 *procestechnologieën.*

69 In feiten begint duurzaam voor ons op de akker. Hier hebben we een mooie stap waar een bietenplant
70 in een jaar volgroeit. Dit, in het voorjaar geplante zaadje, is een kampioen in het omzetten van zonlicht
71 in biomassa. Dat is een behoorlijke hoeveelheid biomassa, vooral voor onze regio en klimaat.
72 Historisch halen we al 150 jaar suiker uit de bietenplant. Dit is steeds verder geoptimaliseerd. De pulp
73 is prima veevoer. Dit kun je ook prima inkuielen, het verzuurt en dan kun je het hele jaar uit die kuil
74 voeder geven. De fase waar we nu in zitten is kijken hoe we nog meer componenten uit die bietenplant
75 kunnen halen en een zo hoog mogelijke waarde in de Pyramide van Lansink geven. De laagste trede
76 kunnen we ook al inschieten, dat is de energie. De reststromen van het washuis en restanten pulp
77 worden vergist. Als we een reststroom kunnen vinden die relatief waardevol is kunnen we deze
78 redelijk snel implementeren omdat resten in energie geconverteerd kunnen worden. Deze route
79 bestaat en is heel erg op de biet gericht. Een ander onderdeel is het blad. Dit werd nog niet gebruikt.
80 In het blad zitten ook zeer interessante componenten. Een daarvan is eiwit. Aan dit deel van het eiwit
81 wordt gewerkt om het te winnen uit het blad en om te verkopen als eiwit. Je kunt het eiwit winnen
82 uit het blad en als je dat voldoende raffineert heb je een eiwitkwaliteit waarmee je kippenei-eiwit kunt
83 vervangen. Helaas is dat maar een klein percentage van het blad maar we hebben een grote stroom
84 blad dus dat is voorlopig nog niet uitgeput.

85 Er zit ca 70 duizend hectare bieten in de grond. Dat levert zo gemiddeld 70 ton biet per hectare
86 waarvan 17-18% suiker. Op eenzelfde hectare staat 25-30 ton bietenblad. Hiervan is 10% droge stof
87 en daarvan is een deel eiwit waarvan de helft Rubisco eiwit is wat goed is als structuur eiwit. Veel van
88 het bewerkte eten dat we kopen in de supermarkt heeft een of andere vorm van stabilisering wat
89 helpt om een schuim of emulsie goed te houden. Veel van de voedingsmiddelen die we kopen zijn
90 bewerkt en hier heeft kippenei-eiwit een belangrijke functie in. Hier kunnen wij straks een alternatief
91 voor aanbieden. Dit moet wel positief en economisch uitkijken. Dit is een traject waar een pilot voor
92 draait en waar een paar weken geleden een opening is geweest. Dit kwam niet vanzelf tot stand. Er
93 zijn een aantal mensen al een paar jaar actief met eiwit uit bietenblad.
94 De energie route is voorzien. De veevoer route is voorzien en er wordt gekeken naar een vezel
95 component die in de pulp zit. Deze kan gewonnen worden en is commercieel beschikbaar. In de pulp
96 vinden we een Betafib bieten vezel die heel goed is in stabiliseren van een vloeibaar product. Dat is
97 dan vanuit een natuurlijke grondstof. Die wordt op dit moment toegepast in wasmiddelen. Vloeibare
98 wasmiddelen zijn vaak ook een emulsie, en deze Betafib kan de emulsie stabiel houden om ervoor te
99 zorgen dat de kwaliteit van het wasmiddel aan het begin en het einde gelijk is. De thixotropie is zo
100 goed dat er met heel weinig product een schenkbaar wasmiddel mogelijk is dat zichzelf fixeert als je
101 de fles neer zet en dat terwijl de componenten blijven zweven.

102 Bij Sensus in Roosendaal wordt inuline gemaakt. Dit is een voedingsvezel die oplosbaar is, dus goed
103 voor de darmgezondheid. Uit de inuline en inuline reststromen kan met een methyl'ering een Carboxy
104 Methyl Inuline gemaakt worden wat een goed kalk binder is. Deze is op organische- duurzame
105 grondslag en wordt ook in de natuur afgebroken. Dit wordt al ruime tijd toegepast in afbreekbaar
106 wasmiddel zoals dat van Klok maar ook vaatwasmiddelen gebruiken dit product. Om toch de
107 kalkbinding eigenschappen te hebben zonder dat er zeolieten voor gebruikt worden. Dit zijn dingen
108 die lopen. Verder doen we nog meer maar dat zit nog onderhuids.

109 *Dat is ook wel een grote uitdaging en dit is ook een mooie locatie om dat alles samen te brengen.*

110 Ja zeker om samen te werken en om elkaar ruggensteun te geven. Het zijn allemaal producten die
111 zodanig klein beginnen dat het voor de bulk industrie totaal niet interessant is. Er moet ergens worden
112 begonnen met deze kiemen. Hiervoor is een andere omgeving nodig. Of dit die omgeving al helemaal
113 is weet ik niet zeker, want je ziet mensen stoeien en vechten om een product op de markt te krijgen,
114 dat is nog niet helemaal common practice. Wat je ook ziet als een product net groot genoeg wordt en
115 er ontstaat druk op een business groep om strategie te hebben, dat de ketens die iets commercieel
116 beginnen te lopen een plek vinden binnen de business groep. Dit was niet geweest als alleen vanuit
117 routine elk jaar iets verbeterd wordt.

118 *Is dat dan vaak vanuit noodzaak?*

119 Als er vanuit het hoofdkantoor om een strategie gevraagd wordt gaan de fabrieken om zich heen
120 kijken hoe ze dit kunnen bereiken. Dan is het gewoon adopteren van wat er al is. En ondertussen is
121 het aan R&D om verder te werken aan nieuwe richtingen. Hiervoor is relatief weinig budget. In feiten
122 moet het budget uit de business groepen komen. Het merendeel van het werk hier wordt betaald
123 door de business groepen in de vorm van concrete opdrachten. We hebben weinig vrije ruimte om
124 zelf iets te doen of budget om iets te investeren.

125 *Ben je hierdoor ook veel meer toegepast bezig?*

126 Ja, daardoor wordt het meer toegepast en voor grote vrijheden is het lobbyen voor er geld is.
127 Bijvoorbeeld voor het ISPT, dat heeft verschillende rondes geduurd voordat we in geld een halve ticket
128 bij elkaar hadden. Daarnaast moesten de uren die nodig zijn voor de andere helft van de ticket bij
129 business groepen ondergebracht worden. Dit is een heel pad en kost tijd. De businessgroepen moeten
130 zich eerst herkennen in de projecten die we willen doen.

131 *Dan begrijp ik ook dat u aangeeft dat we nog niet op de positie zijn waar we willen met het*
132 *innovatiecentrum. Is dit daar ook de hoofdreden voor?*

133 Ik denk dat we nog niet zijn wat we willen of zouden moeten zijn. In feiten is dat niet helemaal mijn
134 taak. Mijn focus ligt nu vooral op Het bedrijf en daarnaast ook op wat we binnen het ISPT doen. Hier
135 draaien we een interessant programma voor het verkrijgen van pull. We zijn dus als R&D afhankelijk
136 van wat Ons wil en wat de business groepen willen. Wat is goed of ideaal houd ik mezelf niet heel erg
137 mee bezig maar ik zie de belemmeringen om snel door te stappen.

138 Er is wel het verschil tussen een organisatie die met onderhoud en verbetering bezig is ten opzichte
139 van een organisatie die ook wel voor een deel bestaat uit R&D'ers (die het geweldig vinden om te
140 onderzoeken zonder daar een economisch belang in te zien). Wat we vroeger beperkt deden, en nu
141 beter, is het goed doorrekenen van een ontwikkel traject waar je je op gaat richten en wat het gaat
142 opleveren. We kijken in een vroeg stadium in de ontwikkelfunnel om te zien wat een project aan het
143 eind van de funnel kan opleveren.

144 Natuurlijk hebben we ruimte om ideeën te benoemen, het is ook stoeien met beoordelen van ideeën.
145 Er is gebruik te maken van de organisatie die er is. Het is wel nodig om er zelf door heen te gaan,
146 mensen te interesseren en financiering zien te vinden. De groep mensen die creatief zijn worden wel
147 belemmert om het zo ver te krijgen dat een idee handen en voeten krijgt en gaat lopen. Daar zit wel
148 een uitdaging.

149 *Aan de andere kant is natuurlijk dat er een R&D organisatie is die gedistantieerd van de fabriek is en*
150 *zijn eigen ding doet. Dat hierdoor de ideeën niet kunnen landen.*

151 Ja dan zit je aan het einde van het traject met problemen. Wat is nu het beste? Hoe krijg je het beide
152 goed gedaan. Aan de voorkant goed bedacht met de juiste stakeholders zodat je tot het einde van het
153 traject kan doorlopen. De tijd zal een hoop duidelijk maken. Frank van Noort, die je zojuist gezien hebt,
154 zit pas een paar maanden op deze functie. We kijken er naar uit, hoe we dit kunnen omarmen en
155 benutten om dingen op gang te krijgen. Het risico dat we zelfsturend zijn en daardoor dingen
156 opleveren waar niemand op zit te wachten hebben we mee gemaakt. Nu zien we het omgekeerde,
157 dat de business groep een traject schets waar niet alles in past. Hoe gaan we een molen vinden waar
158 alles in past.

159 *Wat u ook aangaf dat er een groot cultuurverschil is tussen wat binnen R&D wordt gedacht en de*
160 *denkwijzen bij de fabriek. Dit kan een grote uitdaging zijn voor innovatie creatie.*

161 Ja. Ik heb zelf ook geen oplossingen maar zie wel de belemmering.

162 *We zijn begonnen bij wat duurzaamheid was voor Ons.*

163 Ja goed om die vraag even terug te halen. We beginnen met een gewas die het goed doet in
164 duurzaamheid. Hoe handhaaf je die duurzaamheid die op het veld al te maken is door zo min mogelijk
165 energie te gebruiken om er uiteindelijk voeding van te maken. Primair is toch wel voeding. Al het
166 andere is een luxe die wij onszelf hebben aangemeten. Door het gebruik van fossiele brandstoffen is

167 de hoeveelheid luxe die wij onszelf hebben aangemeten enorm hoog geworden. Hoe we delen uit
168 planten omzetten in producten die ons voorzien in voeding en in een waarde daar bovenop.
169 Koolhydraten hebben we in het Westen genoeg, de meeste mensen consumeren zelfs te veel. Dit zie
170 je ook met vetten en eiwitten. Een trend is ook dat mensen veel meer eiwitten gaan eten dan nodig
171 is. Dat is absoluut niet duurzaam. Koolhydraten zijn behoorlijk duurzaam te verkrijgen. Dan is de vraag
172 hoe die duurzaamheid in de keten in stand blijft.

173 Dat vergt energiezuinige processen en een traject dat wij inmiddels als groep mensen ook zien. Dit
174 traject betreft de vraag hoe we niet alleen kunnen raffineren op zuiverheid maar ook op
175 duurzaamheid. Dan komt de vraag waarom we zo ver raffineren? Moeten de producten zo zuiver zijn
176 dat ze er mooi uit zien? Zoals we nu opereren streven we voor een chemische zuiverheid. Zeker voor
177 iemand die in R&D zit is meer zuiver vaak geassocieerd met beter. Bij voeding is dit echter niet het
178 geval. We roepen met elkaar dat we iets wit willen hebben, zoals bijvoorbeeld wit brood. Het resultaat
179 van de voeding is dat, omdat we allemaal zittende banen hebben, de stoelgang niet op orde is en er
180 meer vezels toegevoegd moeten worden in het eten. Als je tarwe verwerkt wordt eerst meel gemaakt,
181 dat is wit, en dan zijn er toch nog mensen die tarwe of volkorenbrood willen en dan worden de
182 zemelen toch weer teruggevoerd. Dan hadden deze er in eerste instantie niet uitgehaald hoeven
183 worden. Dit is een bewustwording die in sommige groepen begint te ontstaan. Ook de markt hoor ik
184 vragen om terug te gaan naar minder geraffineerd. Hoe kunnen we vanuit minder raffineren toch hele
185 goede producten maken. Dan zie je dat het spel complex is.

186 Als wij iets anders dan, bij het voorbeeld brood, wit meel willen verkopen. Dan moet je met de hele
187 keten tot aan de bakker in gesprek, hoe zou het zijn als we ander product gaan leveren. Kun je daar
188 mee overweg? Wat moet je dan nog leren? Is dat wat? Wat we ook in onze industrie zien, richting
189 duurzaamheid, is dat grondstoffen voor een groot deel uit water bestaan. Dat water wordt verdampt
190 om er een droog product van te maken. Dat vergt energie en dan kunnen we die energie wel zo goed
191 mogelijk inzetten, maar het valt op dat een klant een droog product koopt en het eerste wat de klant
192 doet is hier weer water bij mengen. Dan is de vraag hoe we het zo ver kunnen krijgen dat we met
193 elkaar duurzamer gaan produceren.

194 *Dat snap ik. Dan zou je grof gezegd gewoon een duurzamer product kunnen verkopen.*

195 Ja, dan stel je eisen stelt aan duurzaamheid en goede voeding dan komen hier andere oplossingen uit
196 omdat duurzaamheid nog nooit een eis is geweest. Dit principe geldt niet alleen voor plantaardige
197 landbouwproducten maar ook in de zuivelindustrie. Daar wordt veel gesproeidroogd. De
198 zuivelindustrie heeft het wat dat betreft wel anders. Wij beginnen met een plant waar veel
199 structuurdelen in aanwezig zijn. In de zuivel heb je dat niet. Ik denk dat je hier in de regio heel veel
200 gewassen kunt vinden waarvan je kunt afvragen of het wel noodzakelijk is dat je zo ver op het pad van
201 raffinage gaat. Dat is als je kijkt naar een bakker, die veel water bij een meel doet om brood van te
202 maken, al is tarwe relatief droog.

203 Dit is een mogelijk te bewandelen pad. Hoe kunnen wij de producten die de planten voortbrengen
204 vanaf het veld zo goed mogelijk beschikbaar maken voor voeding. De publieke opinie, in mijn ogen,
205 dient ook nog veel verder ontwikkeld te worden. Er zijn grondstoffen die in onze regio goed groeien
206 en deze moeten we gebruiken in onze eigen voeding. We zullen niet alleen spruitjes en kool willen
207 eten. We kunnen veel meer maken met onze bodem en omgeving. Daarom is het belangrijk dat we
208 kijken wat we nog meer kunnen maken zonder import.

209 *Dus dat betekent diversificatie van de biomassa die wij telen?*

210 Ja diversifiëren richting voeding en ander duurzame producten. En dan de omschakeling zien te vinden
211 naar puur biobased en op die manier de fossiele bronnen achter ons te laten. De olie-industrie heeft
212 de laatste eeuw gebruikt aan het vormen van raffinage en modificatie om allerlei producten te maken.
213 Hier begint de biobased wereld redelijk laat aan, in feite is er weer kennis nodig van de periode voor
214 de olie al zijn de behoeften sterk veranderd. Er zijn hedendaagse producten, hieraan is behoefte. Nu
215 is er tevens behoefte aan duurzaamheid, de huidige productie routes voorzien hier niet in.

216 *In dat opzicht denk ik dat er meer bewustwording is gekomen onder de consumenten. Of ze ervoor*
217 *willen betalen is een tweede vraag.*

218 Dat is een kwestie van tijd. Of de consument het wil betalen is een valide argument. Daar zit ook een
219 belemmering. Dat is ook met alles wat je kleinschalig begint. Nieuwe dingen kunnen niet grootschalig
220 tot stand komen. Kleinschalig kost meer geld dan grootschalig. In de industrialisatie is economie
221 drijfveer geweest, marge maken. In de economy of scale maak je vooral één product, een stroom die
222 je zo goed mogelijk doet. Geoptimaliseerd. Dit is een belemmering voor nieuwe activiteit. Een
223 industrietak kun je soms met meer duurzame raffinage ongeveer hetzelfde product laten maken maar
224 niet gelijk op diezelfde economy of scale schaal. Dit zie je ook als we met een nieuw proces komen. Je
225 moet vanaf moment één concurreren met een uitgemolken proces waarvan de afschrijvingen in feite
226 grotendeels gedaan zijn. Dat is een grote belemmering aangezien de verbetering in het proces zo veel
227 groter moet zijn om gelijk op dezelfde proces economie te draaien.

228 *Is dat omdat je dan concurreert tegen iemand die niet in jouw markt zat.*

229 Die iemand zijn gewoon de “buren”. Die zijn is er al. Dat is een grote belemmering. Dan zie je wel hoe
230 je naar mee duurzaam kunt maar je kunt het niet realiseren omdat we een reken economie hebben
231 die langs de lat ligt van niet duurzaam. De maatstaaf wordt gesteld door nu, niet duurzaam dus, en je
232 wilt duurzaam worden.

233 *Het is dus lastig om daarin te concurreren?*

234 Het is lastig, maar het vereist iets wat eigenlijk bijna niet mogelijk is. In mijn beleving, als je innovatie
235 echt wilt helpen, zet je Europa breed (met import belemmeringen op niet duurzaam) of wereldwijd
236 breed een prijs op uitstoot. Dan zet je echt in op innovatie omdat de duurzaamheid dan echt kan
237 concurreren met de afgeschreven middelen waarbij veel CO₂ ontstaat. Dat is een van de weinige
238 oplossingen om met de wereld een zwaai te maken.

239 De oude economie, van ik haal iets uit de bodem en laat de CO₂ vliegen want die zie ik niet, dat model
240 is voor mij wel afgedaan. De CO₂ wegstoppen voor volgende generaties is het ook niet.

241 *Vooraf in vergelijking met wat de biobased industrie heel erg doet, en dat is zo veel mogelijk uit het*
242 *product te halen.*

243 Ja, dus ik denk dat dat een enorme boost kan krijgen als we naar een CO₂ beprijsen gaan. Belangen
244 worden geregeerd door angst, de angst van landen of industrieën om iets te verliezen. Ik denk dat de
245 angst niet zo zeer bij de landen zit maar veel meer bij de industrieën en het risico op het verlies van
246 geld dat deze opbrengen. Industrieën hebben hele grote lobby groepen om het allemaal bij het oude
247 te houden. Deze lobby's zie je ook weer terug bij de wetgever. Dit is belemmerend voor duurzaamheid.

248 Je zou kunnen stellen dat wij bieten verwerken. Zoals het nu is houden wij mineralen over waar we
249 niet echt een plek voor hebben in onze producten. Deze mineralen horen eigenlijk terug op het veld
250 waar de bieten vandaan komen. Dit kan dus niet omdat de wetgeving zo niet is ingericht in Nederland.

251 Eigenlijk is deze veel te beperkend voor circulaire toepassingen. De ruimte die er in Nederland is voor
252 mineralen is toebedeeld aan de mensen die mest kwijt moeten. Mest ontstaat als rest product van
253 bijvoorbeeld de vleesindustrie. Hier zitten de reststromen van import gewassen bij. De vleesindustrie
254 heeft veel ruimte gepakt om hun mineralen van geïmporteerde gewassen op de Nederlandse bodem
255 kwijt te raken. Daar gaat het nu ook mis. We hebben veel te veel mineralen en op het moment dat er
256 mineralen zijn uit Nederlandse gewassen die in de processen vrijkomen of overblijven omdat er geen
257 toepassing is, ligt er de drempel van de mestmineralen. Eigenlijk zou je zeggen dat de kringloop is dat
258 wat er uit het gewas komt terug moet omdat het volgende gewas het nodig heeft om te groeien. Wij
259 maken geen mineralen bij.

260 Dan zie je nog iets anders. Planten hebben fosfaten nodig om te groeien, deze komen nu uit fosfaat
261 mijnen. Met deze fosfaat ertsen komen met zware metalen mee. Met mineraal gewonnen fosfaat
262 komen veel zware metalen mee. Zoals de eisen nu liggen, als plantaardige mineralen in een kringloop
263 terug gaan naar het zelfde stuk land als waar deze vandaan komen dan dienen wij de zware metalen
264 eruit te halen. Komt erop neer dat wij de eis krijgen om de bodem te zuiveren van de zware metalen
265 die er met fosfaat ertsen in zijn gekomen. Dat klopt niet. Hoe gaan we naar duurzaamheid. Dat is een
266 groot vraagstuk dat niet zonder eerlijke en onafhankelijke scheidsrechter is op te lossen. Planten
267 mineralen horen terug op de bodem voor de volgende planten generatie.

268 *Zijn jullie wel in staat om die zuivering te doen?*

269 Op het moment is daar niet in geïnvesteerd. Nu lopen er veel fosfaten in Nederland weg naar het
270 oppervlaktewater. Er wordt wel steeds meer gepoogd om het te binden. Dit moet dan ver weg
271 gebracht worden, Duitsland bijvoorbeeld waar wel een mineraal tekort is. Ook daar moeten we dan
272 concurreren tegen de mineralen uit de vlees keten. Dat klopt gewoon niet maar dat is historisch en
273 lobby technisch zo ingericht. Ik denk dat de politiek eens iets minder naar lobby moet luisteren en
274 meer naar duurzaamheid.

275 *Wat ook een lobby is natuurlijk.*

276 Ja dat is ook een lobby, deskundigheid om als onafhankelijke scheidsrechte te functioneren zit er maar
277 heel beperkt in de regering. Laat ik het positief stellen, de deskundigheid komt niet zichtbaar naar
278 buiten. De universiteiten leveren goed werk maar dat is niet in de maten waarin we technische
279 problemen aan willen pakken of komen ook niet door met hun visie.

280 *Oké eens, maar dat is even een andere discussie. Een tweede gedeelte van duurzaamheid is dus ook*
281 *economie en wetgeving. Dit is er nauw mee verbonden. Ook hebben we het over materialen gehad.*
282 *Zijn er nog andere aspecten van duurzaamheid waar Ons mee bezig is.*

283 Dit zijn wel de thema's. Hoe kunnen we vanuit duurzame plantengroei zo goed mogelijk voorzien in
284 duurzame producten en dit doen op een manier waar zo min mogelijk niet duurzame hulpmiddelen
285 voor nodig zijn. Deze hulpmiddelen worden nu ook al afgebouwd. Steeds minder energie. Er is een
286 hele goede track record voor de constante afname van energie gebruik in de suikerfabriek. Als je kijkt
287 naar 1990 is de CO₂ halveringsdoelstelling al lang gehaald door gewoon minder energie te gebruiken.

288 *Draagt het gas uit de bio vergister hier ook aan bij?*

289 Ja, dat methaan is ook een duurzame bron. Inmiddels rijden de suikerbieten wagens ook voor een deel
290 op een mengsel van eigen bio gas. Het bleek mogelijk om een diesel motor zo om te bouwen dat hij

291 grotendeels op biogas loopt. Het transport van suiker naar klanten loopt dus al deels op biogas. Op dit
292 vlak zal nog meer gebeuren.

293 *Oké duidelijk. De categorieën zoals ik ze heb gedefinieerd vallen in dezelfde orde grote van redentatie.*
294 *Materiaal stromen veranderen is er een, een trend naar bio based wordt hier vaak mee bedoeld maar*
295 *dat is hier een voor de hand liggende route aangezien jullie hier mee bezig zijn. Energie efficiëntie, wat*
296 *een warmtepomp kan zijn of het vervangen van een verdampers door een membraan installatie wat*
297 *een verminderd energie gebruik geeft. End of pipe, het afvangen van afvalgassen.*

298 Afvangen is een interessante. Voorkomen is echter vaak beter dan genezen. Maar dat vraagt vaak een
299 herontwerp en een langere visie. Voor energie hebben we een aparte groep. Er zijn veel energie
300 besparingsmogelijkheden zoals indampen met zo veel mogelijk trappen. We zijn in de loop der tijd van
301 5 naar 6, 7 en 8 trappen gegaan. Damprecompressie wordt steeds meer geïntroduceerd en er wordt
302 nagedacht over alle volgende stappen die er na komen. Dit maakt het productieproces complexer. Het
303 is het benutten van restwarmte waardoor ik zie dat fabrieken zodanig in elkaar geknoopt worden dat
304 ze nog minder flexibel worden. Zeker als er dan nog een keer een hele grote stap gemaakt moet
305 worden wordt dit nog moeilijker. Hier wordt volop aan gewerkt. In feiten zijn er nog wel ideeën hoe
306 je met minder hulpstoffen aan de slag kunt. Dit is echter dusdanig innovatie dat je niet gelijk op de
307 economy of scale aan de slag kunt. Ook in feiten gedane investering afschrijvingen niet meer benut.
308 Dit is altijd duurder nog, terwijl het stukken eenvoudiger kan zijn. Hiervoor moet je echt een heel goed
309 product hebben met misschien nieuwe eigenschappen om op zo'n route te komen. Het wordt ook een
310 groot deel bepaald door onze klanten.

311 Suiker zit in een lastige fase. De EU heeft suikerprijs garanties losgelaten. Een suikerprijs die door de
312 suikerindustrie zelf werd opgebracht maar door de EU werd gelabeld als subsidie. Dat was het
313 helemaal niet. In elk geval lag er een bodemprijs op suiker die is afgebouwd en nu openligt. In de EU
314 geldt nu de wereldmarktprijs. De wereldmarkt was eerst zo klein dat die prijs een reststoffen markt of
315 overschottenmarkt was. Daar zitten nu ook allerlei EU-producenten aan vast. Hierdoor is de prijs in
316 een tiental jaren prijs van 600EU voor de suiker richting de 300Eu geschoven. In feiten wordt de
317 industrie die met product uit groene grondstof werkt, gevraagd om nu voor de helft van de prijs
318 hetzelfde product te maken. Dat is globalisering, maar in hoeverre is dat zo. Er zijn nog steeds zeer
319 grote beschermde regio's die een interne suikerprijs hebben. Deze markten brengen hun overschotten
320 naar de markt waar de EU op opereert. De industrie in dat soort landen is niet altijd even duurzaam.
321 Denk ook aan de rietsuiker industrie die een stuk oerwoud kappen om meer suiker te maken. Zij
322 hebben niet dezelfde duurzaamheidsdoelstellingen. De rietsuiker industrie uit zuid Amerika maakt
323 heel veel bio ethanol. Die doelstelling van bio ethanol productie is niet gericht op duurzaamheid maar
324 op verminderde afhankelijkheid van fossiele olie. Die biobrandstof wordt dus ook niet gemaakt met
325 olie, maar met steenkool. Op basis van de energie van steenkool. Als je dan kijkt wat de uitstoot van
326 bio ethanol is, is deze nog steeds gelijk aan fossiele brandstof. Dat allemaal om het in te mengen en
327 minder afhankelijk te zijn, d VS wil minder afhankelijk zijn van het Midden Oosten. Die bio-ethanol
328 wordt helemaal niet met een duurzaamheidsdoelstelling gemaakt. Dat soort oerwoud kap enzovoorts,
329 proberen wij in Europa mee te concurreren, we drukken ze er niet uit maar zitten wel op hetzelfde
330 prijsniveau. Het is nog steeds duur, niet heel duur, om een scheepslading suiker deze kant op te
331 brengen. Dat is de concurrentie die er is.

332 *Je hebt die drempel nog voor je eigen markt, de transportkosten.*

333 Dat is de enige drempel maar voor scheepsladingen is dit bijzonder weinig. Het is meer dat een Brazilië
334 nog steeds moeite heeft om, als er ergens diep in het oerwoud een stuk wordt afgebrand en rietsuiker
335 wordt geteeld, de suiker naar de kust te krijgen. Er ligt wel een pijpleiding voor bio-ethanol maar niet
336 voor suiker. Snelwegen waar ook vrachtwagens gaan rijden worden in hoog tempo gebouwd. Dus wat
337 willen we? Is duurzaamheid concurreren met platgetreden oerwoud of is er misschien toch een
338 drempel voor niet duurzaamheid. Of een hulpmiddel.

339 *Om op die manier toch de markt een kans te geven om zich te ontwikkelen.*

340 Ja, geopolitiek. Daar hebben we vol op mee te maken maar weinig invloed op. Het zijn keuzes van de
341 EU en ik denk, waar landen zich verschuilen dat ze dingen niet kunnen omdat het niet strookt met de
342 EU, deze landen hun handen maar eens in een moeten slaan en de EU moeten gebruiken om maar
343 eens een paar punten te zetten. Wij zijn als suikerindustrie niet de grootste lobby's. Het grote geld
344 loopt langs de ander route, niet langs de duurzaamheidsroute. Dat is het dilemma van de tijd.

345 *Dit is duidelijk. Dit is de context waar je als grote industrie mee te maken hebt. Als grote industrie*
346 *opereer je op de internationale markt en dit is voor Ons een interessante. Als je een ander type product*
347 *gaat maken, zoals de eiwitten, zul je die waarschijnlijk lokaal aan klanten geven. Met deze klanten heb*
348 *je dan ook een andere relatie. Dit is dan ook een tweedeling in de markt die typisch is voor de*
349 *procesindustrie. Interessant dat u het benoemt want dat komt terug in de literatuur.*

350 *In verband met de tijd wil ik graag in gaan op specifieke technologieën die Ons heeft geadopteerd. Ik*
351 *ben dan speciaal benieuwd naar de redenatie achter het aanschaffen of juist laten lopen van de*
352 *technologieën. De reden is een ander verhaal als innovatie. Innovatie is het creëren van nieuwe*
353 *technologie terwijl deze vragen steeds meer gaan over het adopteren, implementeren en accepteren*
354 *van nieuwe technologieën. Zou je wat voorbeelden kunnen noemen van technologieën?*

355 In de energie is er een voorbeeld dat sowieso heel dicht op de fabriek ligt. Hier zie je de introductie
356 van damprecompressie. Dit gaat best wel met kleine stapjes en draait ook niet gelijk allemaal goed. In
357 de suiker productie zitten niet alleen continue processen. Er zitten ook batch operaties tussen en dan
358 moet het ook werken. Je hebt een variërende damp vraag en dus niet zo makkelijk. We kijken ook
359 naar membraam technologieën. De reden dat we die nog niet zo veel hebben is dat de ceramische
360 membranen pas de laatste paar jaren common sense zijn geworden. De kunststof membranen
361 hebben, als je met levensmiddelen en voedingsbodems voor bacteriën, waren de temperaturen waar
362 ze tegen kunnen veel te laag. Of je moet heel koud werken, waarin de membranen niet efficiënt zijn,
363 of je moet boven de 75 graden kunnen werken. Daar kunnen de kunststof membranen niet tegen. De
364 ceramische membranen komen nu op en ik zie kansen ontstaan dat die geïntroduceerd worden in
365 processen. Ze zijn al wel in processen maar heel beperkt. Ik zie al wel de processen aankomen waarin
366 dit veel meer gebruikt wordt. Deze zitten nu nog op pilot niveau. Dit gaat wel komen. Ook omdat
367 membraam techniek in het duurzame valt.

368 Verder zit de ontwikkeling in het vervangen van hulpmiddelen die hetzelfde bewerkstelligen maar van
369 zichzelf duurzaam zijn. Dit zit in het vervangen van de hulpmiddelen, niet zo zeer in het vervangen van
370 het proces. We zitten er met ons neus boven op dat er in het proces historisch restafval alleen maar
371 middels aerobe vergisting gezuiverd werd, is dat nu anaerobe geworden met methaan opbrengst.
372 Deze technologie is de verschillende fases door gegaan van kleinschalig naar grootschalig. Dit is al zo
373 common sense dat we het niet als nieuw zien. Dat kan ook wel eens lastig zijn dat het al zo standaard
374 is dat je het niet meer ziet als zijnde van een nieuwe ontwikkeling. Dat is zeker van de laatste twee

375 decennia. Dat was een grote stap. Nu richt de zoektocht zich op wat er nog meer kan. Dit is nog niet
376 geïntroduceerd.

377 Op product niveau: Carboxy Methyl Inuline (CMI) is wel in een fase dat het 10 jaar bestaat maar wil
378 ook niet echt naar heel grote schaal doorbreken. Dat is vooral commercieel. Nu betalen bedrijven nog
379 extra voor een duurzame grondstof. De niet duurzame alternatieven zijn goedkoper en wij kunnen het
380 niet goedkoper maken. Dat is markt gestuurd met de prijs en daardoor breken wij ook niet door.

381 *Zitten er speciale technologische ontwikkelingen achter de productie van CMI? De reactie zelf moet*
382 *plaats vinden. Wat voor technologieën zitten hier nog meer achter?*

383 Ja. Daar zit een reactor in, verwarming en koelsystemen. Daar zie ik niet zo veel ontwikkeling ontstaan
384 nu dat het anders kan.

385 *Is dat dan omdat het bij leveranciers van de plank komt?*

386 Nee dat is ontwikkeld binnen Ons R&D. Wat je wel ziet is dat als er een schaalgrootte slag komt, dat
387 er van batch naar meer continue productie gegaan kan worden. Dit is weer zo'n hurdle die vergt eerst
388 een investering waarvoor je een grote markt wilt hebben. Dat is eigenlijk een kip-ei situatie. Dit soort
389 producten worden allemaal op dezelfde wijze afgerekend in onze economie. Het moet kort cyclisch
390 geld op brengen. De ROI of interne rentevoet is binnen Ons relatief normaal. Dat vergt gewoon
391 terugverdiertijden van 3-4 jaar. Dat is de manier hoe er naar nieuwe processen wordt gekeken. Er zijn
392 meer duurzame processen mogelijk als die termijn gewoon langer is.

393 *Dat is ook een interessante observatie. Er wordt snel geroepen dat het zich moet terugverdienen in 3*
394 *jaar maar de fabriek moet wel 30 jaar staan.*

395 Je ziet ook technieken terugkomen met langere terugverdiertijden. Membraan technieken is er hier
396 een van. Die halen het economisch nog niet. Mag je dan verwachten dat de apparaten opeens
397 halveren in prijs? Misschien wel bij een hele grote schaal grote. Stel dat wij 10.000^e vierkante meters
398 membraan gaan bestellen wordt de prijs wel anders. Maar dan kan niet omdat wij nog in een
399 mechanisme zitten van korte terugverdiertijd. Dat komt er niet dus komt de bestelling er ook niet.

400 *Dan is de vraag of je zelf groot genoeg bent om de markt op de kop te zetten.*

401 Ja, membranen zijn nog geen commodity bij de toeleveranciers dus bij ons ook niet.

402 *Dan zou bijna met Pentair moeten bellen en vragen wat er met de prijs zou gebeuren als er zulke grote*
403 *hoeveelheden afgenomen worden.*

404 Ja zij zitten natuurlijk ook bij het ISPT. Kijk hier kennen we het fenomeen onderzoeks subsidies. Maar
405 subsidies alleen is een bijkomstigheid maar niet het middel waarbij je de slag maakt. Het helpt wel,
406 maar de basis moet er al zijn. Investering subsidies zijn er ook wel maar die zijn een stuk lager dan
407 ontwikkelsubsidies. Durf investeerders hebben we nodig.

408 *Oké. Hebben we nog andere technologieën, wellicht technologieën waar je zelf aan hebt meegewerkt.*

409 Ja zeker. Er is een technologie die heel interessant is maar die ga ik niet benoemen. Er leeft dus wel
410 het een en ander. Als het gaat om bioconversie, daar zijn wij niet de grootste deskundige in. Die
411 deskundigheid zit meer bij andere bedrijven. Hiervoor zoeken wij dus ook naar andere bedrijven die
412 met suiker als grondstof of een product uit de suikerbiet of andere gewassen van Ons aan de slag
413 willen om producten mee te maken.'

414 *Meer biotechnologisch, en het werken met micro-organisme bedoel je dan?*

415 Ja maar dat is niet ons vak. We hebben wel wat deskundige in huis maar daarmee ben je nog niet de
416 industrie. Die rol zoeken wij ook niet. We zoeken wel in de rol van de grondstof leverancier en een
417 klein stukje op dat pad, als de raffinage veranderd kan worden. Maar wij richten ons op wat wij
418 moeten raffineren zodat onze klanten de conversie slag kunnen maken. Daar wordt naar gezocht, als
419 samenwerking. Alles wat daarin zit, de reactorkunde, daar doen wij niets mee. Om zoiets aan te kopen
420 is ook een mogelijkheid, dan ben je al zo ver op een pad en kost zo'n kapitaal, dat zie ik ons niet doen.

421 *Of er moet opeens een bak geld vrijkomen misschien. Wat ook een interessante casus draait om de*
422 *werkzaamheden binnen het bouwteam van Sensus. Wat heeft u van deze ontwikkelingen*
423 *meegekregen?*

424 *Wat voor technologie hoort bij dit voorbeeld?*

425 Daar horen technologieën bij die veel meer te doen hebben met creativiteit. De vernieuwing zal ook
426 ontstaan door dat ketens heel anders ingericht zijn. Niet binnen de huidige structuur. Je ziet op een
427 aantal plaatsen zie je de chemische industrie, voedingsindustrie, het woordje industrie betekend al
428 dat je het heel erg los hebt gemaakt van de omgeving. Ik geloof dat het decentrale, in de toekomst,
429 veel meer ontwikkelkracht zal hebben om naar vernieuwing te komen. Kleinschalig, mensen die elkaar
430 weten te vinden, product precies afstemmen op het minimale wat nodig is. Dan krijg je het duurzame
431 omdat de producten zijn afgestemd op de klanten in de omgeving en directe communicatie. Dat de
432 specificatie niet meer gezet wordt in de vorm dat het wereldwijd dezelfde specificatie moet zijn. Op
433 lokale plantengroei gericht. Wat groeit hier en wat gaan we er mee doen? Dat zal veel meer flexibiliteit
434 opleveren waarin wordt gekeken naar niet een oplossing maar naar veel meer oplossingen. De maatlat
435 is nog steeds dat we gaan zoeken naar iets dat overal geldt en universeel toepasbaar is. Dat gaat niet
436 zorgen voor de goedkoopste of meest duurzame manier. Ook dat, en specifiek membraan systemen
437 dat zal terugkomen, maar ook minder raffineren, niet meer raffineren dan dat strikt noodzakelijk is.
438 En misschien wel raffineren langs scheidingsprincipes die het product fit for use maken en een stroom
439 die daarnaast ontstaat geschikt houdt voor gebruik. Dat is de nieuwe vorm van raffinage. De nieuwe
440 vorm heeft behoefte aan veel scheidingstechnieken die terug in die basis zitten terug bij de grondstof
441 maar niet dusdanig scheiden dat de structuur zodanig al vernietigd wordt dat je daarna alleen met
442 repareren bezig bent. De scheidingstechnieken zoek je niet meer op het repareren. Is hier een model
443 voor te benoemen?

444 *Misschien een expliciet voorbeeld?*

445 Ja maar ik wil niet te veel in de details zitten. De kunst zit in het voorkomen van scheidingstechnieken
446 waarbij je aan de voorkant al dusdanig de plantengrondstof verkleind dater een soort oersoep
447 ontstaat waar elk component uitgevist dient te worden. Als je kijk naar planten, die bestaan uit zo'n
448 200 componenten die we kunnen ontdekken als voorbeeld, zijn we historisch op zoek geweest naar 1
449 component uit die plant en daarvoor sloegen we alles kapot om die ene component eruit te halen.
450 Want die was waardevol. Duurzaamheid betekent dat je alle componenten een plek geeft, misschien
451 niet op zoek gaat naar die ene component maar een samenstelling van componenten die heel goed
452 functioneel zijn. Dat is dan de conversie slag waar iedereen in zou moeten zitten. We zoeken niet meer
453 naar chemisch zuiver maar zoeken naar functioneel. En gaan daar een scheidingsprincipe op
454 inbouwen. Op zoek naar het scheidingsprincipe dat de functionaliteit overeind laat. Daar zit het
455 ontwikkelpunt.

456 *Je kunt niet een biet door een membraan heen duwen bedoelt u?*

457 Ja en dan, welk scheidingsprincipe of raffinage principe werken zodanig dat ze min of meer als ‘pel de
458 ui’ kunnen werken. Laagje voor laagje zo goed mogelijk uit elkaar halen zodat je functionaliteit
459 overeind laat. We zijn nog veel te veel met elkaar chemisch gedreven. Niet functioneel gedreven. Als
460 we die slag kunnen maken, hier zijn ook hulpmiddelen voor als ‘product driven proces synthesis’. Dat
461 is ook iets dat binnen Unilever en TU Eindhoven al een slag qua ontwikkeling heeft gehad. Nu zeggen
462 we vaak aan de voorkant dat iets chemisch zuiver moet zijn. Nee, ga eerst met je halffabricaat naar de
463 achterkant, de toepassing, kijk hoe goed het functioneert, kijk of er storende elementen in zitten. Zo
464 niet, is het product gelijk goed. Kun je het product verbeteren doe je dit met iteratie slagen. Dan ga je
465 met een hele andere drijfveer opzoek naar principes omdat je de functionaliteit wil bewaren.

466 Hier zijn al wat voorbeelden van te noemen. In de sojaolie winning bijvoorbeeld. Klassiek is persen. De
467 olie uit de sojaboon persen. Toen kwam er een verbeteringstap om de olie ook uit pulp te winnen met
468 hexaan, gericht op het oplossen. Dit is een dure oplossing omdat je van dat hexaan af wilt omdat het
469 giftig is. Daarvoor is een destillatie kolom nodig. Dit verg energie om de olie te winnen. Warmte en
470 pers energie om een deel van de olie te winnen. Het blijkt bijvoorbeeld mogelijk om de olie in een
471 waterachtige slurry te winnen. Door de boon op een slimme manier open te maken, niet gelijk door
472 het mechanisch kapot te slaan maar heel erg gericht op behoud van olie druppeltjes. Dan is het
473 mogelijk om een olie suspensie te maken die geëmulgeerd is door de natuurlijke emulgator in soja.
474 Die suspensie laat zich direct toepassen in mayonaises en margarines zonder dat je eerst de
475 componenten uit elkaar gehaald hebt. Dus heel erg terug naar de basis. Wat zijn de functionaliteiten.
476 Hoe ga je de plant dan openen en vervolgens raffineren. Dat principe, dit nieuwe kijken naar hoe we
477 met onze grondstoffen omgaan, is essentieel voor doorbraken. Daar proberen we een stap in te
478 zetten. Dat doe je niet als enige producent, dat moet je met je klanten doen. Hier gaat ook weer een
479 ISPT-project op lopen. Dat is gestart en hierop gericht. Ik denk dat dat een hele belangrijke is. Ik
480 definieer dus niet zo zeer wat de nieuwe scheidingstechnieken zijn maar meer wat is de nieuwe
481 kijkhorizon zodat een slag richting duurzaamheid is te maken. Dan zullen alle hulpmiddelen die we
482 hebben, scheidingstechnieken en ook in separeer technieken belangrijk zijn.

483 *Hou zou je separeer technieken kunnen differentiëren van scheidingstechnieken?*

484 Kijk scheidingstechnieken zit vaak op het moleculaire niveau. Vaak uit het idee dat je een soep hebt
485 gemaakt waar je een component uit wilt winnen. Dat betekent dat als je 200 componenten in je
486 grondstof hebt zitten dat je 200 scheidingen moet optimaliseren, dat gaat hem nooit worden. Dan ga
487 je één twee of drie scheidingstechnieken ontwikkelen en de rest zijn reststromen, bijproduct of afval,
488 hoe je het ook wilt noemen. Het zal anders gaan. Hoe ga je een functionaliteit vinden. Daar
489 daardoorheen komen is in de volgende fase voor de industrie. We proberen op dat pad scheden te
490 zetten. Het zou mooi zijn als meer partijen daarop aan weten te haken.

491 *Dat is een interessante filosofie. ‘Mild fractination’ is volgens mij de term die binnen ISPT is gebruikt*
492 *voor deze ontwikkeling. Ik snap dat u niet verder in detail wilt treden omdat het te gevoelig is. Dat is*
493 *uw goed recht en goed dat u die grens duidelijk geeft. In dat opzicht wil ik een stapje terug doen naar*
494 *technieken waar we in meer detail over kunnen praten. Zou u per genoemde technologie kunnen*
495 *aangeven wat de drijvende krachten waren, welke obstakels de technologie heeft overwonnen of juist*
496 *niet heeft overwonnen? Als er technologieën zijn die het niet gehaald hebben of niet zijn*
497 *geïmplementeerd als verwacht is dit ook interessant.*

498 Het lastige is dat als ik ze benoem het veel zegt over waar we mee bezig zijn. Dit willen we niet
499 helemaal opengooien. De reden dat het er nog niet is, is het dilemma van schaal grote. Dat we nieuwe
500 investeringen moet doen terwijl de afgeschreven investeringen hetzelfde verrichten maar niet zo
501 goed. Een nieuw hoofdstuk is wel eiwitten. In eiwitten, en zeker functionele eiwitten, wil je geen
502 warmte benutten. Er zijn technieken om daarin verder te werken maar deze worden nog niet volop
503 toegepast omdat het heel specifiek is voor onze industrie.

504 *Is het een idee om de genoemde technologieën af te gaan. Als U dan niet in detail kan treden kunt u*
505 *dat duidelijk aangeven.*

506 Dat is goed. Membraam techniek in het algemeen zal verder komen. Zeker omdat de temperatuur
507 bestendigheid nu goed is. Kristallisatie technieken zullen verder ontwikkelen. In feiten zijn er maar
508 een paar principes. Door water weg te halen of van hoog oplosbaar naar laag oplosbaar te gaan en
509 andere richtingen. Dat ontwikkelt zich verder. De oplosbaarheid van suiker is gewoon een gegeven.

510 *Wat is dan een techniek geweest die hier belangrijk is geweest?*

511 Warmtetechniek. Dus mechanische damp compressie en 'multi stage evaporation'. In dat opzicht is
512 de industrie 150 jaar lang geoptimaliseerd maar niet zwaar veranderd. Ja een verandering is dat alles
513 nu continue is. Diffusie systemen enz. zijn ook heel klassiek. De nieuwe producten maken wel gebruik
514 van centrifuge technieken. Centrifugaal krachten worden steeds meer gebruikt in nieuwe technieken.
515 Dat was in de oude stijl ook niet. Daar zijn wel gewoon kant en klare apparaten voor te koop. Dan zie
516 je ook wel bepaalde dilemma's. Tot een bepaalde schaal grote werkt dat en daarna moet je maar
517 steeds meer apparaten naast elkaar zetten. Daar is niet zo veel nieuws aan. Het helpt wel in de
518 ontwikkelingen, dat het kan. Homogeniseer technieken zijn belangrijk. Die zijn er ook wel. Dan hebben
519 we wel ook te maken met zand componenten. We beginnen vanuit een grondstof die nooit zand vrij
520 gaat zijn. Zand roept veel slijtage op. Hydrocyclonen worden steeds meer ingezet om zand af te
521 scheiden. Dat is heel basic maar wel essentieel om slijtage te voorkomen maar ook hulpmiddelen in
522 het toepassen van andere centrifuge techniek. Vergisting is al benoemd. Anaerobe methaanreactoren.

523 Een ander stuk waarnaar gekeken wordt is integratie met andere bedrijfsprocessen. Er is hier een heel
524 kassencomplex aan het ontstaan. Ook hier zijn integratiemogelijkheden in de vorm van benutting van
525 restwater. Met het verwerken van suikerbieten hebben wij een groot water overschot. In feiten kan
526 dat op het niveau van condensaat kwaliteit liggen. Dit is geschikt als gietwater voor kassen. Er wordt
527 ook aan gewerkt om steeds meer gietwater beschikbaar te hebben voor kassen vanuit onze
528 reststromen. Een andere reststroom is, die is niet zo groot, is dat kassen vaak een keer per jaar nieuwe
529 planten zetten. De oude gaan eruit, hier komen veel plantenvezels en resten bij vrij. Die mogen wij nu
530 niet verwerken in onze vergister omdat de afvalstoffen wet zo in elkaar zit. Wij zijn geen
531 afvalverwerker, wettelijk mag dit niet.

532 Het verwerken van bietenblad tot eiwit is ook iets dat volop begint te lopen. Daarbij ontstaat ook een
533 plantaardige vezel fractie. Die zou je in feiten ook in de vergister willen invoeren. Dit mag nu niet in
534 de vergister omdat deze van een ander terrein komt, weer een wettelijke limitatie.
535 Dus elke keer als er regionaal iets wordt gemaakt dient de hele restverwerking op hetzelfde terrein te
536 zitten

537 Op het moment dat het winningsproces van eiwitten uit blad goed loopt krijg je dat die andere
538 stromen ook een plek moeten vinden. Als dat niet lukt, kun je het ook omdraaien, kun je ook geen

539 eiwit winnen. Hopelijk kunnen we nog meer componenten winnen uit blad, want er zitten ook vezels
540 in.

541 *Zou je dan meer samenwerking willen pleiten tussen in de waardeketen?*

542 Samenwerking in ketens, inderdaad, en in hoeverre worden onze belangen geholpen met het richten
543 op scheidingstechnieken van de downstream processing. Wij moeten de upstream regelen.

544 *En dat komt ook weer terug bij de 'mild fractination' filosofie.*

545 Ja. Dus ik denk dat we in de goede richting zitten maar het hoe is nog niet voldoende beantwoord.

546 *We hebben best een hoop technologieën benoemd. Ik wil vast een stukje inzicht geven op het werk dat*
547 *ik ga doen op academisch niveau. Ik probeer verschillende assen te vinden waarop de adoptiecriteria*
548 *kunnen wisselen. Hiervoor wil ik u stimuleren om vrij te denken en ga ik nu mijn vraag al stellen. Welke*
549 *van de technologieën die we vandaag besproken hebben liggen ver uit elkaar. Anders gezegd, welke*
550 *adoptie criteria zou u uit uw persoonlijke ervaring kunnen bedenken die bepalend zijn.*

551 Niet op scheidingstechnieken maar het werk aan functionaliteit. Niet meer aan chemische
552 monocomponenten. Daar zit in feiten de omslag richting bio raffinage.

553 *Wat voor effect heeft dat dan? Meer of minder focus of functionaliteit?*

554 Het effect is dat er een meer volwaardig gebruik van grondstoffen komt en niet vernietigen wat de
555 natuur al heeft aangelegd. We zullen dan ook leren om de planten dan zodanig te benutten in hun
556 functionaliteit. Hout is ook een prima voorbeeld. Hout kun je gebruiken voor structuur, bouwen en je
557 kunt er meer mee doen. Maar de structuur en bouwen zal altijd wel blijven. Verbranden is het laatste.
558 Ik denk dat daar de kennis omslag gaat zitten die echt iets brengt.

559 *Wat voor invloed zou dat hebben op de fabriek zelf. U zit hier met besluitvorming welke technologieën*
560 *wel of niet binnen een fabriek gebruikt gaan worden. Hoe beïnvloedt dit criteria of een technologie wel*
561 *of niet geadopteerd wordt? Heeft dit dan te maken met technische factoren?*

562 Nee. Een hele belangrijke factor is keten en acceptatie. In feiten het product ontwikkelen in een keten.
563 Ketens voor elkaar zien te krijgen waar ook de eindgebruiker zit. En van daaruit af landen hoe je dat
564 product gaat maken. Het is dus niet meer een soort push forward, maar heel erg samenwerken in de
565 keten om tot de definitie van de functionaliteit te komen waar de toepassing voor is. In de toepassing
566 en daarnaartoe ontwikkelen.

567 *Is deze filosofie toepasbaar voor zowel de suiker en de eiwitten die uit de bladeren komen?*

568 Ja. Ook daar zal gelden dat als je minder hoeft te zuiveren omdat je naar functionele eigenschappen
569 kijkt. Veel van de producten zijn een verrijking voor gezondheid. Laat ze gewoon zitten. Dat kan als de
570 hele keten zo ver komt in de ontwikkeling dat er niet meer gevraagd wordt om chemisch zuiver
571 bijvoorbeeld.

572 *Dat ook producten aan de hand van consumenten contact wordt geproduceerd?*

573 Ja met de eindgebruiker en degene die de grondstof verwerkt tot een product dat in een winkelschap
574 komt te liggen. Dan krijg je daar een hele boel energie-efficiency omdat je niet meer iets gaat maken
575 dat in feiten een aantal stappen te ver is in zuiverheid. In het maken van al die zuiverheden worden

576 er ook resten geproduceerd die verloren gaan. We creëren met het maken van zuiverheid reststromen
577 die veel energie hebben gekost en wat niet had gehoeven.

578 *Wat uiteindelijk allemaal weg gaat.*

579 Het makkelijkste is, ga weer gewoon terug naar volkoren en puur plantaardig. Het klinkt heel raar en
580 voor veel mensen heel bijzonder, maar terug naar de natuur. Maar dan wel, want we willen zekere
581 luxe van levensstijl, maar dan heb je wel conversie nodig. En dan niet conversie zoals in de chemische
582 zin, maar een verandering in hoe we als industrie met elkaar werken. In deze samenwerking zal er veel
583 verlangd worden van een inkoper. De inkoper is nu gewend om alles één op één te kunnen gebruiken
584 omdat hij wit inkoopt. In deze nieuwe situatie gaat dit door de hele keten heen. Afhankelijk waar je
585 wat besteld, heeft een product een bepaalde eigenschap.

586 *Zijn er nog andere onderwerpen die u wilde aankaarten?*

587 Ja zeker. Bedrijfscultuur heb ik al genoemd. Het vernieuwen verdraagt zich niet met een optimalisatie
588 bedrijfscultuur. Mensen die puur met hun grootschalige fabriek bezig zijn met optimalisatie en
589 vlekkeloos laten verlopen daarvan lukt het niet om oor te hebben voor innovaties, want dat is alleen
590 maar risico. Daar zullen we mee moeten leren omgaan. Het is een ander type mens en die kun je niet
591 zomaar van rol laten verwisselen. Misschien ook wel weer een stukje terug met agrarisch ten opzichte
592 van industrieel. Agrarisch weet veel problemen op te lossen, mits ze maar de goede uitdagingen
593 hebben. Nu worden akkerbouwers en veetelers over één kam geschoren. Ze moeten product leveren
594 tegen de laagste prijs en moet daar ook precies daaraan voldoen. Ze worden als industrie behandeld.
595 Puur economisch. Niet aan hun bijdrage aan de omgeving en wat ze daarin betekenen. Ik denk dat
596 daar ook nog het nodige moet gebeuren. De drijfveer van alleen geld gaat het niet zijn, dat is gericht
597 op korte duur. Daar moet nog iets bij en dat is duurzaamheid. Of je moet het duurzaamheid
598 economisch verwarden, maar dat gaat niet zo hard. Dus hoe keren we dingen om? Ik heb daar niet
599 een antwoord op. Dat vergt verandering bij iedereen.

600 *Zijn er nog andere factoren, allicht heel algemeen of voor de hang liggend, wat bepalend is voor*
601 *adoptie binnen een fabriek? Het laaghangende fruit.*

602 Het laaghangende fruit is vaak al weg.

603 *Ja precies. Maar wellicht niet zo zeer de technologieën zelf, maar de reden waarom je die*
604 *technologieën kiest. Bijvoorbeeld ik kies een warmtepomp want het is energiezuiniger.*

605 Energie gebruik is al een belangrijk argument om naar verandering te kijken. Er zijn redelijk wat
606 technieken om energie te reduceren. Ook de lange termijn horizon is daarbij heel belangrijk want een
607 investering die nu gedaan wordt heeft een afschrijf termijn. Binnen die afschrijf termijn gebeurt er
608 niet veel en als er iets nieuws moet komen introduceer je een nieuwe afschrijving. Dan moet de
609 technologie zo veel beter zijn, voor grote apparaten een hele lastige. Voor technieken die in de fabriek
610 worden toegepast is modelvorming een hele belangrijke die wordt toegepast. Alle ontwikkelingen,
611 alle grote componenten van de suikerfabriek bijvoorbeeld, worden vooraf gemodelleerd in het hele
612 samenspel van de fabriek. Daar komen ook niet meer de nieuwe dingen vandaan. Daarmee kan wel
613 heel goed gezien worden wat het rendement van een nieuwe investering kan zijn. Het zijn geen
614 losstaande apparaten, het is een organisch samenwerkend geheel waarbij alles, alles beïnvloed. Dat
615 is veel meer dan een persoon kan overzien.

616 *Misschien is dat wel een mooie plaats voor de komst van AI. Als we toch maar even inhaken op de*
617 *clusters van het ISPT.*

618 Ja, ja. Zeker waar.

619 *Dank voor de tijd.*

620

1 Appendix XV – Interview Company C transcript

2 De fabriek behuist verschillende processen. De fabriek heeft een verzeeping stap en een scheiding op
3 basis van Chromatografie. Deze laatste technologie was, in de jaren 80 toen het werd neergezet, zeer
4 revolutionair. Het principe was bekend maar de schaal en toepassing was niet eerder voor gekomen.
5 Het opstarten van zo'n nieuw proces is een teken van de risico zoekend gedrag als ondernemer. Verder
6 had de keuze om deze technologie te implementeren te maken met de alternatieve technologieën die
7 beschikbaar waren. Er zijn de wel bekende unit operations, waar veel ontwikkeling voor is gedaan en
8 data beschikbaar is. Als dit allemaal niet geschikt is voor het proces, moet er worden gekeken naar
9 een nieuwe technologie.

10 De opschaling van lab schaal batch chromatografie naar continue productie op grote schaal is uniek.
11 In de farmaceutische industrie wordt chromatografie ook wel gebruikt, maar dan als laatste
12 scheidingsmethode, met lange leidingen en onder hoge druk. Dat het opschalen en implementeren
13 niet eenvoudig is, valt te herleiden uit het feit dat het opstarten een jaar heeft geduurd. Zelfs met 7
14 jaar voorontwikkeling bleek dat er veel kinderziektes in de technologie zat. Een jaar lang niet draaien
15 met deze investering was een risico. Gelukkig had het grote bedrijf dat achter ons stond diep genoeg
16 zakken om dit experiment te betalen.

17 Een andere technologie die ontwikkeld is, was een extractie. De stof had een brede toepassing, zowel
18 als medicijn als in videoband technologie. De huisartsen in Italië schreven het voor bij allerlei klachten.
19 Hierdoor was Italië een grote markt. De eerste fabriek was in verhouding een pilot installatie van 80
20 ton per jaar. De nieuwe fabriek had een capaciteit van 500 ton per jaar. Voor het drogen van de
21 granulen, die in aceton zijn geprecipiteerd, hebben we een nieuw fluid bed droog proces ontwikkeld.
22 Fluid bed is niet nieuws, maar door onder 40 mbar te opereren werd het aceton als drager gebruikt.
23 Ook deze operatie heeft een jaar nodig gehad om stabiel product op te leveren. Dit is een risico dat je
24 neemt ondanks dat het op het lab al lijkt te werken. Wil je snel van start gaan met je project gebruik
25 je de traditionele methode met lucht. Echter was de nieuw ontwikkelde methode veel energie
26 efficiënter. Dit geldt ook voor de moederlogen, die worden gedroogd met mechanische damp
27 compressie. Hier wordt ook gebruik gemaakt van droging door het eigen product, aceton in dit geval.
28 Er was echter geen roots compressor beschikbaar die mechanical seals had die tegen aceton konden.
29 De ontwikkeling van deze seals was ook een langdurig proces. Of deze seals zouden werken was ook
30 een vraag, eentje die erg belangrijk is aangezien er geen aceton dampen in de lucht moeten komen.
31 Dit was een grote uitdaging, niet vanwege de, relatief simpele, techniek.

32 Naast deze grote schaal is hier ook kleine schaal productie. Dit is lab schaal werk met relatief weinig
33 techniek. Hier gebeurt kristallisatie in glazen kofjes die in een koelkast worden gezet voor een nacht
34 waarna er kristallen zijn ontstaan. Door het gebrek aan reactor vat standaardisatie, roerwerken,
35 controleerbaar koelwerk en enten is dit proces slecht te sturen. Het proces gaat op zijn
36 'ontwikkelingen methode' in plaats van een robuust proces.

37 *Merk je dan ook veel kwaliteit schommelingen bij dit proces?*

38 Ja, en je hebt ook eigenlijk geen benul wat je aan het maken bent want je ontkomt er niet aan dat
39 sommige kristallen een amorf structuur hebben. Deze kristallen hebben een andere structuur en
40 fysische eigenschappen. Deze eigenschappen maakt dat het kristal makkelijker op te lossen is, waar
41 de formuleerde blij mee is. Echter verliest het kristal stabiliteit en houdbaarheid door het gebrek aan
42 een kristal structuur. Hier is ook een balans die gemaakt moet worden tussen houdbaarheid en
43 gebruiksgemak. Door het gebrek aan controle is hier echter weinig in te kiezen. Verder is het proces

44 GMP, wat betekend dat er veel vast ligt. Dit houdt in dat, als een nieuwe technologie wordt
45 geïntroduceerd, er veel validatie testen moeten gebeuren. Deze testen moeten niet alleen intern,
46 maar ook bij de klanten gebeuren. Hierdoor worden ook zij met extra werk en kosten opgezadeld.
47 Hierdoor moet het voordeel erg groot zijn voor zowel de producent als de klanten. Omdat het nu ook
48 goed gaat, is het lastig om een nieuwe technologie te introduceren.

49 *Is dit dan ook waarom jullie zeggen dat er weinig gebeurt. Het geen dat jullie zo frustriert aan het*
50 *gebrek aan technologie?*

51 Ja, er is ook een redelijk behouden attitude vanuit de werknemers in de lab schaal productie. Mede
52 hierdoor is het lastig om af te wijken van het bekende proces. In de cholesterol fabriek is er meer
53 vrijheid. Maar hier wordt ook al sinds de jaren 80 gedraaid met dezelfde technologie. Er wordt nu
54 gekeken om organisch oplosmiddel vrij te werken, een lastige omslag. Het huidige proces gebruikt een
55 grote hoeveelheid oplosmiddelen. Deze verandering heeft grote voordelen. Voor de buurt is voordeel
56 dat er minder overlast en risico is. Het is echter wel een risico of de fabriek wel gaat draaien, of de
57 fabriek stil ligt en het kost een hoop geld om een nieuwe fabriek te bouwen.

58 Opschalen van processen is ook niet altijd eenvoudig. Wij hebben een bestraling proces, het bestralen
59 van een tussenproduct met UV licht. Decennia terug is dit proces begonnen als een spin of van Phillips.
60 Dit proces vind plaats in glazen reactoren waar een lamp midden in staat. Door de glazen buizen wordt
61 een film laag continue bestraald. De lamp was ongeveer 60 cm hoog, een klein formaat voor grote
62 schaal productie. Tijdens het opschalen zijn deze lampen vergroot naar 120 cm. Met de lamp groeide
63 ook weglengte, wat resulteerde in een verlengde verblijftijd. De doorvoer snelheid kon niet simpel
64 worden teruggeschroefd doordat de glazen reactoren niet in staat zijn om een verhoogde druk te
65 accommoderen. Verder werd de filmdikte een uitdaging. De verwachting was ook dat, wanneer de
66 filmdikte gelijk gehouden werd, het zelfde stromingspatroon zou optreden. Echter bleek dat het
67 Reynolds getal geen effect meer had op deze lengte. Het opschalen van bestaande technologieën
68 heeft dus ook zeker uitdagingen.

69 De concurrentie had dezelfde opschaal behoefte. Zij hebben er uiteindelijk voor gekozen om de
70 capaciteit te vergroten door vergelijkbare apparaten parallel te laten opereren. Deze opschaal
71 methode is uiteindelijk minder risico vol. Nieuwe technologieën worden vaak op het lab ontwikkeld,
72 maar opschalen blijft altijd lastig.

73 Een andere focus was membraan technologie. Er zijn een aantal toepassingen bedacht die op lab
74 schaal leken te werken. Wanneer de technologie op grotere schaal getest wordt lijken alle voordelen
75 weg te vallen. De reden zijn dan het niet werken van het principe, onverwachts hoge energie kosten
76 of extreme vervuiling. Er is ook wel eens gekeken naar smelt kristallisatie. Dit had als voordeel dat er
77 geen oplosmiddelen nodig zijn. Op grote schaal bleek echter dat er toch aceton nodig was om het
78 proces te bedrijven.

79 Bij een vorige werkgever werd product vanuit een chemisch proces gemaakt. Er was een micro
80 organisme ontwikkeld dat dit product direct kon produceren, wat een hoop chemische stappen
81 scheelde. Dit nieuwe proces was oplosmiddelen vrij, tot de kristallisatie stap. Hier leek het product
82 niet goed op te lossen in het waterige proces. Het sentiment was dan al snel om terug te gaan naar
83 een chemisch proces, omdat er toch gedraaid moet worden en product geleverd moet worden. Het is
84 dan voor de hand liggend om terug te gaan naar oude, bekende technologieën.

85 Sommige technologieën hebben zich echter helemaal uit ontwikkeld en worden heel wijd toegepast.
86 De RO installatie, voor water zuivering, wordt heel wijd toegepast en is bijna mature. In plaats van een
87 demi installatie kies je nu sneller voor een RO. Het heeft veel tijd nodig totdat een technologie door
88 ontwikkeld en er geen kinderziektes meer zijn.

89 In 2012 moesten wij de verzepingsfabriek vervangen omdat deze op instorten stond. In dit geval
90 hadden we eigenlijk geen tijd om uitgebreid uitzoek werk te doen welke nieuwe technologieën
91 hiervoor beschikbaar zijn. Eigenlijk is de oude technologie gewoon overgenomen, al dan niet in een
92 gereviseerde vorm. De indeling van de fabriek is wel onder handen genomen, waardoor het proces
93 chronologisch te volgen is. Voorheen liepen de leidingen van de zolder naar de kelder en weer terug
94 omdat er in de loop van de tijd nieuwe dingen zijn geïmplementeerd. Heel wezenlijk is er aan het
95 proces weinig veranderd. Nood breekt wet. Nu zijn we bezig met het project oplosmiddelen vrij en
96 kijken we terug met de vraag waarom we dit niet meteen hebben opgepakt. Maar ja, geen tijd.

97 *Wat maakt dan dat er in de tijd van de chromatografie en extractie wel tijd voor was?*

98 Ja daar waren een aantal onderdelen die daar in mee spelen. We waren toen onderdeel van Een groot
99 moeder bedrijf waar goed geld werd verdiend. Hierdoor was er ruimte was om dat te doen. De
100 toenmalige plant manager was van origine een proces technoloog die jaren lang proces technologie
101 bedreef op de hoofdvesting. Hij kon, met zijn vrienden uit de hoofd vesting, een goede business case
102 te schrijven. Ook was hij bereid zijn nek uit te steken. Op dat moment was het in de hoofdvesting heel
103 erg traditioneel. Dat was allemaal API manufacturing, eigenlijk opgeschaalde laboratoria. Dit zie je veel
104 in de farmaceutische industrie. Veel minder zoals de continue processen als we nu hebben.

105 *Dit maakt deze locatie ook heel uniek natuurlijk. Ik heb in de jaarverslagen gelezen dat het huidige*
106 *moederbedrijf bezig is om de kennis over chromatografie naar India te krijgen. Hoe ervaren jullie dat?*

107 Dat staat mij niet zo voor de geest. Dit zou dan chromatografie voor de laatste zuiveringstappen voor
108 de farmaceutische industrie. Dit is anders als de grote schaal scheiding die hier plaats vind.

109 In dat geval is het doel om wat laatste onzuiverheden uit de stroom te krijgen, vergelijkbaar met het
110 toevoegen van Norit [actief koolstof, een materiaal dat aromaten absorbeert]. Wanneer mensen
111 horen dat er chromatografie gebruikt word, denken ze dat er een hele precieze scheiding plaats vind.
112 Vergelijkbaar met wat er bij de analyse afdeling wordt gebruikt. Dat doen wij niet. Wij doen een
113 redelijk grofstoffelijke. Onder de product piek zitten nog andere stoffen. Dit geeft niet omdat er
114 daarna nog kristallisatie plaats vind om de uiteindelijke scheiding te laten plaats vinden.

115 *Oké duidelijk. Ik las dit in het rapport en was nieuwsgierig hoe deze communicatie plaats vind.*

116 Wat gepubliceerd wordt is het rapport uit India. Ik heb hier in ieder geval geen concrete voorbeelden
117 van.

118 *Duidelijk. Wat waren andere voorbeelden van redenen waarom de chromatografie wel hier in de*
119 *fabriek werkt, of wat zijn de grote uitdagingen geweest?*

120 Al de aanpassingen en variaties zijn misschien niet erg interessant. In grote lijnen zaten de problemen
121 in de oplos samenstelling van de loopvloeistof. Ook een stabiele propstroom door de kolom was een
122 uitdaging. De methodiek om de kolom te vullen en het verdelen bovenop de kolom. Hier zat de crux
123 van de oplossing.

124 *Oké duidelijk. Deze voorbeelden zijn gefocust op de techniek. Zijn er nog andere?*

125 Nee de rest van de fabriek is alleen maar oplosmiddelen indampen. Het enige nadeel van het proces
126 is dat je erg verdund werkt met grote hoeveelheden oplosmiddelen. We gebruiken nu multiple effect
127 val stomers om die berg oplosmiddelen, in te dampen. Dit zijn straight forward apparaten die je bijna
128 standaard van de plank koopt. Je geeft aan wat de leverancier wat de fysische constanten van de
129 vloeistof zijn, wat het debiet is waarmee zij een ontwerp voorstel doen die ze maken. Natuurlijk zijn
130 er uitdagingen zoals de benutting van de pijpen, maar daarvoor bouwen zij standaard een reflux
131 stroom in. Dit doet wat met het rendement maar hierdoor werkt het proces wel. Hier hebben we
132 weinig problemen mee gehad.

133 De weegketels zijn een ander onderdeel van het proces. Redelijk simpele machines met loodcelletjes
134 onder de ketels. Wel was dit in 1985 de eerste fabriek die volledig geautomatiseerd opereerde.

135 Tegenwoordig zijn we redelijk ouderwets als het op automatisering aan komt.

136 Zeker maar die fabriek draait dus op 0.2 operator. De rest van de tijd is die er niet en draait de fabriek
137 geheel automatisch.

138 De drijfveer was omdat jullie van het zinkchloride af wilde. Gewoon vanuit veiligheids-, handling en
139 milieu oogpunt.

140 Ja dat kopt. Dat was de drijvende kracht er uiteindelijk voor.

141 en als je dat besluit eenmaal genomen hebt is het ook lastig om te zeggen doe toch maar niet. Want
142 dan staat de fabriek er al. Hadden jullie toen ook een back up?

143 nee eigenlijk niet. De enigste zekerheid die we hadden was dat we de fabriek hadden gesimuleerd op
144 fabriek schaal. We hebben de kolom laten bouwen en daar op semi technische schaal proeven mee
145 gedaan. Dit alles om te bewijzen dat we konden schalen van een glazen kolommetje van 80 cm naar
146 die dimensies.

147 *Er is dus eigenlijk een fabriek schaal pilot test uitgevoerd?*

148 Ja met tankwagens die oplosmiddelen vervoerde, een grote uitdaging. Toen was technologie bedrijven
149 nog leuk.

150 *Je benoemde dat vervuillende oplosmiddelen een drijvende factor was. Werd dit ook door wetgeving
151 ingegeven?*

152 Zinkchloride was natuurlijk zo giftig als maar kan. Het grote probleem was dat je dit ook weer terug
153 moest winnen. Er kwam altijd een mengsel van Zinkchloride en andere reststoffen. Het was lastig om
154 iemand te vinden die dit kon opzuiveren. Daarbij hebben lekkages er voor gezorgd dat er zinkchloride
155 in de bodem is geëindigd. In tussen is dit gesaneerd, met alles kosten van dien. Dit was onderdeel van
156 de deal die het nieuwe moederbedrijf moest dragen. Wel groeide het zinkvioletjes hier, die nu niet
157 meer terug zullen komen.

158 *Dit is heel erg interessant. Ik kom zo meteen nog even terug op de andere technologieën. Wat zijn de
159 redenen dat ze geadopteerd zijn. Niet alleen technisch maar ook organisatorisch. Maar eerst wil ik
160 eerst even terug gaan naar het begin. Wat is jullie definitie van duurzame proces technologie?*

161 het begrip duurzame technologie hanteren wij niet. Wel hanteren wij het begrip duurzaam. Dit houdt
162 in dat wij zo min mogelijk verstorend willen werken op onze omgeving. Dat is in de breedste context.
163 Denk hierbij aan water, energie en dat soort zaken. We proberen zo min mogelijk impact te hebben

164 op de wereld, terwijl wij onze producten maken en verkopen. Begrippen als circulaire economie en
165 dat soort dingen wordt over na gedacht.

166 *Jullie geven aan dat jullie het begrip duurzame technologie niet hanteren maar wel duurzaamheid zelf.*
167 *Is dat iets wat in de cultuur van het bedrijf zit?*

168 Ja want we zijn in feiten bio based industrie. Het begint bij de schapen die zelf wol vet produceren en
169 dus een hernieuwbare grondstof is. Daarnaast, als je kijkt naar onze industrie, zetten wij dat wolvet in
170 maar produceren weinig afval stoffen. Natuurlijk vervangen we filters en is er een stukje emissie, maar
171 de grondstof bijna helemaal gebruikt. rest stoffen worden zo veel mogelijk verkocht.

172 het grootste probleem is nog het sulfaat.

173 ja dat is eigenlijk de grootste nog. Als je een Sankey diagram voor je ziet is er maar een heel dun pijltje
174 dat het daadwerkelijke afval is. Zeker met de huidige focus op klimaat en milieu versterkt dit gevoel
175 enkel.

176 Verder gebruiken we redelijke hoeveelheden energie. Daar wordt, ook bij de ontwikkeling van nieuwe
177 processen, zeker naar gekeken. Deze energie is vooral warmte, in de vorm van stoom. Dit wordt zelf
178 opgewekt met aardgas. Het betreft dan 1,2 tot 1,5 miljoen kuub gas per jaar. Hiermee zijn we een van
179 de grootste gebruikers in Nederland.

180 *Zijn jullie al eerder bezig geweest met projecten om deze energie behoefte te verminderen.*

181 Zeker toen we het nieuwe proces zijn gaan ontwikkelen hebben we gekeken naar de mogelijkheden
182 om energie te besparen en warmte terug te winnen. Als je de kans hebt om je voetafdruk kleiner te
183 maken nemen we dat mee. Bij het nieuwe proces [om de oplosmiddelen te verminderen of te
184 elimineren] hoeft er ook veel minder ingedampd te worden. Dit scheelt ook al een heleboel energie.

185 Onze rest producten worden nu naar noord Europa verscheept. Zij hebben een convenant dat alle
186 energie moet worden opgewekt uit hernieuwbare grondstoffen. Het is echter zinloos dat dat gebeurt
187 met onze vetzuren, terwijl wij dit vetzuur zelf kunnen inzetten om ons eigen proces van energie te
188 voorzien. Thermisch gezien heeft deze vetzuur stroom dezelfde waarde als de 1,2 miljoen kuub
189 aardgas. De technologie om dit te doen is redelijk beproefd en de type branders die hiervoor nodig
190 zijn kunnen relatief simpel verkregen worden. Hiermee kun je in feiten de CO₂ footprint, ten aanzien
191 van fossiele brandstoffen, aanzienlijk verminderen. Ook hier is ons moeder bedrijf mee bezig. Verder
192 scheelt dit natuurlijk ook de transport uitstoot en stikstof op de weg.

193 we hebben een project gehad om de sulfaat afval stromen om te zetten in een product.

194 dit neutraliseren we wel, om aan de uitstoot eisen te voldoen. Dit wordt dan een zout die veel
195 aanwezig is in de wereld en weinig waarde heeft. Dit eindigt daarom ook vaak op een vuilnisbult. Bij
196 ons gaat het echter mee met het afval water en eindigt het op het oppervlakte water. Deze manier
197 van lozing is wel beperkt door wat er geloosd mag worden in het riool. Het beste zou zijn als we deze
198 stoffen terug winnen. In dit geval hoeven we geen neutraliserende zouten meer te kopen. Positief
199 voor de circulariteit maar of het economisch haalbaar is, is een andere vraag. Verder hebben we
200 gekeken of we een component van kunstmest kunnen maken. Maar dit is, vooral economisch gezien,
201 niet erg makkelijk. Het feit dat de stroom klein is helpt hier ook niet in mee.

202 Ja en ook het principe 'never make a product out of a by product'. Stel jij neemt mijn bij product af,
203 en daar baseer jij je productie op. Als ik dan besluit minder te draaien heb jij een probleem. Ik ga niet
204 extra draaien om bijproduct te produceren. Dit is ook een probleem.

205 De energie boeren doen dit anders, vooral Nederland is hier groot in. Die halen overal ter wereld de
206 olie en vetstromen op. Ook jij kunt hier op aansluiten, maar jij bent dan maar een kleine fractie van
207 de stroom. Als je dan een jaar iets minder produceert, merken ze daar weinig van.

208 *Verder wil ik jullie vragen welke technologieën jullie hebben geadopteerd. Ik heb al flink wat*
209 *technologieën kunnen noteren. Zijn er nog andere voorbeeld van technologieën die jullie hebben*
210 *geadopteerd op het gebied van duurzaamheid?*

211 we hebben nog wel eens naar membraam destillatie gekeken om de sulfaat houdende afvalstroom te
212 concentreren.

213 Ik weet het weer, in India hebben we met pervaporatie gewerkt. Hier is de emissie regulatie iets
214 anders dus komen andere technologieën in aanmerking. Deze technologie werkt goed voor het
215 scheiden van azeetroop. Hier is voor gekeken om oplosmiddelen uit dampstromen te halen. Deze
216 technologie is vrij kostbaar en de adoptie werd niet gelimiteerd door de wetgeving. Uiteindelijk neemt
217 niets het op tegen gewoon uitstoten. Je kunt dit wel doen om groen te zijn, maar de burens zit ook bij
218 APIs en kunnen wel gewoon uitstoten [Example of the prisoners dilemma from game theory]. De
219 klanten boeit het geen barst wat de uitstoot is. Dit geldt voor de farmacie in het algemeen. Hier zijn ze
220 nog ver van alles wat maar groen is. Sommige eisen als de laatste kristallisatie, het oplosmiddel wat je
221 hier gebruikt, donder je gewoon weg. Dat is toch raar. Dit doen ze omdat e ideeën over patiënt
222 veiligheid helemaal doorgesloten zijn. De kosten om dit te bewerkstelligen en de factoren die je
223 moet implementeren zijn dermate groot dat het plezier er af gaat. Er mag niets meer.

224 Je zou op zich de oplos middelen kunnen terugwinnen. De technologieën om de te controleren of
225 andere chemicaliën er in zitten zijn er zeker. Dit is echter niet in de industrie aan de orde.

226 *Wat dat aangaat zitten jullie in twee werelden. Hoe ervaren jullie die tegenstelling?*

227 In de cholesterol fabriek winnen we alles terug en gebruiken we dat opnieuw. Hier beneden, in de
228 vitamine D fabriek, gooien we alles weg.

229 Dat zijn natuurlijk ook allemaal exotische stoffen. We gebruiken vervelende stoffen die niet fijn zijn
230 om terug te winnen. Bij het terugwinnen kunnen nare restproducten ontstaan. Bij het opschalen van
231 een fabriek zouden we er niet voor kiezen om deze middelen te gebruiken.

232 Ik heb bij een vorige werkgever aan een proces gewerkt samen met een contract research organisatie.
233 Het ging hier over een 17 stappen synthese. De onderzoeksgroep had 17 oplosmiddelen gebruikt en dit
234 proces moest opgeschaald worden. Ik had zoiets van 'dat is leuk jongens maar dat gaan we niet doen'.
235 Ik zie dat we een oplosmiddel redelijk vaak gebruiken dus doe het proces maar in dat middel. Dit gaf
236 veel weerstand maar uiteindelijk zijn we toch tot een oplossing gekomen waarin we een proces
237 hadden met 6 oplosmiddelen die mogelijk terug gewonnen konden worden. Dit is een andere manier
238 van denken. Je ziet vaak in de farmacie dat het chemici zijn die proces ontwikkeling doen. Zij richten
239 zich echter alleen op 'ik moet deze synthese doen en deze producten moet ik overhouden'. Er wordt
240 sterk gekeken naar conversie maar niet wat er moet gebeuren met de stoffen die overblijven. Dit moet
241 dan door de technologen worden bedacht. Als technoloog kreeg je dan het idee dat je opnieuw kon
242 beginnen met het ontwikkelen van het proces nadat het idee over de schutting was gegooid. Eigenlijk

243 denk ik dat bij deze ontwikkelingen een samenwerking moet komen met mensen die zich bewust zijn
244 van de uitdaging met oplosmiddelen.

245 Bij het vorige moederbedrijf werd er vrij snel bij de ontdekking van nieuwe chemicaliën de technologie
246 afdeling betrokken. Dit om te voorkomen dat er dadelijk een prachtig proces is ontwikkeld dat later
247 niet kan worden opgeschaald en waar geen fabriek voor gebouwd kan worden. Iets heel simpels, we
248 hadden hier een ontwikkeling dat er gekristaliseerd ging worden in azijnzuur. Azijnzuur klink redelijk
249 normaal maar als je ziet wat voor veiligheidsrisico's hierbij betrokken, zou de fabriek ondergronds in
250 een bunker gebouwd moeten worden. Zo'n proces is dan niet accepteerbaar omdat het gros van de
251 kosten in de bouw en veiligheidsmaatregelen gaat zitten.

252 *Bedankt. Jullie hebben al veel technologieën benoemd, en daar wil ik graag even op door gaan. Kunnen*
253 *jullie mij vertellen welke factoren belangrijk waren bij de extractie.*

254 Dat is heel simpel, het proces bestaat niet hier. Op ten duur ging 80% van de productie naar één
255 afnemer in Italië. Dit werd overgenomen door een Amerikaanse boer die dit product ook maakte.
256 Deze organisatie heeft toen de afnamen gestopt en vervangen door eigen productie. Hierdoor was de
257 fabriek niet langer in staat om het volume weg te zetten om rendabel te blijven. Er waren wel kleinere
258 klanten, Philips was bijvoorbeeld onze klant. Zij gebruikte het product om stabiele videobanden van
259 te maken. Ook andere kleine aannemers waren verbonden maar dit ging niet om 500 ton. Dit proces
260 was helemaal hier ontwikkeld. Een heel vernuftig extractieproces. De reactor had een high sheer
261 roerwerk waardoor momentaan de product korreltjes los kwamen. Deze slurry werd in een buffertank
262 in suspensie gehouden en uiteindelijk in de Filternoutse gefiltreerd. Hier hield je poederig gelig spul
263 over dat werd gegranuleerd. het hagelslag vormige product werd gedroogd in fluidbed drogers. Het
264 proces stelt niet zo veel voor, in termen van proces stappen. De clue zat in het detail. Dit was vernuftig
265 bedacht in het ontwerp van de reactor. Deze technologie is zelf ontwikkeld.

266 *Zijn er nog uitdagingen geweest in de implementatie van de technologie?*

267 dat was voor mijn tijd in de jaren 70, dus daar was ik niet bij.

268 *Oké, en de fluidised bed droger is dan ook verkocht in die tijd?*

269 Dit is allemaal verkocht aan food in Barneveld of de tweedehands handel.

270 Ja, van de technologieën die hier nog staan kunnen we spreken over de chromatografie en de RO
271 [Reversed Osmosis] installatie voor het ketel voedingswater. De oude voedingswater zuivering een
272 ionenwisselaar met een programma wals met pinnetjes. De pinnetjes draaien en activeerde de
273 verschillende functies. Dit was erg kwetsbaar en zou vervangen worden door een andere
274 ionenwisselaar. Na wat onderzoek bedacht ik dat moest het toch wel kunnen om een RO installatie
275 neer te zetten. Veel andere bedrijven gebruikte het maar toch was het hier erg eng. Hans was erg
276 angstig, maar hij komt uit de energie opwekking. Hij wist zeker dat zijn ketels fantastisch draaide op
277 een ionen wisselaar. Bij een RO installatie veranderd de kwaliteit van het water en het effect op de
278 ketels is dan onzeker. Ik heb zelf het project niet afgemaakt maar wel iets in de week gelegd. Tegen
279 de tijd dat de installatie vervangen is zijn de projectleden met RO in de weer gegaan. Ook omdat ze
280 tegen die tijd overtuigd waren door verschillende bezoeken dat het toch de goede technologie is om
281 te doen. Nu draait hij uitstekend en hebben we minder chemicaliën.

282 Soms kies je bewust voor beproefde technologieën. Die kolom chromatografie fabriek wordt door de
283 computer helemaal aangestuurd. Als je kijkt naar de architectuur van de computer heb je de CPU van

284 de computer waar alle programma's op staan. Deze kaarten hebben processoren die in de commandor
285 64 zaten. Ook de spaceshuttle is met dit soort processoren gebruikt. In de dertig jaar dat het proces
286 draait is het nooit down geweest. Dag in dag uit 24/7. Deze hardware is dus niet voor niets gebruikt.
287 Je kunt dan wel nieuwer materiaal gebruiken, maar voor proces automatisering werd toch voor de
288 robuuste technologie gekozen.

289 Het zelfde geldt ook voor het ketelhuis. We kunnen het ons niet permitteren dat hij 3 dagen plat ligt.
290 Je moet dus goed na denken over hoe het uitgevoerd is.

291 *Ik neem aan dat deze techniek wel redundancy heeft.*

292 Nee, dat is gewoon niet nodig. De kolom chromatografie heeft geen redundancy. Er is een kaart die
293 we vrij kunnen wisselen en meer hebben we niet nodig. Nieuw is niet altijd beter.

294 *Zijn jullie ook bezig geweest met andere type technologie? Een voorbeeld hiervan zijn compressoren?*

295 Ja, in dit geval hebben we de lucht compressoren wel een keer vernieuwd. In zo'n geval gaan we mee
296 met de ontwikkelingen die de leverancier maakt. Een compressor heeft geen nieuw principe
297 verandering. Het is een schroef die rond draait. De besturing is iets meer ontwikkeld. Een lucht droger
298 is ook niet anders dan een koelkast uit de jaren 30. We hebben hier veel bestaande technologie.
299 Tegelijk hebben we ook bijna alle unit operations wel. We filtreren, kristalliseren, destilleren,
300 verdampen, chromatografie, verdichten, absorptie processen, stikstof productie met pressure swing
301 principe, zeolieten en je kunt het zo gek niet bedenken of we hebben het wel. Maar de meeste
302 technologieën zijn doorontwikkeld en niet extreem bijzonder.

303 Nu moet ik zeggen dat ik de laatste jaren niet heel veel technologische ontwikkelingen zie die erg
304 nieuw zijn.

305 *Ik heb laatst ook een gesprek gehad met iemand van universiteit Utrecht die had gekeken naar de
306 geschiedenis van de Nederlandse proces technologie. Ook hij kwam tot de conclusie dat er in de
307 afgelopen 30 jaar weinig radicale innovatie heeft plaatsgevonden. Proces intensificatie en AI zijn
308 voorbeelden van nieuwe technologieën.*

309 We zien op beurzen ook steeds minder grote veranderingen. Natuurlijk worden er steeds iets
310 slimmere methodes bedacht, maar echt radicaal nieuwe techniek komt weinig voor. Het laatste waar
311 wij over gediscussieerd hebben zijn warmtepompen. Deze apparaten hebben de beperking dat ze niet
312 veel warmer kunnen dan 60 of 70 graden. In België is een bedrijf dat de fosfor cyclus van cellen
313 gebruikt om extra warmte te genereren. In de cel wordt ADP omgezet in ATP. Deze ATP kun je laten
314 vrijkomen in een reactor om warmte mee te genereren. Het is briljant dat op deze manier een zelf
315 bedruipend systeem ontstaat, kan laag waardige warmte om te zetten in hoog waardige warmte.

316 Er is gewoon weinig nieuw onder de zon. De principes zijn er allemaal wel maar het gaat om de
317 uitvoering. Centrifuge om algen te concentreren is heel goed maar een verbetering van bestaande
318 zaken. In de jaren 70 was de membraam technologie die doorbrak, met name in de zuivel. Hier werd
319 het toegepast vanwege de liederlijke hoeveelheden water die verdampt moest worden. Dit was een
320 behoorlijk kostbaar gebeuren en dit was een drijvende kracht om een besparingsmethode voor te
321 zoeken. Het zou best kunnen zijn dat dit nodig hebt om opeens een nieuwe kant op te gaan. Het zou
322 best kunnen zijn dat onze huidige CO₂ crisis er voor zorgt dat er veel nieuwe dingen ontwikkeld
323 worden. Nu is de urgentie weer groter en een beetje druk is goed.

324 Ja en het aantal fysische parameters op basis waarvan de scheid. Zoals dichtheid, temperatuur,
325 deeltjesgrootte zijn een beetje uitgemolken. Verder komen er ook geen nieuwe meer bij. Scheikunde
326 is ook een woord want het is vooral fysica dat we doen. Ook bij ons zijn er maar twee stapjes chemie
327 en verder is alles fysisch. Het aantal variabele op basis waarvan je kunt scheiden is ook maar beperkt.
328 In de biochemie kun je innovatief zijn. CRIPR CAS is een mooie techniek. Dit kan ook voor onze
329 industrie een techniek met enorme potentie zijn. Van dat perspectief is de chemische industrie aan
330 het uitkoken.

331 *Wat nog kan is dat de vervanging van fossiele brandstoffen. Bijvoorbeeld om hoogwaardige warmte*
332 *te creëren.*

333 Een goed voorbeeld is de brandstofcel. Ook batterijen is chemie. Hier zit veel ontwikkeling omdat er
334 behoefte aan is. In oorlogen zijn ook de meeste innovatie.

335 *We hebben nu bepaalde factoren bij technologieën besproken. Mijn volgende vraag is, welke*
336 *technologieën liggen voor jullie gevoel het verste uit elkaar? Misschien qua moeite van adoptie? De*
337 *vraag is expres vaag geformuleerd omdat ik jullie de ruimte wil geven zelf vergelijkingen te trekken.*

338 we hebben ooit een proces ontwikkeld voor een product dat erg giftig is bij hoge concentratie. Om
339 het in diervoeding te kunnen verwerken moet het dus goed verdunt worden. Hiervoor hebben wij
340 een proces ontwikkeld, genaamd spray chilling. Het product wordt gemengd met palmolie en in koude
341 lucht laten vallen. Hiermee krijg je mooie kleine deeltjes. We zijn begonnen met ontwikkelingen op
342 het lab, echte minischaal. Daarna hebben we dat in een keer opgeschaald naar 23 pond productie. Dat
343 was leuk en ging ook goed. Waarom ging dit goed? Omdat we eigenlijk een klein beetje D3 bij het
344 geharde palmolie mengde. En de fabriek waar we dit lieten doen had enorm veel ervaring met het
345 sproei koelen van geharde palm olie. Het enigste dat mis had kunnen gaan was dat de producten niet
346 goed gemengd zouden zijn. Dat er ergens een heel geconcentreerd stuk D3 zat, dus de homogeniteit.
347 Dit was een hele makkelijke opschaling. Ik denk dat jullie met de chromatografie, die opschaling was
348 een stuk lastiger. Dat was dan ook een hele nieuwe technologie op grote schaal, hoe doe je dat? Dit
349 was echter proven technology waar ik iets ingemengd heb.

350 *Is dit product dan ook op de markt gekomen?*

351 Bijna. Er waren twee redenen voor het stoppen van de ontwikkeling. De eerste was dat de
352 concurrentie uit China een ander business model als wat wij in het westen kennen. Zij wilde ons niet
353 toelaten op de markt en ging ver onder de kostprijs verkopen. Voor de klant interessant maar voor
354 ons dus niet. Ten tweede was er toch een probleem met stabiliteit van het spul. We zagen afbraak van
355 het API en dat wil je natuurlijk niet. Als je een zak verkoopt van het spul wil je als boer natuurlijk wel
356 weten dat er de beloofde hoeveelheid product in zit. Dat is hetzelfde als jij Davit Amon pilletjes koop
357 waarvan jij denkt, dat is goed voor me, maar er dan niets meer in zit omdat het allang is vergaan. Die
358 twee factoren hebben ons de das omgedaan met die business. We hebben wel een hele fabriek
359 gebouwd, voor het vitamine D3, niet het sproei koelen. Daarbij was het ook een product van 500 km
360 per gram. Het product ging de hele wereld over. We hadden geen sproeikoel installatie dus dat was
361 uitbesteden. De grondstof moest naar India waarna het hars hier in Nederland verder bewerkt moest
362 worden om vervolgens met verwarmde containers naar de sproei installatie te sturen.

363 als ze er nog iets mee willen moeten ze gewoon zo'n fabriek in India zetten.

364 Wat ze nu doen is de boel extra opzuiveren naar kristallijne staat. Dit stoppen ze in pilletjes en gaat
365 de reform markt op. Je koopt de gel capsules en die kun je dan oplossen in een olie stroom. Dat is
366 waar ze nu mee bezig zijn.

367 *Hoe is dit heel anders dan chromatografie?*

368 ja dat is heel anders. Allereerst heb je de uv bestraling een rol. Er zitten extra zuiveringstappen in
369 omdat de omzetting heel laag is. Hierdoor moet de, relatief dure grondstof, terug gewonnen worden
370 uit de oplossing. Om het product helemaal zuiver te krijgen moet er ook wat chemie gedaan worden.
371 Het is zeker een ingewikkeld proces. De fabriek stond er, en het werkte wel. Maar de formulering voor
372 dieren van hierboven is niet door gegaan. Dit is maar een product van de verschillende toepassing.
373 Vergis je niet dat 99% van het product in diervoeding gaat. In een mensen leven heb je in totaal 2.5
374 gram nodig.

375 *Wat dat aangaat is het ook dierenvoeding wat de bulk is.*

376 Ja je ziet dus dat een innovatie niet door gaat omdat de markt weg valt. Dan kun je nog zo'n leuke
377 technologie hebben bedacht, als je markt opeens wegvalt of je business case wegvalt is het over. Soms
378 wordt er ook een proces ontwikkeld voor bepaalde stof in het achterhoofd. Dan besluiten we om die
379 stof niet meer in te kopen om die kwaliteit van de grondstof afneemt. Hierdoor wordt je ook wel eens
380 ingehaald door de realiteit van de dag.

381 *Is er nog een ander voorbeeld van technologieën die in contrast met elkaar staan?*

382 Ik begrijp niet goed waar je naar toe wilt. Heeft het te maken met de keuze voor bepaalde
383 technologieën?

384 er zijn gewoon bepaalde randvoorwaarde die altijd gelden. Dat zijn kosten en effectiviteit. Dus kom je
385 ook vaak op bestaande technologieën uit. Deze zijn uitontwikkeld, goedkoop en aangetoond.

386 Bewezen technologie is ook wel prettig. Als je moet kiezen tussen een bewezen technologie en iets
387 dat totaal nieuw is en net zo duur is weet ik het wel. Dan ga ik wel voor de bewezen technologie.
388 Een nieuwe technologie moet een voordeel bieden tegenover de bestaande technologie. Daar weegt
389 je risico dan een beetje tegen op. We gaan niet vrijwillig risico lopen als het niet nodig is. Er moet
390 ergens een voordeel zitten. Of op milieu gebied, of op kosten gebied. Anders ga je het niet doen.

391 Zo heb ik me heel lang afgevraagd, nu heb je klokjes, mechanische klokjes en die worden vervangen
392 door een display. Die technologie van displays is er al jaren. Maar voordat het zo ver was dat het schok
393 vrij en temperatuur intervallen tussen de 65 en -20 aan kan, is er nog een enorme ontwikkeling die
394 nodig is. Wie gaat dat betalen? Als je een alternatief is, zoals de metertjes, ben je sneller klaar en heb
395 je een goedkopere auto. Er zijn altijd de mensen die een auto willen met een display. Skimming the
396 market. Dat heb je met de early adopters en wellicht ook in de chemische technologie. Bedrijven die
397 nieuwe dingen willen proberen.

398 *Maar ik denk dat jullie dat ook wel zijn.*

399 ja zeker wel. Mijn eerste baas hier vond het machtig mooi om dit soort dingen aan te pakken. Ook
400 kon hij het goed verkopen aan het management.

401 je moet er ook goed van overtuigd zijn dat het kan en goed in kaart hebben gebracht waar je risico's
402 liggen en hoe je ze gaat tackelen.

403 Want ook het drogen onder vacuüm, de glad of fluid bed drogers, zijn patenten van. Dat is later over
404 genomen door Glad zelf. Die heeft een licentie genomen.. Dit is geweldig als je een temperatuur
405 gevoelig product hebt. Heel vernuftig bedacht en ik kan er nog enthousiast over worden.

406 maar waarom is dat dan weer uitgestorven?

407 Je moet net die toepassing hebben. En het product was erg warmte gevoelig. Sommige granulen
408 zouden bij hogere temperaturen bruin worden waardoor er een gespikkeld product over blijft.

409 ja vaak wordt je uit nood gedreven. Of uit wetgeving of klanten eisen. Vaak ligt de vernieuwing dicht
410 bij een crisis.

411 maar veel technologieën halen het gewoon niet. Anderhalf jaar geleden was ik op zoek naar drogen
412 met magnetron straling. In huis is het overal beschikbaar maar industrieel is het bijna niet terug te
413 vinden. Terwijl het een geweldig mooie techniek is. Blijkbaar krijgen ze het niet zo opgeschaald dat
414 het werkt. Je zou gevoelige kristallen zo mee kunnen drogen, oplosmiddelen afdragen. Water is niet
415 zo'n probleem maar als je met aceton of ethaan werkt moet het allemaal explosie veilig zijn en wordt
416 het ingewikkeld. Daarbij zijn blijkbaar de alternatieve voldoende zodat de vraag er niet naar is. Op de
417 heleACHEMA zijn er maar twee bedrijven die een soort gelijke technologie leveren maar dat is
418 eigenlijk to min of meer op lab schaal. Ultrasoon en dat soort zaken hebben we ook wel eens naar
419 gekeken maar dat komt ook niet veel voor op grote schaal. Dit soort technieken worden blijkbaar op
420 grote schaal niet gebruikt.

421 Blijkbaar zijn er andere technieken die zich bewezen hebben en het ook goed doen. Waar je
422 onvoldoende last van hebt, om het maar zo te zeggen. Want als ze product kapot maken dan wil je
423 wel veranderen. Dus why bother?

424 *Dus dan ben je erg supply chain afhankelijk. Als je een schoon product aangeleverd krijgt hoef je niet
425 te zuiveren en als je klanten er niet om vragen ga je geen nieuw product in de markt zetten.*

426 ik denk het niet. Want een product moet een voordeel in de markt zetten. Als je met een zelfde
427 product als een ander in de markt komt is dat een lastig verhaal want dan kom je met een me to
428 product.

429 *Een ander voorbeeld zou kunnen zijn dat een technologie makkelijker te adopteren is omdat het niet
430 heel verstorend is in het proces. Bijvoorbeeld een warmtepomp of die RO installatie. Het is een
431 technologie die belangrijk is voor het proces maar het bemoeit zich niet met het hoofdproces. Het kan
432 minder risico vol zijn om een RO te vervangen als dat het is om met chromatografie aan de gang te
433 gaan. Is dat iets waar jullie je in herkennen?*

434 ik denk dat de RO ook erg belangrijk is voor het proces. Als je het ene pompje door de andere vervangt
435 dan geeft dat minder effect.

436 je kijkt eigenlijk alleen maar naar effectiviteit en kosten. 'Fit for purpose.'

437 En energie verbruik, onderhoud en de business case.

438 soms is het ook persoonlijk voorkeur. Soms leiden verschillende wegen naar Rome en gaat het er om
439 wat de technoloog die aan het roer staat het meeste vertrouwen in heeft of het leukste vind.

440 *Dit was het wel voor mij voor de vragen. Ik heb vandaag veel nieuwe dingen gehoord en gelijktijdig*
441 *zijn er vandaag veel dingen besproken die in de literatuur staan. Dit is een fijne aanvulling en*
442 *bevestiging voor mijn werk. Dank voor jullie tijd.*

443 Voor mij is het redelijk common sense. Ik heb altijd geleerd dat productie conservatief is. Die gaan
444 niets vervangen tenzij er noodzaak is of er een groot voordeel is. Daar kan je bijna alle dingen onder
445 vatten.

446 Dat is ook wel te verklaren. Als je veel rumoer maakt in een fabriek levert dat veel meer uitval op. Ik
447 weet uit ervaring dat als je een experiment doet in de fabriek, dat je daar nog een maand of twee last
448 van hebt als naweeën daarvan. Je haalt mensen uit hun routine en die routine borgt dat alles veilig
449 gebeurd en dat er niets fout gaat. Op het moment dat je dingen anders gaat doen raken mensen in de
450 war.

451 Ja je kan beter iets totaal anders doen, dat vinden ze dan nog wel leuk. Als je ze opdraagt een extractie
452 kolom op een andere manier moet gaan bedrijven. Dat is moeilijk en chaos omdat ze dat gewent zijn.

453 Ja dat geeft al een enorme drempel aan afkeurende trammelant. Zo'n fabriek is gebaad bij rust,
454 reinheid en regelmaat. Ook gas op de plank en geen tijd om na te denken. Dat is ook funest. Dan gaan
455 ploegen zaken uitstellen naar een andere ploeg wat ook weer tramalant geeft. Dit geeft weer beheer
456 uitdagingen tussen de teams. Doorbonken, dan heb je geen problemen.

457 Dat is een hele andere instelling als technoloog of psycholoog. In de jaren 70 ging je een hele Volvo
458 bouwen in plaats van dat je een bepaalde taak herhalend uitvoert aan de lopende band. Dat is allemaal
459 uitgetest en gaat perfect maar is niet te betalen. Hier zijn robots de beste optie voor.

460 Voor onze fabriek is er ook al een hoop geautomatiseerd. Voor ons zit er een filosofie achter. Na een
461 lezing van een professor van automatisering. Deze professor liet een grafiek zien met daarin de
462 efficiëntie van totaal geen automatisering naar volledig geautomatiseerd. In feiten hebben we dat
463 hier. Ik dacht dat ik veruit moest automatiseren. Maar we hadden nog een groep mensen die nog
464 gewoon aan de ketel stonden zoals je thuis zou komen. Aan de andere kant hebben we de KC [*kolom*
465 *chromatografie*] waar de operator achterover zit. Wat is nu de kruks. Op het moment dat er iets uit
466 de hand lijkt te lopen in de fabriek waar de operators aan de ketel staan dat snel in de gaten en
467 voldoende ervaring om op een goede manier te handelen. In de KC fabriek, weet ik uit eigen ervaring,
468 als daar een storing op treed door bijvoorbeeld een fout in de programmatuur of aansturing is het
469 evenement niet voorzien. Omdat de problemen dan zo abstract zijn, waardoor het oplossen eindeloos
470 duurt. Hierdoor zijn de consequenties van een ver geautomatiseerde fabriek niet meer te bevatten
471 voor de persoon die het ding moet besturen. Ik motiveer de operators dan ook om veel meer de
472 fabriek in te gaan om de meters te lezen en te begrijpen wat er nu allemaal gebeurt. Dit was een
473 onbegonnen zaak. Het is zo abstract voor ze. Ze kijken naar een scherm waar ze staaftjes zien vollopen
474 of leeg lopen. Wanneer er dan iets op loopt en ik draai ergens aan en er gebeurt niks, dan is het spoor
475 bijster. Om de storing dan helemaal abstract in je hoofd te kennen moet je het proces helemaal weten.
476 De prof zei dus ook dat je het optimum moet vinden waarin je het acceptabel vind als het in elkaar
477 loopt tegenover de voordelen van automatisering. Hierdoor heb ik het hele batch automatisering
478 maar gelaten. Dit had ook te maken met de operators die een gevoel van vakkennis krijgen als ze bezig
479 zijn met de apparatuur in plaats van achter een computer zitten. De oude garde is dus ook niet te
480 motiveren om de kolom chromatografie fabriek te laten overzien. Die vervelen zich stierlijk daar.

481 Ja die zijn allemaal op leeftijd. Als je ziet hoe de leeftijdsopbouw hier is, zeker een paar jaar geleden
482 voor een nieuwe lichting operator is begonnen, was bijna alles 50+.

483 Ik had mensen in de fabriek, tenminste 1, die was compleet dyslectisch. Die kon geen voorschrift lezen.
484 Hij liet zijn collega's de voorschriften voorlezen om ze te begrijpen. Voor dat hele verzeeping proces,
485 dat continue proces. Hij was een van de beste operators. Hij maakte een vat open, keek er in en pakte
486 een monster eruit en zag dat het niet goed ging. En daarmee bedoelde hij dat het over een half uur
487 niet goed ging. Dan regelde hij de ethanol wat bij en was het weer stabiel. Ongelofelijk, voor aangezien
488 hij alleen de lagere school had afgerond. Zonder dat hij benul had van alle fysica achter de processen
489 kon hij op basis van ervaring de fabriek regelen. Dit kan nu niet meer omdat alles dicht zit. Ik heb
490 vroeger ook in de fabriek gestaan en in essentie is het niet meer dan koken op grote schaal.

Appendix XVI – Innovation system theory, a summary of common frameworks

The research on innovation system theories comes in many shapes and forms. To properly comprehend the available variety of theories, both an analysis of content and relation between research streams is investigated. Furthermore, to present the innovation system research, differing assessments of the literature are made. The three perspectives used to explain the complexity of the innovation system theories are 1) the historical development of innovation theory research, 2) the level of analysis used by the theories, and finally, 3) a bibliometric clustering of the articles discussing innovation systems (Dahesh et al., 2020).

History of Innovation System theory

Innovation systems (IS) originate from the idea that national systems, i.e. education and regulatory institutions, are linked to economic growth (Dahesh et al., 2020). A crucial addition to this view is that ever succeeding innovations and entrepreneurship are core to economic growth (Schumpeter, 1939). However, this somewhat linear explanation of innovations does not explain why some innovations, though technically superior, would not be widely adopted. To illustrate this, Dosi (1982) proposed the concept of technology paradigms. This view emphasised the ‘blindness’ of entrepreneurs to technological possibilities in other markets. Next to embracing technology paradigms, four other ideas have revolutionised innovation system theory. These ideas are evolutionary theory, integrative learning, institutional theory and open innovations (Dahesh et al., 2020).

First, the evolutionary theory argues for an evolutionary system in economics (Nelson & Winter, 1977). Just as in biological systems, positive traits (i.e. worthwhile innovations) spread through the population until a better trait develops. The selection environment in this analogy is the market, which can be either open or (quasi) closed. The latter is the case for public agencies that pursue their own interests as well as those of the public and their financier. This reduces the clear distinction between the innovation creation and selection environment. Overall, this vision adds a dichotomy between innovation creation and innovation selection to IS theory.

Second, Integrative learning refers to the (in)ability to absorb and apply knowledge from one's surroundings, i.e. a firm's absorptive capacity (Cohen & Levinthal, 1990). This view allows for feedback between IS theory's creation and selection environments, implying a more dynamic system.

Third, Institutional theory argues that, as the name suggests, institutions play an essential role in the innovation system. Both formal and informal institutions, i.e. regulators or professional standards, increase the stability of the innovation system. They do so by shaping the behaviour within the system. Similar to integrative learning, this theory too emphasises the importance of relations within the innovation system. Finally, as Chesbrough (2003) suggested open innovation doubles down on the importance of interactions and relationships within the innovation system theory. Innovative ideas can be shared with, and absorbed from, other actors in the innovation system. In this way, internal innovation is increased, and new markets can be discovered for using one's innovations.

Dominant innovation system theories

Innovation system theories typically take one of three levels of analysis. First, there is the national level. The system approaches envision innovations to unfold not through isolated efforts but through networks of social relationships in a country (Lundvall, 1992). These networks consist of organisations

and institutions (i.e. laws, norms and routines) who grow and utilise the innovations. Knowledge and learning, elusive concepts as they are, are generally considered the most fundamental resources to innovation (Lundvall, 1992; Nelson & Winter, 1977).

The next level of analysis is the regional innovation systems. Initially introduced by Porter (1990), this view accepts cross-industry actors in its analysis, scoped by their (often geographical) clustering. Porter (1990) examined the competitive advantage of nations. He concluded that regional competitiveness was a function of four factors: demand conditions, supporting industries, firm strategy and factor conditions, i.e. resources and knowledge (Porter, 1990). Another often researched topic for regional innovation systems is the effect of proximity to knowledge sharing. Information and communication technologies (ICT) can negate the need for proximity as knowledge can be shared over long distances. However, this only holds for codified knowledge and does not account for sharing implicit knowledge (Morgan, 2004). Furthermore, there is a reversed u-shaped relation between proximity and innovation success. Either low or high proximity leads to either lacking control or lacking flexibility on innovations, respectively (Boschma, 2005; Dahesh et al., 2020).

Finally, there are the sectoral innovation system theories, e.g. Hekkert et al. (2007). It emphasises that technical, scientific information is specific to their application and cannot easily be transferred to other sectors. Kemp et al. (1998) found that various technological, regulatory and psychological barriers hamper the adoption of technologies. Because these barriers exist at a different level of abstraction, i.e. from individual companies that propose innovations to globally accepted standards, a multi-level perspective is presented (Geels, 2006). This model, as depicted in Figure 12, differentiates between the niches, regimes and landscapes. Niches are the spaces where innovations emerge, often adopted by a specific group of customers. Above the niches is the regime. The regime refers to the characteristics of the technological environment. I.e. industry standards dominated by incremental innovations. The highest level is that of the landscape. The landscape contains processes such as demographic changes and economic prosperity (Dahesh et al., 2020). Next to the multi-level perspective, another central doctrine can be identified. Hekkert et al. (2007) conclude that the many activities operating in the innovation system are too large to be considered. Thus a focus should be on the, in this case, seven main innovation activities and their interactions. These seven functions, as the activities are referred to, include entrepreneurship, knowledge development, knowledge diffusion, guidance for searching, market formation, resource mobilisation and finally, creation of legitimacy (Dahesh et al., 2020; Hekkert et al., 2007). Innovation systems are inherently connected to change and renewal. Ironically, some early frameworks have been criticised for being too static of nature (Etzkowitz & Leydesdorff, 2000). Another often mentioned limitation of the system approach is the coupling of policy theory to practice. A major challenge lies with making these system focus frameworks pragmatic enough to prescribe feasible policy actions and identify market failures (Coenen & Díaz López, 2010).

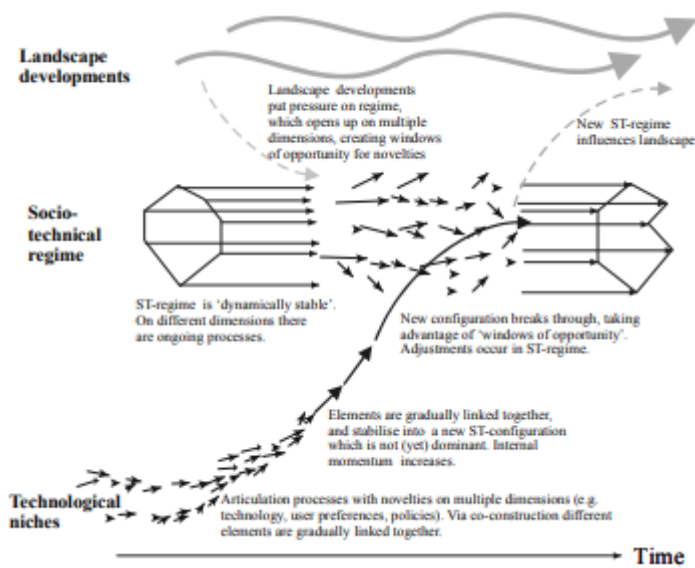


Figure 46 The multi-level perspective through which innovations evolve - (Geels, 2006)

This view on innovation systems can be further differentiated into three dominant approaches. All three of them are sectoral innovation system theories. These frameworks are the Sectoral System of Innovations (SSI), the Technological Innovation System (TIS) and Socio-technical systems (ST systems) (Coenen & Díaz López, 2010). These frameworks share a common systems approach. All build on the belief that networks, i.e. actors and their interactions, are central to the innovation process. Another commonality is the development of the system boundaries ex-ante, allowing to determine which organisations and institutions were deterministic for innovation development. Although these frameworks share a common systems approach, they utilise different rationale for innovation transitions. Table 11 on the next page gives an overview of the sectoral approaches of innovation system theory. Next to shortly defining the idea of the model, it presents how the theory is often employed and the limitations. A more extensive description of the three models can be found below the table.

Table 11 summary of the mainstream sectorial systems approach and innovation diffusion literature - (Borgianni & Rotini, 2012; Coenen & Díaz López, 2010)

Model of innovation	Underlying theory	Level of problem-solving capabilities	Limitations
<i>Sectoral systems of innovation (SSI)</i>	Innovation performance of a firm, increasing competitiveness	only stable system components allow for firm-level behaviour analysis	Narrow actor focus and a chance of firm based bias
<i>Technological innovation system (TIS)</i>	Co-evolution of a system, focal shift from competitiveness towards sustainable technology development	Changing system components can be analysed, allows for firm-level behaviour, suggest interceptions	Narrow actor focus and a chance of firm based bias
<i>Socio-technical systems (ST systems)</i>	Foster sustainable transition, includes transition- and strategic niche management	Changing system components can be analysed	Mainly qualitative research due to context-dependent and historical case studies misses firm-level behaviour

Sectorial systems of innovations

The SSI Framework considers innovation as a necessity to a firm's competitive advantage. Following Malerba (2004), SSI can be described as a set of new and established products for specific users and agents who carry out (non-) market interactions to create, produce, and sell those products. A sector is commonly referred to as the link made by specific product groups. The product-based system boundaries of the SSI are beneficial when the internal components are relatively stable. In addition, the ability to focus on a particular situations allows this method to be used for quantitative measurements. However, these existing product-based boundaries provide limitations when emerging products create a high degree of uncertainty (e.g., fuel cells or biotechnology), introducing the chance of missing out on vital factors of development (Coenen & Díaz López, 2010).

Technological innovation system

Similar to SSI, the TIS framework was developed to describe how technological innovation results in macro-economic prosperity. However, following the growing concerns about climate change, the framework was applied more to describe the development of clean technologies. Following the definition offered by the frameworks pioneers, TIS is a “*network(s) of agents in a specific economic/industrial area under a particular institutional infrastructure or set of infrastructures and involved in the generation, diffusion and Utilisation of technology. Technological systems are defined in terms of knowledge or competence flows rather than flows of ordinary goods and services...*” (Carlsson & Stankiewicz, 1991) p. 111. The TIS thus handles the range from local to international contexts and embraces different coexisting sectors using similar technologies. In recent years, the TIS framework has been used to highlight activities taking place in the innovation system (Hekkert et al., 2007). The downside of this approach is the focus on networks of agents, i.e. the relations between

actors and institutions. It, therefore, neglects the influence of material such as capital or natural resources (Geels, 2004). In response, Geels (2004) proposed the socio-technical system theory.

Socio-technical system

Both the SSI and TIS frameworks have been accused of production and firm bias. For Social Technical (ST) system theorists, the primary goal is to identify how novel socio-technical frameworks emerge and retain society. While defining socio-technical frameworks, ST systems consider organisations and institutions, artefacts, capital, labour, and culture, to name a few (Geels, 2004). A summary of this view is given in Figure 11. In this figure, the production area represents the innovation creation section, and the application domain represents the selection environment.

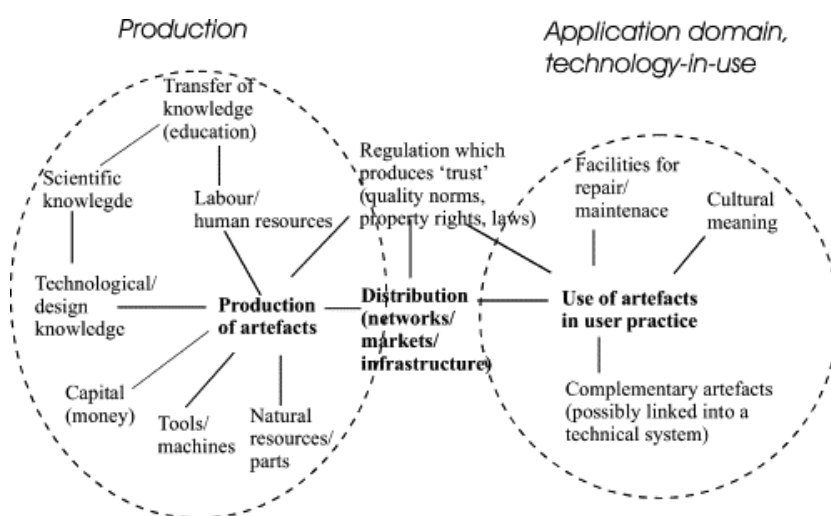


Figure 47 A generalised socio-technical system, including the innovation creation environment (left) and selection environment (right) - (Geels, 2004)

The empirical basis of this framework can be found in sustainable mobility and energy. An important distinction between regimes and niches are made. The regime encompasses the whole of knowledge, practices, product characteristics and skills established by the user needs and institutions. Niches are similar but much smaller in scale (Geels & Schot, 2007). Incremental innovation can be expected in the regimes, while unstable niches are likely to create radically new products or services (Elzen et al., 2004). Part of this stream of literature is the notions of transition- and strategic niche management. Transition management describes the co-evolution of technologies, markets, user practices, policies and cultures (Geels et al., 2008). Together with strategic niche management, transition management provides pragmatic frameworks to analyse complex co-evolving systems and provide policy advice (Rotmans et al., 2000). It should be noticed that the term 'system' has been used inconsistently in the literature related to ST systems. Research often use the term as a synonym for 'sector' or as a catchword (Markard & Truffer, 2008).

Bibliometric clustering of innovation system research streams

A bibliometric analysis of innovation system research streams has resulted in four streams.

1. Triple helix and networks. Not one actor can collect the resources required for innovations. To allow collaboration between the variety of actors required, innovation networks are composed. Specifically, governments, firms and universities have to collaborate closely for innovations to succeed (Etzkowitz & Leydesdorff, 2000; Pittaway et al., 2004).
2. Transition management & Socio-technical systems. Given the importance of environmental degradation, research is expected to address the transition of energy and resource usage. Most systematic approaches here focus on the production side of innovation. In contrast, socio-technical systems also focus on the adoption side of transition (Bergek et al., 2008; Smith et al., 2010).
3. Knowledge exchange and regional studies. Given the trend of globalisation, it is not expected that knowledge is contained in a geographical location. Therefore, the need to combine the scattered nature of knowledge needs to be considered (Hekkert et al., 2007; Huggins & Thompson, 2014; Malecki, 2010).
4. Review and methodology studies. Due to the dispersed nature of the innovation system studies, review articles must integrate problems and solutions from the field (Carlsson et al., 2002; Markard & Truffer, 2008; Sharif, 2006).

Appendix XVII - Industry trends

Qualitative interviews often reveal more information than was initially planned by the researcher. A list of industry trends is composed to represent the unexpected learnings from this research.

Trend 1 Specialisation In the past decades, high-end markets have become more important.

Trend 2 Culture clash over risk There is a consensus that changes in the factory are not beneficial to production quality. Market interferences or the occasional improvements decrease operation stability. The culture of optimisation is not useful when discovering new products. It is challenging to balance these two within an organisation.

Trend 3 Technology assessment Assessing the viability of a technology early on in the innovation funnel can help eventual adoption. Technologies that are considered for adoption are screened on prior implementation. If previous experience can be retrieved, this is used when the technologies are evaluated. Typically the rationale for technology selection in greenfield selection is similar to 'let's go for the known technologies, as we are sure they work', even though there is more decision freedom for greenfield developments.

Trend 3 Stable market conditions The innovations of today are made for the current markets. There is no plan to change the strategy in the coming decades. Furthermore, a small number of radical innovation is expected in the materials department. In other words, most polymers have been discovered. Changes are expected to come from feedstock changes, preferably away from oil or monomer production. Conversely, sizable emission reductions (>30%) likely require extensive research and radical new technologies to materialise. A solution could be the widespread recycling of polymers.

Trend 4 Recycling The focus on recycling is expected to result in various alternative recycling and upcycling technologies in the coming decade. As the process is still largely underdeveloped, it is unclear which parts of the recycling process will be arranged by the production firms and which will be outsourced.

Trend 5 Mild fractionation Closer collaboration can also result in more efficient production. This philosophy is called mild fractionation. By considering the customer's use, the production process can be made to fit. Implementing this requires far-reaching vertical supply chain collaboration. The factories will need to converse with the end-users and customers to identify further efficiency gains. The effect is that production companies step away from chemically pure products and embrace the natural impurities of the products. As a result, the focus of adoption does not only go to purity but also to sustainability. This holds for the biobased industry, where the aim is to maintain product structure as produced by nature. The downside of this decentralised structure is the loss of economy of scale advantages. Made-to-fit products could require additional capital investment, which carries high levels of insecurity as they are deployed for a limited amount of customers.

Trend 6 The scale-up paradox A typical scale-up challenge arises if a new material is developed in the lab, the process is often batch-wise. On the contrary, production is done more efficiently in a continuous manner. Changing from one production mode to another is hard or even impossible to do while maintaining comparable product characteristics. This characteristic is referred to as the scale-up paradox. The paradox is a result of the economy of scale prevalent in the chemical industry.

Because of the economy of scale, the industry needs large scale production to be price competitive. Decision-makers need assurance that the market is willing to accept large amounts of product before investing in large-scale production. This willingness is not measurable yet, as the price is currently still high. Therefore, the company is waiting for the market to become more open whilst the market is waiting for the prices to drop.

Trend 8 lacking organisational innovation The chemical industry is dominated by highly hierarchical organisation structures and over-the-fence project approaches. In other industries, these organisational structures have been criticised for lacking efficiency. The chemical industry, however, argues they engage in complex projects and hazardous processes. Therefore, it is argued that rigid organisational structures are a necessity to ensure safe operation.

Trend 9 Automation paradox Production facilities are highly automated and require little human attention. Even though there is a consensus that automation is good, full autonomy is not necessarily best. Extensive automation results that the operators are no longer able to comprehend the process and respond to malfunctions. There should be a balance between automation and human involvement to optimise performance and safety.

Trend 10 Emission dilemma Having green initiatives is considered good. But if the neighbouring competitors are emitting, it is simply too expensive not to do it too. Moreover, the customer does not care for the emission and are unwilling to pay extra for it.