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Central repair workshops in developing countries

GENERAL FUNCTIONS

Nonspared with industrial enterprises in developed countries, industrial enterprises in developing countries encounter special difficulties in maintaining, servicing and repairing their mechanical equipment and fleets of cars. Enterprises in industrialized countries have the advantage of being located relatively near the manufacturers of their mechanical equipment and have a well-functioning transport system at their disposal. Thanks to the dense road and rail network and highly efficient postal and telephone systems, it is possible to order and receive spare parts within a very short period. Orders placed by telephone or teleprinter reach the producer within minutes, and a well-organized enterprise can dispatch the order on the day it is received. When ordering spare parts, the machine operator can consult an illustrated catalogue in which the spare parts are listed. Thus, he can quickly find the order number of the damaged part and place his order.

The entrepreneur in an industrialized country can also take advantage of the well-organized repair service that equipment suppliers generally provide to their customers. Its well-trained personnel, operating special customer-service vehicles equipped with tools and spare parts render prompt assistance when called upon. In addition, there are specialized workshops that can carry out heavy and specialized repair work.

In developing countries, distances between the manufacturer and the purchaser of the machines are usually very great. There are generally very few machine producers in the country so that most of the machines and equipment must be supplied from producers abroad. Thus, the transmission of orders to the producer depends on the means of communication available. The communication with the foreign producer can frequently be very time-consuming. Inquiries—which are quickly dealt with in industrialized countries—may take weeks in developing countries. Furthermore, operating instructions, data on mechanical equipment and spare part catalogues are not always available or printed in the language of the country concerned. Obviously, translations may easily lead to misunderstandings. Regular customer services are still lacking in most developing countries.

The delivery of spare parts can be delayed not only through the complicated communication to the foreign supplier but also through the obstacles for obtaining the necessary import permits and custom clearance etc. as well as through the inefficient transport system within the country.

Special problems have arisen in developing countries because they have obtained from industrialized countries, to a large extent through bilateral assistance programmes, a variety of machine makes, all of which differ considerably from one another in their servicing and maintenance requirements as well as their spare parts. It even happens that a machine has gone out of production and the spare parts required are no longer available.

The solution to these problems would be to make the consumer as independent of the manufacturer as possible with respect to spare parts and repairs. The basic problem here is how to manufacture and repair the machine parts needed by small businesses when there is a lack of skilled workers and the necessary equipment. Owing to the lack of personnel and materials, industrial enterprises in developing countries are generally unable to maintain their own mechanical engineering shops. Small enterprises are also unable to provide full-time employment for skilled repair workers.

Some of these difficulties may be overcome by establishing central workshops, which, once equipped with skilled personnel and adequate machinery, are able to

^{*} This article is based on two background papers presented to the Symposium of Maintenance and Repair in Developing Countries held in Dirisburg, Federal Republic of Germany, in November 1970: "Central maintenance and repair shops", by A. Laberenz of the German Association of Machinery Manufacturers; and "Maintenance and repair in small-scale industries" by G. Sain, former Director, Small Industries Service Institute, Okhla, New Delhi.

repair machinery that has broken down and even produce the required emergency spare parts. Central repair shops are specialized repair shops servicing various industries and other establishments in a specific region. The repair shops can be of great use in regions where there is a relatively great concentration of industries in particular, small-scale industries what have similar repair requirements.

The location of a central repair shop obviously depends on the location and density of the industries it services and on what means of transport and communications are available. The customer, that is, the enterprises for which the repair shops are intended. should be able to contact the repair shop quickly, The proximity of an airport is another factor that may influence the choice of location. Another important factor in determining the location of the central repair shop is the availability of a mains electricity supply. Generating equipment belonging to the repair shop could, however, replace the mains electricity supply, The supply of water is also a factor to be considered. When selecting the location of the central repair shop, attention must finally be paid to the transport facilities to the closest housing area.

The tasks of a central repair shop can be divided into three groups:

- (a) Repair of machinery and equipment and the production of certain spare parts;
- (b) Training of apprentices, skilled workers, masters, unskilled workers through organized courses and demonstration of machinery;
- (c) Carrying out work as subcontractor.

The main function of the central repair shops is thus to repair machinery and equipment of small enterprises and to manufacture replacement parts such as gear wheels and all other parts requiring turning and millug operations that can be carried out with the mechanical equipment available. In addition, various emergency spare parts can be produced. In this way central shops can carry out repair work beyond the technical scope or economic means of an individual enterprise. In particular, this concerns repair work requiring heavy repair equipment and/or highly skilled labour. Thus, the central workshop can economically use this heavy equipment and employ the skilled labour.

The second important function of the central repair shops is to train skilled workers. A well-equipped central repair shop can easily prepare 20 to 30 apprentices per year for the skilled worker's examination. That means that with an apprenticeship of three-and-one-half to four years the shop will always have 80 to 120 apprentices in training. A well-equipped workshop is necessary for the first two years' training of mechanics, precision mechanics and toolmakers, blacksmiths, motor mechanics, electricians and perhaps also joiners. The number of apprentices is determined by the size of the shop. its mechanical equipment and, not least, the number of skilled workers able to pass on their knowledge and skill to another person. The future technological development of a country depends on the quality of training given to apprentices, and it is essential that those who set the standards appreciate this fact.

Advanced training courses for skilled workers leading to a mister's certificate should be held in addition to apprentice training courses. Short training courses for unskilled workers should be held in conjunction with apprentice training courses, in order to create a labour force capable of carrying out work that does not require a craftman's skill. This will considerably reduce the cost of repair work.

The further training of workers for specialized work must also be considered. The training of workers in special skills such as autogenous and electric welding, shielded are welding, is in the interest of the central repair shops, because it will enable small emerprises eventually to have repair work carried out locally. This will then reduce the central repair shop's work load.

The planning of a central repair shop unist be based on the expected volume of repair work. If the inflow of work is not continuously in correct proportion to the size of the shop, additional work of a different type may be undertaken. For instance, the manufacture of certain consumer goods could be commercially feasible. They could be produced on the presses available, and this would fill the gaps between repair work. Care unist be taken, however, not to allow repair work. Care unist be taken, however, not to allow repair work on vital machinery and equipment to suffer as a result of the production of consumer goods. Repair work and the production of replacement parts must always be given priority.

The ceatral repair shop should be equipped with a sufficient number of nucline took of different sizes and working capacities and of the most straightforward design and construction, possessing all the usual fittings, together with special attachments, and a complete set of tools. Special-purpose machines that remain numsed most of the time, and therefore represent a bad investment, and also antoniatic and senu-automatic machines, should be avoided and preference given to manually operated machinery, since work sent to the central repair shops is so varied in character.

The central repair shop will need the following shops and equipment:

- (a) Machine tools slathes of various types; bench and column-type drilling machines; milling and planing machines of various sizes; grinding machines of various types, e. g. tool grinding, cylindrical grinding, surface grinding, double wheel stand grinders; sawing machines;
- (b) Welding shop selectric and autogenous welding

and cutting equipment, spot welding equipment:

- (c) Smithy blacksmith's forge, anvil and swage blocks;
- (d) Tinsmith's shop in shears, multipurpose machine, folding press, embossing and bending machine, flanging and wiring machine, hydraulic presses;
- (c) Joinery---planing machines, band saw, circular saw, carpenter's benches;
- (f) Toolroom a variety of hand-operated electric machine tools and complete tool sets;
- (e) Apprentice workshop—workbenches and vices:
- (h) Classroom-appropriate equipment.

Should the planned central repair shop be extended to include vehicle repairs, the following shops and equipment will be needed:

- (a) Engine repair shop—equipment required for repair of valves, cylinders and pistons;
- (b) Shop for the repair of electric units-test stand for dynamo and starter:
- Battery-charging station --battery-charging equipment;
- (d) Chassis repair shop—pits, lifting stages, lubricating bays, brake testers, tire repair equipment, balancing machines:
- (e) Car-washing plant:
- (f) Paint-spraying plant.

The above-mentioned list of equipment does not claim to be complete. It is intended to show what equipment a good repair shop should have if it is to carry out a wide range of repair work and cannot exactly anticipate the tasks with which it will be confronted.

When the repair shop is being planned, it must be ensured that sufficient materials and tools that are subject to wear are available. Special emphasis must be placed on the supply of technical gases. Owing to the large number of machines and equipment obtained from various countries, tools of both the metric and the British systems must be available. This applies above all to drills, screw taps, reamers and spanners

Precautions should be taken against fire, theft and accident; sanitary installations must be provided. Office space must be provided for the technical management, administration and personnel office. In addition, meeting rooms, recreation rooms and canteens are needed.

There is no doubt that in most developing countries there is a real demand for central repair workshops. Much has been done in the field of training, especially the training of apprentices, but there is no agency where repairs, training and perhaps the production of consumer goods are carried out under the same roof; the establishment of such an agency would be desirable.

Nevertheless, the establishment of a central repair workshop raises certain problems. In many regions

where businessmen are already operating relatively simple machinery, it is possible to find workers who are prepared to carry out repairs on this machinery but their equipment for doing so is primitive. Under these circumstances, the repairs, which can be made in a central repair shop in a few hours, require many days of laborions work. These workers lose their jobs when a central repair shop is established.

There is, on the other hand, a danger that in a modern enterprise like a central repair shop the administration may develop out of all proportion to the size and profitability of the enterprise, with the result that the cost of the jobs to be done will be high. The customer will have to consider carefully whether the repairs may not be cheaper when carried out in the traditional way with hammer and chisel, even if he has to wait longer.

Another question to be decided is whether the central repair shop should be a governmental or private enterprise. Who is to provide the funds and administer the enterprise? Are funds available from development aid or will the Government have to provide the money? If the enterprise is to be run privately, how can prices be controlled?

Mention should finally be made of the mobile workshop, which has proved its value all over the world and which should be particularly important for developing countries. Industrial enterprises in developing countries are often spread over a wide area or are located far from the industrial and transport centres. Under these conditions, mobile workshops can significantly assist individual establishments in carrying out repairs and even maintenance.

A mobile workshop is generally mounted on or in a normal vehicle, such as a lorry or station wagon, or a vehicle with special features is used. The size and the equipment obviously depend on the type and vehime of the jobs to be carried out. The vehicle should not only serve to transport the equipment but also to provide working space for several craftsmen. The craftsmen, including the driver, should be trained in as many skills as possible.

The functions of the mobile workshop are to diagnose mechanical defects and to carry out the necessary repairs on the spot. The craftsmen decide whether they can make the repair with the equipment of then particular workshop or whether a part must be brought to the central workshop. Straightforward repair work and the production of simple spare parts can usually be carried out on the spot. In other cases the damagepart must be removed and brought to the centworkshop to be repaired or remade. If the wholmachine is found in need of a general overhaul, generally must be sent to the central repair shop. F this purpose a fleet of transport vehicles belonging the central repair shops must be available on reque To determine how many of these vehicles are requiin a region and what their capacity should be is often problematic. The requirements can in most cases be definitely determined first after the elapse of an initial period of operation.

Central workshops, mobile workshops, transport facilities for the central workshops as well as the supplies of material and spare parts for these repair shops and the shops within industrial enterprises must be regarded as necessary elements of a complete system for repair. The establishment of such a system requires thorough planning with due regard to the present and future industrial structure and location and the resources available.

REPAIR WORKSHOPS IN INDIA

Rural Areas

The changes that have been taking place in Indian agriculture in recent years are the result of a conscious policy of the Government to encourage mechanized farming. Initially, the Government advanced a large number of loans to farmers for the purchase of tractors and equipment, and the effect of this policy on farm productivity has been heartening. However, because of inadequate maintenance facilities, much costly equipment has remained understillized. For the farmer in a remote village, it is by no means easy to make arrangements for the repair of his tractor, implements and pump etc. when they break down. The nearest workshop, which itself is poorly organized and has the scantiest facilities, is perhaps miles and miles away, and no quick and economical means of transport and communication are available. With the growth of mechanized farming, repair and maintenance, which used to be the domain of the village mistri (technician skilled through experience alone), the blacksmith and the carpenter, is changing its character. With the everincreasing mimber of tractors, implements, pumps, motors and the like, the need for better facilities for maintenance is beginning to be felt.

The increasing affluence of the village farmers and the conventional repairmen has led to the evolution of a new class of entrepreneurs, the once skilled *mistri* becoming the owner of a small workshop having a lathe or two in addition to a few other machines. Many such workshops have sprung up in areas where skilled craftsmen were concentrated; for example, Ludhiana in northern India, which was once famous for its artisans, has become a sizable industrial centre with numerous small factories manufacturing sewing machines, bicycles and even machine tools, besides many other consumer goods. Many of the small workshops working as ancillaries to the larger manufacturing units can provide the necessary maimenance facilities for farm machinery.

In the rural sector, the need for proper repair and maintenance of farm and other equipment is, however.

hardly recognized, owing to the farmers' lack of experience. The small village workshop owners are equally ignoram when it comes to maintenance of their own machines. Both groups are only now becoming aware of the advantages of increased machine productivity resulting from better maintenance, perhaps because a son or a relative of the farmer or the workshop owner has received formal training in mechanics at the nearest industrial framing institute. Much, however, remains to be done to improve the maintenance facilities for fractors, implements and the like.

Since farms are scattered, and this is particularly true of a sprawling country like India, it is not economically feasible for each farmer to have his own well-equippedmaintenance facilities because of the large initial investment involved.

In general, each of the tiny workshops ran by the skilled tradesmen, which now exist in the nearest small towns, specializes in a specific trade, e. g. a person with some knowledge of turning may have one or more lathes only. Similarly, the blacksmith and the carpenter have the skills of their respective trades only. Thus, having a tractor repaired, for example, is especially difficult because the farmer has neither the means of transportation nor the time to go from place to place to collect the necessary spares and to bring them to a repair workshop.

For equipment like tractors and pumps and equipment used in small metalworking factories, it is essential to have a set of spares handy if long downtimes are to be avoided. This implies stocking of important spares, which involves tremendous cost and would be a most uneconomical undertaking for the individual farmer or the small industrialist.

The establishment of maintenance workshops by private entrepreneurs and farmer co-operatives

It is urgent that the Government encourage the setting up of comprehensive maintenance workshops in the small towas most accessible to villages nearby. Enterprising private individuals and/or agricultural and industrial co-operatives could establish st. It workshops, in which the most frequently required spares could be stocked. To encourage such action the Government could:

- (a) Make credit available on favourable terms to individuals or co-operatives to enable them to purchase machines for maintenance. Those granted credit should have demonstrated their technical and administrative ability.
- (b) Provide at subsidized rates plots of land, with an assured supply of power and water, for sening up maintenance workshops.
- (c) Give incentives to trade apprentices in the various industrial training institutes in the vicinity to accept employment in village.

workshops. Such employment, could perhaps be made a condition of admission to the institutes.

(d) Besides the training in specific crafts that workers receive at the industrial training institutes, it is also desirable to have courses for training mechanics in various fields. This can obviate the necessity of employing many specialized craftsmen in small workshops.

Mobile workshops run by companies selling farm equipment

Mobile workshops are extremely useful for servicing an extensive area. Such workshops, which perhaps contain a lathe, a drilling machine, a shaper, welding set, working table and workmen's important tools and instruments etc. are set up in specially constructed trucks. The power for running the machines is provided either by an independent diesel engine generating set or is taken from the engine of the truck. In areas where there are no roads suitable for motor vehicles, animaldriven carts are used.

It will be in the interest of companies selling tractor and farm equipment to run mobile workshops as a regular part of their after-sales service. These workshops, operating from a central location, can cover an area of about 60 square miles. The companies can also store centrally the necessary spares and maintenance materials.

In India, the government-run small industries service institutes (SISIs) in the various states have set up many village extension centres and mobile workshops. These centres and mobile workshops provide repair and maintenance facilities for mechanized equipment in remote villages. Even if there were a sufficient number or well-equipped workshops in the nearest towns, they could not economically meet the maintenance needs of these villages. Small-scale industry in rural areas consists mostly of manufacture of agricultural implements, vooden and steel furniture, toys; processing of agricultural produce; fabrication work etc. The maintenance facilities described so far will serve the purpose of all such units fairly well.

Urban areas

Small-scale industries in urban areas have special features of their own. The two main types of small units are: ancillary industries, which are feeder units for the large-scale sector; and general-purpose units manufacturing a large variety of consumer and other goods. Both types of unit have grown substantially over the last twenty years.

Most small units have no separate maintenance section, and in most cases there may not be sufficient justification for having one. The machines—sometimes quite modern and sophisticated ones—are maintained either by the operators themselves or at best by a few fitters/electricians who have very little knowledge of the machine, not to mention the repair and maintenance it requires. In any case, repairs are made only when the machine breaks down. When production is urgent, the owner/manager devotes considerable effort to getting the machine repaired, but if production is not urgent, the costly machines and equipment are normally left entirely to the care of the fitters. It is quite common to hear that extremely costly and sophisticated equipment, imported by small units only after overcoming enormous difficulties, is lying idle or grossly underutilized because of poor or no facilities for maintenance.

Facilities within factories

Most factories rely on their production operatives for maintenance of the machines. This is partical the true of industries employing basic machine tools (lathe shapers, milling machines, grinders) in their production processes. Here production and maintenance interests normally clash, and the owners/managers tend to favour production at the expense of maintenance.

Factories using special-purpose machines for producing consumer and other goods do have some semblance of maintenance crews, but their function is usually to repair as quickly as possible machines that have broken down. The quality of maintenance is generally ignored.

Wherever basic machine tools are employed in production processes, production is too frequently interrupted in order to make the spare parts required for maintenance. But industries employing special-purpose machines for production seldom have maintenance machining facilities of their own on account of the large initial investment involved.

Outside maintenance facilities

Small units have their maintenance machining jobs done by outside factories in the vicinity or in the nearest small industries service institute. They employ their own maintenance personnel, however, as the skills required by a particular unit are seldom available from outside.

The disadvantages of using outside maintenance machining ficilities are:

- (a) It is usually difficult to get precision jobs done satisfactorily by outside parties because the operator making the spare part will have no knowledge of its functional importance.
- (b) Only small units, which are generally inefficient normally take on small maintenance machinejobs. The poor service they provide can her to loss of precious production time for the are purchasing the service.
- (c) The cost of odd jobs done by outside spunits would be generally exorbitant because the non-repetitive nature of the jobs.

Whether it is better to have the maintenance machining facilities within the industry or to purchase outside services will depend upon:

- (a) The availability of facilities in the vicinity;
- (b) The cost of downtime of the production equipment. Industries working at capacity may opt for their own facilities in spite of the heavy initial investment involved;
- (c) The extent to which outside sources have the skills necessary to undertake jobs requiring quality and precision.

Since the machining facilities required for most maintenance jobs are highly capital-intensive, the development of specialized maintenance workshops (common facility centres) should be encouraged. As mentioned earlier, a specific problem in the setting up of outside facilities for repair is to determine whether they should be private or public. The experience gained so far in developing countries like India shows that it is generally very difficult to maintain the economic viability of commercial workshops because of the uncertainty regarding the work load. Privately owned workshops that take on some regular manufacturing activities in addition to the maintenance service they provide to other factories find it easier to remain in business. The viability of the workshops also depends on how efficiently they are planned and managed. In

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the viemity of all the important centres of small-scale industrial activity there will always be a great need for their services, in particular for precision jobs.

Government agencies like small industries service institutes, which are mostly located near the areas where small upits are concentrated, and prototype production-cum-training centres provide very useful maintenance services. The main advantages these public agencies have over the privately owned workshops are:

- (a) They have all the machines and equipment required for maintenance jobs.
- (b) They do not lack trained and skilled personnel because the stability offered by governmental service continues to be attractive for most people.
- (c) They generally encounter fewer difficulties in procuring scarce and imported materials and spare parts to keep their machines and equipment in running order.

Nevertheless, the efficiency of the services they provide to small units is not what it should be. This is mainly because the personnel in these agencies lack incentives to give good service promptly.

The following tables give the estimated costs for a village block workshop, a mobile workshop för ruralareas and an urban common facility maintenance shopfor small-scale industries in India.

Initial cost of land, buildings and equipment Land, buildings, power and water connex- ions etc. Centre lathe Drilling machine Welding -quipment – both gas and electric Beach grinder Testing equipment for fuel injection system Miscellaneous facilities (fitting beach and vice, tools etc.)	Estimated cost in US dollars 2,600 5,000 1,500 1,500 1,000 400 7,000	PersonnelIn addition to the owner/manager who should be a person with rechnical back- ground and should be responsible for organizing and maintaining the facilities, purchasing, billing and collection, trouble shooting and general administration func- tions, the following staff is needed:One general-purpose machinist who can operate lathe, drill, grinder and welding	Yearly salary m-US dollars
Vorking capital Cost of stocking necessary spares for trac-	600 18,600	one general-purpose mechanic or finer specialized in antomobile mantenance. (The number of such mechanics can be	80x3
tors, pumps, motors, diesel cugines, and normal materials required for mainten- ance	2,(1111	mereased depending upon the work load.) One general-purpose helper I otal cost	900) 3681 2,600)

Table 1 REQUIREMENTS OF TYPICAL VIELAGE BLOCK WORKSHOP IN INDIA

Table 2

REQUIREMENTS OF TYPICAL MOBILE WORKSHOP FOR RURAL AREAS IN INDIA

Plant and equipment 3- or 5-ton truck with special body Centre lathe Drilling machine Welding equipment both gas and electric Bench grinder Shaper Workbench, tools etc. Electric generating set diesel (optional) Heat-treatment furnace and forge	Estimated cost in US dollars 5,000 1,500 1,000 400 600 1,500 2,000 2,000	cost in S dollarsIt is proposed that the mobile workshops be operated by SISI under the supervision of extension officers specially trained for maintenances. The salary of such personnel is not accounted for. Other personnel required are:4(0)Truck driver-cum-generating set operator Machinist9,000Turner			
Total cost	19,000	Turner	900		
Working capital For special steels, spares and other material for maintenance, travelling, fuel oils and other charges	2,000	Fitter, forgeman	900 900 5,400		

Table 3

REQUIREMENTS OF TYPICAL COMMON FACILITY MAINTENANCE SHOP FOR SMALL INDUSTRIES IN URBAN AREAS IN INDIA

Initial cost of land, buildings and equipment	Estimated cost in US dollars	Personnel In addition to the owner/manager who	
Land and buildings	7,000	should be a person with technical back-	
Two centre lathes one for precision jobs and the other for general-purpose turning jobs Universal milling machine Surface grinder	10,000 8,000 6,000	ground and who will be responsible for the utilization of facilities, purchasing, billing, collection, recruitment and train- ing of staff and general administration, the following technical personnel is	
Shaper	1,200	necdul:	
Drifting machine- which can also work as a vertical boring machine	3,000		Yearly salary in US dollars
Bench grinder	400	Two turners (\$990 each)	1,800
Welding equipment both gas and electric	1,000	One machinist	900
 A heat-treatment furnace and a small forge. Miscellaneous equipment for fitting jobs 	2,000	One welder/heat-treatment operator One general purpose fitter/forgeman, with	Y (X)
(benches, vices, tools etc.)	1,000	some training in electrical jobs	900
Office equipment and furniture etc.	800	One die fitter	900
Testes	41 0.00	(\$600) each)	1,200
l otal cost	41,00R)	Total cost	6.600
Working capital			
For stocking the normal spares, tools and materials for maintenance jobs, electri- city, gas etc.	2.00	The exact number of persons however sh upon the work load; it is most importan closely the utilization of maintenance workers	ould depend t to contro

A compendium of industrial plant models

INTRODUCTION

Experts engaged in the task of scanning and screening specific project proposals for industrial planning are constantly in search of relevant reference data, especially data concerning the techno-economic characteristics of a great variety of industrial plants or establishments. In a way, every expert has his own "compendium of plant models", partly noted in his memory, partly stored on his shelves, partly to be recovered from his professional contacts etc.

These compendia, held as a personalized stock of knowledge and experience, are often no more than a hotchpotch of engineering handbooks, partial blueprints of factories, financial reports of corporations, scraps from trade journals, and even chit-chat. Despite its critical role in guiding each expert's work and judgement, one can seldom attach any rigorous concept of "norms" to such a personal compet dium. And, just as tantalizing as its conceptual looseness is the fact that its coverage, in terms of various industrial branches and of national and regional environments responsible for differential characteristics of plant performance, is limited.

This article will address itself to the issue of "personal compendia" of plant models by reviewing in detail one example of such compendia. The tabular projection given by the compiler was the product of his research effort, rather loosely controlled but sustained for many months on the strength of his personal interest. The example thus represents a personal compendium that is quite extensive in coverage.

The compiler of this particular compendium admits that the parameters characterizing most of the models are no more than a loose compound of the features of industrial firms he has observed in various localities and his theoretical expectations based on the engineering handbook type of information, used for adjustment purposes. Although the compiler's own notes included observations on individual cases such as "economically

feasible", "believed to fall short of the minimum economical size" etc., these statements were not necessarily based on a formal analysis of given plant parameters. It seems that the compiler himself did not have an opportunity to examine his entire compendium in terms of profitability under reasonable factor price conditions.

This article offers a profitability analysis of the data in the same compendium. It uses a simple and quick graphical method, which may be easily applied to the plant or enterprise characteristics expressed by a limited number of parameters. While the method is extremely simple, it can guide the search for compilation errors, accidental cases, misleading observations etc. and thus locate any serious ambiguities and biases in the available information.

A continuing concern of UNIDO in carrying out its technical assistance activities for the developing countries has been to clarify data pertaining to plants and enterprises. The publication of the *Profiles of Manufacturing Establishments*¹ can be mentioned as one such effort. The UNIDO profiles programme itself has evolved with the broader aim of promoting and supporting co-ordinated field action in individual developing countries by uncarthing more and better "micro-data" for industrial programming. The latest developments in the UNIDO profiles programme will be briefly reviewed at the end of this article.

PERSONAL COMPENDIUM: AN EXAMPLE

A specialist in industrial location planning recently devised what he called a "system of techno-economic

¹ ID/SER, E/4 (Vol. I) and ID/SER, E/5 (Vol. II) have alreadybeen published (Sales Nos. 67, II, B, F7 and 68, H, B, T3, respectively). Vol. III of this series, containing a collection of datafrom a different group of countries, will be published soon. indicators.". The author, Ivan Kresić,² was unaware of the existence of the UNIDO profiles programme, which, although broader in scope, has the same objective as the Kresić study, namely to help planners in orienting and programming industrial development. His collection was much less ambitions in its scope and coverage than the UNIDO *Profiles* and consequently less flexible in its utility as reference data. It has so far covereil 400 "models", or, more precisely, "specimens" of Yugoslav industrial enterprises. A tabulation of the "indicators" of these models is given in the annexes to this article. A few characteristics of this tabulation may be noted.

First, most of the individual models are based on observations of plants or enterprises currently operating in Yugoslavia. There are a few exceptions, such as no. 46 (integrated oil refinery) and no. 96 (thermal power plant), which include some extrapolations based on technological or engineering estimates. Most models reflect the socio-political features of the Yugoslav economy during the years of reference (the second half of the 1960s -- mostly 1966) as well as local peculiarities of the individual cases. In translating actual cases into "models", the compiler attempted to normalize the estimates in each case by smoothing out random shocks or elements susceptible to temporary fluctuations. The normalization was performed mostly in a loose manner; sometimes the compiler used statistical averages, sometimes arbitrary adjustments of performance records for engineering norms (c. g. production adjusted for normal capacity utilization). A vaguely prescribed mixture of engineering and economic considerations is characteristic of this type of personal compendium.

Second, the sampling of reference plants was not systematically linked to the characteristics of the Yugoslav population (e. g. taking the quartile, quintile etc. of the size distribution of plants in each branch) nor to the trend and pattern of technological variations at the world level. For some inclustries, the compiler managed to find a few comparable cases representing different technologies and plant sizes producing similar products, but for other cases, he was unable to find the necessary data. The compendium is thus highly incomplete in its coverage,

Finally, the number of parameters from which each model is constructed is quite small. For some reason, the author failed to include data on the value of raw materials, which makes it difficult to establish the value added through the operation of specific plants. The parameters included in the compendium are as follows:

- (a) Fixed and working capital—expressed in terms of the US dollar equivalent and based on the price level prevailing in Yugoslavia around 1966. Note that a significant proportion of industrial equipment has been domestically produced and its price is comparable to the international peice. The price of imported machinery includes customs duties up to 30 per cent.
- (b) Site requirements—measured in square metres and distinguished as between roofed and nonroofed sites.
- (c) Labour requirements—broken down into highly skilled (managers, professional engineers etc.); skilled (skilled workers, technical and administrative personnel); and tinskilled (workers with no formal education and training). No information pertaining to the average wage levels is given.
- (d) Value and quantity of ontput—given for all the major products of a plant as total monetary value and weight (usually metric tons) of annual output.
- (e) Electric power and industrial water consumption.
- (f) Major raw materials—identity and weight (metric tons) given to indicate the basic production in each plant.
- (g) Transport requirements—classified as inputoutput ratio in terms of gross physical weight of the purchased raw materials and of the final products of a plant.

An analysis of economic efficiency

The omission of data indicative of commercial viability may have been intentional, but this is quite unfortunate if one wishes to distinguish between economically viable and non viable "models" under the given circumstances. Therefore, the analyst made an effort to guess the approximate value-added content of the production for each case, using other sources of information relating to the cost of raw materials. Once this information is given, the compendium easily lends itself to a synoptical analysis of the relative "economic" positions of the plants included in it.

Figure 1, a scatter diagram, shows the amount of capital and labour employed per dollar's worth of net output (value added) in each plant (identified by the attached numeral). The two co-ordinates for the scatters are:

- Vertical axis-total value of both fixed and working capital divided by net output;
- Horizontal axis-total man-years of labour (unit: 1/1,000) adjusted for skill composition divided by net output.

The adjusted man-years represent unskilled labour equivalent: i. e. highly skilled and skilled workers, respectively, were counted as five and three times the

² Currently Head of the Department of Territorial Development at the Zagreb Institute of Economics, Zagreb, Yugoslavia, UNIDO wishes to express its gratitude to the author, who has kindly agreed to the use of his personal compendium for this article.

Figure 1 CAPITAL AND LABOUR PER DOLLAR'S WORTH OF OUTPUT AND



K = Capital; L == Labour; V == Value added

equivalent of unskilled workers. (The weights are related to the average wage and salary levels applicable to the different skill categories.)

The plotted points may be called "iso-income" (= \$1) points, since they indicate different combinations of capital and labour required to earn one dollar of value added. These iso-income points are then contrasted with the aid of two sets of factor-price assumptions. The lower iso-cost line (line A-B) is drawn on the assumption that the average yearly cost of financing

- Aller

and maintaining the original investment will not exceed 18 per cent of the total capital requirements, and the wage for one man-year of unskilled labour will be about \$1,500. The higher iso-cost line (line C D) assumes the cost of capital to be 12 per cent per year and the yearly wage to be \$600. These assumed figures are probably reasonable for Yugoslav enterprises. Note that any point on these iso-cost lines represents the combination of capital and labour at their given prices that a one-dollar annual budget can afford. The area bounded by the two separate iso-cost lines indicates, therefore, the cuttre range of different input combinations that can be purchased per dollar (per annum), if the input prices remain within the specified bounds. Needless to say, the general slope of such an iso-cost belt differs from country to country and depends on the relative factor supply situation in each country. The width of the belt depends on the competitiveness of factor markets within the country, and this in turn depends on banking systems, labour mobility etc.

If a simple commercial profitability criterion is used, the diagram makes possible a quic! comparison of the economic efficiency, in commercial terms of individual plants. According to the conceptual construction, plants operating with the input combinations represented by any point below the iso-cost belt are clearly profitable, while those with the input combinations found in the area above the iso-cost belt are in difficulty. Plants operating within the iso-cost belt are borderline cases, either making profit or loss depending on the actual input prices they happen to be paying. But they will not suffer losses provided that the wage rates for unskilled labour are no higher than \$600 per annum and the depreciation and interest charges together do not exceed 12 per cent per annum.

The diagram clearly reveals that some of the "models" in the compendium are simply bad models—the plants are either technologically obsolete or their management is poor.³ There are even a few cases (nos, 90 and 91) lying beyond the upper margin of the diagram and another few (nos. 28, 67 and 69) beyond the right-hand margin. One may well suspect that these extreme cases are either subject to errors in observation or refer to firms on the verge of bankruptey. Most of such poor cases are in fact noted by the author of the compendium as being "uneconomic" or "obsolete" models. But a clearer indication of how poor those poor cases are would be of great help to those using such a compendium.

Relative efficiency of plants in each industry group

The economic analysis presented in figure 1 is equally applicable to a comparison of the efficiency of firms in different branches of industry and of those within any particular branch. Since the compendium is intended explicitly to point out the existence of alternative plant models producing either identical or similar products. the changing pattern of factor input combination as between the alternative models within each industry group can itself be an important object of study.

In figure 2, those points representing alternative models producing identical or similar products are connected by straight lines. For visual clarity, unique cases which cannot be compared with others in the compendium have been omitted in figure 2. Heavy dots denote the most efficient plants in each of the different industry groups indentified in the compendium. For example, the brewery industry has four alternatives: nos. 16 to 19. The most efficient brewery plant (nos, 19) is located below the iso-cost belt. The second and third most efficient plants (nos. 18 and 17) are located within the belt. The least efficient brewery (no. 16) is located above the belt and appears clearly unprofitable.

Price efficiency and technical efficiency

The relative efficiency of individual plants can be measured by their relative distance from the origin of the diagram. However, the path connecting different models in each group (such as 16-17-18-19; 48-49-50 etc.) does not necessarily point towards the origin; its slope varies from group to group. If this path should have a negative slope, one might be tempted to associate it with the "production function" of the given industry or the so-called "iso-quant" showing alternative factor combinations to produce the same output. Such points may be considered to have equal technological efficiency, their relative efficiency varying only in terms of "price efficiency"-i. e. the extent to which they are fit to given relative factor prices (slope of the iso-cost line).

Connexion lines with negative slopes occur in a few cases in figure 2: two plastic articles plants, nos. 86 and 87; two bakeries, nos. 7 and 9; two lime plants, nos. 59 and 61; and two dairy products firms, nos. 2 and 3; etc. Of these cases, nos, 7 and 9 seem to have different product mixes (no. 7 produces biscuits and wafers at a relatively high price per kilogram of output, while no. 9 produces bread and rolls, the average price per kilogram of which is only one fourth of that of the products of no. 7).4 Apart from this complication, there is a chance that each of these pairs will be regarded as being indifferent in terms of "technological efficiency". Especially, locus 86-87 has a slope comparable to that of the iso-cost belts, so the efficiency of these two points may be considered comparable both technologically and economically.

The relative profitability positions are rather obvious for those points connected by lines running from northeast to south-west. But for the purpose of measuring

³ "Over-employment" of labour is not a very surprising phenomenon under Yugoslav conditions around 1966. Also, one might suspect that the horizontal scatters would be sensitive to the relative weights attached to different skill categories in obtaining the adjusted man-year data. However, this does not prove to be the case, giving a lower weight to skilled labour does not result in any notable improvement in the relative positions of those problematic models.

⁴ Also, No. 42 (benzene plant) should be so isolated from Nos. 43--46 (petroleum refineries).



relative profitability in terms of any quancitative index, both the general slope of the plant path for each group and the slope of the relevant iso-cost line should be taken into account. In fact, the precise way of measuring the relative profitability is to draw a family of parallel iso-cost lines going through every point to be compared. The relative distance of these parallel lines from the origin then readily gives the relative efficiency index for each point. Such indexes can, of course, be established for points belonging to different industry groups as

well. For example, the economic efficiency of plant no. 96 (thermal power plant), although its iso-income point is located farther from the origin than that of no. 19 (brewery plant), is quite comparable to the economic efficiency of no. 19, if the prevailing relative factor price is represented by line A--B.

Technological change and economies of scale

The slope of the connexion line for each group may be interpreted as indicating the development path

of technology in that industry. The diagram reveals that the technological development path in this sense, as envisaged in this compendium, has been both labourand capital-saving or rather "neutral", although there are a number of cases in which capital-labour ratios tend to increase as efficiency increases.

Though not so explicitly indicated in figure 2, the data in the compendium reveal the tendency for higher efficiency to be associated with larger plants. Economies of scale thus appear to play a prominent role in the process of "modernization". The notable exceptions are two footwear plants (nos. 25 and 26), of which the modern, large-capacity plant proves to be inferior in terms of economic efficiency (possibly because of over-employment of labour); two plants producing plastic articles (nos. 86 and 87) differ in scale of production in the ratio of nearly 1:3 but are almost equally efficient.

One should note that an "industry group" in the present context is a much more homogeneous concept than what would normally obtain with the statistical classification, say, on a two- to three-digit level. Evidence of scale economies becomes less systematic when firms engaged in similar lines of activity have different product mixes and process mixes. Examples are: no. 32 (chipboard) and no. 33 (fibreboard); no. 42 (benzene plant) and no. 44 (petroleum refinery); no. 62 (prefabricated building elements) and no. 64 (insulation materials for building); no. 76 (tools for machines) and no. 78 (materials-handling equipment); no. 75 (hardware) and no. 79 (metal containers); etc.5

Government price and subvention policies

Of the 100 specimens in the compendium, as many as 46 have proved to be uneconomic. Most of these represent smaller and less efficient plants in various industries, whose more efficient plants have no problem in earning moderate to high profits. Some of these inefficient plants, if actually surviving, must have already written off their original investments, or they may be granned special subsidies in open or hidden forms. In fact, the revenues of some of these plants are not even large enough to cover wages. This means that the plants are using workers whose wages are substantially standard or whose wages are supplemented by various subsidies mentioned above.

On the one hand, some industries in the compenduare represented by rather inefficient specimens, we even the most efficient one in each group located abthe iso-cost belt (alumina and aluminium plants, now and 66; steelworks, nos. 71, 72 and 73; iron foundanos, 67, 68, 69 and 70; footwear, nos. 25 and 26). I the other hand, there are some "glamour" indust whose constituent firms invariably do well (feedmanos, 12, 13 and 14; petroleum refineries, nos, 42, 43, 45 and 46; etc.).

To a certain extent, every economy is bound to has some troubled or "sick" industries along with meamodern and progressive industries, especially when the pace of industrialization is accelerating and the structuaof demand radically changing. Sometimes official price control can be responsible for an apparent profitabiley disparity between industries. Sometimes a "new" basaindustry may be forced to keep its product prices at an arbitrarily low level for some reason, thus receiving heavy subsidies. A country's over-all trade policies, tax and subsidy schemes, employment policies etc. are meant to achieve efficiency in the economy as a whole, but it is important constantly to review the impact of these policies on the individual plant or firm while these policies are being implemented.

Conclusions

Not all the data given in this compendium represent economically feasible plant models. Some models are obsolete and some are about to go bankrupt. The technical parameters of these problematic models may still have some reference value if substantiated by a proper post-mortem analysis of the individual cases. The usefulness of the compendium would be greatly enhanced if the compiler appended to each model, whether or not it is economic, information regarding managerial competence, governmental intervention, capital vintage, locational peculiarities etc.

Of course, there cannot be a single "best" way of producing, for example, ball-point pens. A process proposed as a technologically optimum prototype must still be combined with other related technical and organizational requirements before an "enterprise" a real economic unit-can be based on it. A complete plant layout that has proved highly economic ender particular local conditions cannot be assumed to 50 bunder other local conditions. The difficulty of lishing programming norms in terms of strictly stministic, single-value parameters is well known 155 ment programming thus consists of an iterative al of searching and screening a broad range of techni :05 and economic possibilities. This process can u

⁵ Recall that production capacity is in this context measured in terms of value added. When capacity is measured in physical units of output or of major input material, relative efficiency indexes may change, reflecting out significant differences in the unit prices of cutputs and or inputs. For example, No. 22 (conon-spinning null schedule undattich small-capacity unit with 22,000 spindles, self- us products of 2000 for at an average price of \$3.30 per kg, while New 31. There capacity is nearly 2.5 times as large as the other notion and of output (2,880 f), carns a 25 per cent low of the output of output (2,880 f), carns a 25 per cent low of the output of the lower prices of its products. Similarly the To host technology has a physically larger capacity, and a lot of the output (2,000 ct price, than No. 72 (integrated state of the low of the output files examples, the larger plants are show of the output prote efficient.

from all possible sources and one important source is knowledge of industrial firms in various countries.

A personal compendium, taken largely as a hotchpotch of vaguely screened plant models, is seldom exposed to a systematic examination and may thus suffer laciniae not only in terms of its coverage bat also m regard to the analytical substance required for feasibility considerations. The particular collection considered here happens to be lacking in the data necessary for assessment of value added. As a result, extremely profitable cases have been included along with atterly unprofitable ones. with little indication of factors accounting for these gaps. This collection had originally been intended for the programming of industrial location alone, and thus the requirements of site, water and electricity and physical weights of output and input materials were the major concern of its author. However, the data on labour and equipment, collected on the side, happen to show that nearly one half of the compiled cases must be improfitable models. Great care ought to be taken, therefore, in using the entire compendium.

The analytical exercise conducted on these data in this article is indeed a very simple one, requiring only a plausible set of assumptions regarding wage rates and capital costs. But the method is quite expeditions in evaluating the relative positions of different plants and enterprises in terms of economic efficiency, and thus pointing out what kind of additional information will be needed if one wishes to translate particular experience to accommodate the needs in different economic situations.

The scope of personal compendia is severely limited to what each individual has encountered in his professional experience. On the one hand, economists, even if they are supposed to play an active role in investment programming and promotion, seem to be of little help in dealing with plant-level problems, nor do they take the initiative in searching for specific investment opportunities. On the other hand, engineers may have far deeper knowledge of specific ways of doing things in the industries in which they are specialized, but they do not concern themselves much with what goes on in other industries and show little interest in the variation of market conditions from one place to another. As close co-operation between these two professions is essential in industrial programming-particularly project development—the concept of plant models ought to be evolved in such a way as to facilitate mutual communication between them. An explicit presentation of personal knowledge in profiles, compendia, or other forms of programming data would certainly broaden the possibilities for such professional co-operation.

THE UNIDO PROFILES PROGRAMME

If personal compendia of plant models could be compiled in comparable form, great savings in the time of experts working in industrial project development could be achieved. The UNHDO series *Profiles of Manufacturing Establishments* was initiated primarity to serve as a catalyst m promoting a broader recognition of the practical usefulness of such statistics and in stimulating co-ordinated action at both the national and the multinational levels. It has already had considerable impact.

The institutions for industrial project programming and promotion in a number of developing countries have shown their interest in the profiles type of data collection covering local industrial emerprises as well as new investment opportunities. As a result, the UNHDO profiles programme now includes, for countries requesting it, the provision of technical assistance in designing special approaches to data collecting suitable to local needs and in training the necessary field study staff.

It is important to note that the profiles compilation should be handled rather differently from the conventional census type of statistical survey. The depth of information to be collected should be adequate to permit a professional assessment of the techno-economic problems and potentials of each individual plant and enterprise considered, and this requirement can be met only with active support from the authorities who are themselves the primary users of the resulting profiles, ideally, industry profiles at the plant or enterprise level should be compiled by those who are rendering consulting services for individual enterprises in productivity, management and technological matters.

UNIDO is working jointly with the Industrial Development Centre for Arab States (IDCAS) to design "productivity profiles"; this is an example of field operations carried out under the UNIDO profiles programme. A joint UNHDO-HDCAS preparatory working group met first in Beirm from 4 to 7 May 1970. and forimilated the basic guidelines for the development of an analytically oriented version of the profiles to support the fDCAS productivity programme, the goal of which is to promote and co-ordinate productivity extensions services for industrial enterprises at the national and the multinational levels. The "profiles" component of the productivity programme in this region is now intended to offer: (a) a set of technoeconomic guidelines for evaluating factory performance; (b) yardsticks for comparing the technological and economic efficiency of different firms; and (c) an evaluation scheme to pinpoint strong and weak points in each firm. The standard format for such profiles is designed on an industry-by-industry basis jointly by technologists, engineers and accountants experienced in each branch of industry. A workshop on productivity profiles was held in Cairo, 6 -30 July 1970, dealing with three branches of industry: spinning and weaving of cotton, processing of vegetable oils and fats, and milling of grain. It is planned to hold a second workshop in 1971

to cover other industries such as cement, glass and ceramics, food-canning, printing etc., and these workshops are to be followed up by an annual evaluation session for the field study teams in various countries.

Government authorities need an appropriate form of communication with the management of individual enterprises in order to determine what measures are necessary to promote development. The scope of information flowing through the existing reporting system from cuterprises to central planning authorities varies from country to country. In a state enterprise system, the current reporting may already cover information elaborate enough to affect over-all budgetary control at the state level. In a private enterprise system, the reporting routine may be limited mostly to the census type of statistical surveys. In both cases, the existing reporting systems could be greatly improved to facilitate decisions regarding structural changes within an enterprise or a group of enterprises, such as new investment proposals, rehabilitation proposals, multinational trade and co-operation agreements etc. Adoption of the profiles approach to data gathering would facilitate the formulation of industrial development programmes and policies.

In 1970, a joint UNIDO-Bulgarian working group⁶ conducted an experiment with a view to improving the enterprise profiles to be used by the Bulgarian planning authority entrusted with investment project appraisal. The experiment included: (a) an examination of the comparability of basic economic and accounting terminologies between the NAS (Western) and the MPS (Eastern European) systems within the framework of

 The Bulgarian counterpart was composed of technical staff from the State Planning Committee of the People's Republic of Bulgaria and a few state industrial enterprises.

relatively simple, multi-industry type of enterprise profiles such as those appearing in the UNIDO Profiles; and (b) the compilation of "intra-firm input-output tables"-a new format for analytical presentation of capacity and performance data at detailed plant and subplant levels. The material balances and capacity specifications for individual departments or units classified with reference to each industry's basic process flow chart, the process-costing techniques framed according to the standard cycle of productive activities including factory overheads etc .- these major topics or subprofiles for structural and performance diagnosis can be more or less readily incorporated in a single inputoutput table compiled for each enterprise. It is hoped that the approach tested under this project will find practical applications in the various echelous of national industrial-development management, especially to facilitate transition from the detailed accounting and engineering data of individual enterprises to diagnosis and programming at the sectoral level.

The UNIDO profiles programme, which was originally no more than a publication of general-purpose source books, is thus being given the broader mission of improving the organization and utilization of microdata on industrial activities. This is not the place for reporting in detail on those latest developments connected with the UNHDO profiles. A full progress report and technical materials of general reference value will be published in due course in future issues of either this Bulletin (ID/SER. A) or the profiles series (ID/SER. E). Meanwhile, interested readers may wish to write for further information to: Industrial Policies and Programming Division, United Nations Industrial Development Organization. P. O. Box 707, A-1011 Vienna. Austria.



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ANNEX 1

LIST OF 100 PLANT MODELS IN THE EXAMPLE CONSIDERED

Plan	t no. ISIC ^a	• Type of plant	Annual capacity
1	201	Slaughterhouse	38.000 r
2	202	Dairy	60,000 L of milk processed
3	202	Dairy	100.000 L of milk processed
4	202	Dairy	300.000 L of milk processed
5	203	Fruit-inice plant +	
6	203	Fruit-inice plant	3 (4) #3 #
7	206	Biscuit and wafer factory	7 (4)) +
8	206	Bakery	S Sixie
9	206	Industrial bakery	15 (20) -
10	207	Sugar plant	201 (WWW as f enterne
11	207	Sugar plant	di) (NH) + of sugar
12	312	Soybean oil plant with animal feed factory	fill (NET + of contraine measured
13	209	Feed-mixing plant	33 (191) +
14	209	Feed factory	66 (NN) +
15	212	Wine cellar	Angener L
16	213	Brewery	Reserves LI
17	213	Brewery	tensensensensensensensensensensensensense
18	213	Brewery	
19	213	Brewery	27.723 (19.74) []] 4.74 (19.74) (19.74)
20	214	Soft drinks plant	F30787,0087 [1]
21	231	Cotton-spinning mill	DOUGHRY DI
22	231	Cottou-spinning mill	20,000 spindles
23	232	Cotton knitwear factory	22, that spindles
24	231	Weaving and finishing mill	20.87 £
25	241	Footwear factory	
26	241/30	10 Leather and rubber footwear	1 Educional pairs
27	243	Wearing apparel factory	1,248) - an annual an Arian Million
28	251	Plywood factory	A (W) and
29	251	Sawmill	TANA I HIMAN
30	260	Furniture factory	12 (00) units on summarily of 1 1 000
31	260	Metal furniture factory	6 (VY) +
32	271	Chipboard factory	7.000 +
33	271	Fibreboard factory	13.4893.
34	271	Pulp and paper mill	33 (110)
35	271	Pulp and paper mill	150 (NY) +
.36	272	Paper products plant	6 IVII -
37	291	Leather tannery	660 +
38	291	Leather tannery	1.200+
39	311	Integrated petrochemical works	20 (10) + of other and
			20 (00) t of other medium
40	311	Petrochemical works	200 non +
41	311	Fertilizer plant	470 000 •
42	321	Benzene plant	115 (10) +
43	321	Petroleum refinery	V0100 t of crude oil to be received
- 44	321	Petroleum refinery	500 (10) t of crude oil to be processed
-45	321	Petroleum refinery	2.000 000 t of crude all to be processed
46	321	Integrated petroleum refinery	S(N) (N) t of crude oil to be processed
47	329	Coke plant	660 (100 +
48	331	Brickworks	10 million units or 20,000
49. 164	.531	Brick and tile factory	25.000 to 30 000 to 18 million to
50) # +	331	Tile factory	43 million units of 45 000
51	3.52 *	Glassworks	1.000 r
54 52	3.52	Glassworks	27.(KN) r
33 84	3,54	Portland cement factory	110.000 +
34	5,54	Portland cement factory	220.000 r
			and the second

• United Nations, International Standar,¹ Industrial Classification of All Economic Activities, St/STAT/SER. 7/4/Rev. 1/Add. 1, Sales No.: 59.XVII.9.

Plant	no. ISIC	Type of plant	Annual and a
55	334	Portland coment factory	-numar capacity
56	334	Portland coment factory	.3.3(),(NH) 1
57	339	Structural clay product factory	SHIMM C
58	339	Plaster plant	60,000 m ³ granules
59	339	Hydrated lime plant	25,000 t
60	339	Line plant	27.(NN) t
61	339	Lime plant	27,(KR) t
62	339	Prefabricated concrete building material	.5.5,8889 (4.4 mm
63	339	Masonry with a concrete product manufacturing units	мна, при 1977. Покала П., 1977 1
64	339	Building elements (insulating materials)	176 (www.
65	342	Alumina plant	140378891 (198378893
66	342	Alumina and aluminium plant	- BERGERRET THE FORT A STATE OF THE STATE OF THE
		• • • • •	THE THE AND
67	341	Foundry	3.4 When of iron to be so we will be
68	341	Foundry	6.(XX) r of iron to be many 4
69	341	Foundry	12.000 t of iron to be measured
70	341	Foundry	20.000 t of iron to be processed
71	341	Steelworks	1 million t in torme of condo mad
72	341	Integrated steelworks	2 million t in terms of course and
73	341	Steelworks	4 million t in terms of crude seed
74	350	Forged steel products	5.(WK) t
/3		Hardware factory	6,(NN) t
		Tools for machines and other special neel products	250 t
	350	Machine tool plant	2,000 t
- /8	350	Materials-handling equipment factory	
/9	330	Metal container factory	10,000 t
017 101	300/370	riouschold appliance factory	7.509 :
91	301	I ransformer plant	Up to 18,000 t
83	383	Car parts plant	4,040) t
84	184	Car service snop	5.(XX) services
85	104	Car repair snop	10,000 cars
86	300	Car service and repair shop	
87	100	Plantic actory	330 to the second s
88	490	Planker' melden	
89	400	Building contractor	230,000 working hours
90	511	Hydrocheteic names along	LARKY dwelling units
91	511	Hydrocheetric names along	
92	511	Hydroelectric nawar nlans	
93	511	Thermal nower alant	
94	511	Thermal nower also	
95	511	Thermal power plant	163 MIN Sector States and the sector of t
96	511	Thermal power plant	n na hanna an shekara na shekara na shekara na na kara na shekara na shekara na shekara na shekara (inga sheka Mana karanza
97	833	Architectural design agency	
98	854	Laundry	MATAAN MUMBHIK HUHITS
99	854	Laundry	erne a lle ander en
100	854	Industrial laundry	new second for the second s Name as a second seco
		a contraction and the second	

ANNEX INDICATORS OF CHARACTERISTICS

- Second

Plant no.		1	2	3	4	5
(1SIC):		Slaughter (201)	Dairy (202)	Dairy (202)	Dairy (202)	Juices (203)
Capital Equipment (Ke) Building and land improvements (Ks) . Total working capital (Kw) Total capital requirement (K)	(US \$ million)	1.51 1.52 1.00 4.03	0.45 0.29 0.09 0.83	0.93 0.50 0.16 1.59	1.46 0.72 0.26 2.44	0.61 0.41 0.17 1.19
Site Roofed sites (S _r) of which for production (Srp) Total sites (S)	((XX) m²)	27. 0 15.0 ; 2 0.0	4.5 3,1 6.0	8.6 6.3 2 0.0	15.0 11.6 30.0	6.9 3.7 15.0
Employment Managers and highly skilled (L 1) Skilled (L 2) Unskilled (L 3) Total employment (L) Total skill adj: (L*)	(man-ycars)	60 320 260 640 1,520	14 70 36 120 316	20 76 35 125 345	23 137 60 220 586	17 80 23 120 348
Production Quantity (Qt) Value of production (Qt) Est. value added (V*)	(000 t/year) (\$ million/year)	35 23.7 5.4	3 1.6 0.45	10 2.6 0.77	13 8.0 2.5	1.5 0.72
Main raw materials M: (1)	(000 t/year)	1000 - 1000	20,000*	38,000+	110,000+	
Electricity and water Electricity (E) Water (W) of which: drinking water (W _d)	(million kWh/year) (000 m³/year) (m³/d)	2.8 324 1,080	0,3 250 850	0,4 530 1,800	1.2 1,500 3,800	0.3 260 1.800
Transport requirements Input materials (Tm) Products shipment (Tq)	(UN) t/year)	54 35	28	46	136	8
Ratios Capital/output ratio (K/Qs) Equipment per person (Ke/L) Buildings and land improvement cost per m² of roofed site (Ks/Sr) Percentage composition L 1 L 2 Average value per ton (Qs/Qt) Electricity consumption per ton of out-	(\$ 680) (\$/m²) (°) (°) (\$/t)	0,2 2,4 56 9 50 677	0,5 3,7 64 12 58 557	0,6 7.5 58 16 56 265	0.3 6.7 48 11 62 526	- 1.7 5.1 60 14 67 480
put (E/Q _i)	(kWh/t)	79	93	43	79	213
(W/Q ₁) Main raw materials per ton of output	(m³/t)	9	89	55	99	173
(Mn/Qt) Total transport per \$ of output	(1/1)	1.43	7.14	3,80	7.24	3.33
(T_{m+q}/Q_3)	(kg/S)	4	20	21	19	14

Note: ISIC refers to United Nations, International Standard Industrial Classification of all Economic Activities, St/STAT/SER. 7/4/Rev. 1/ Add. 1, Sales No.: 59. XVII.9.

* 000 litres.

OF 100 PLANT MODELS

6 Juices (203)	7 Bakery (206)	8 Bakery (206)	9 Bakery (206)	10 Sugar (<i>2</i> 07)	11 Sugar (207)	12 Oit (312)	13 Feed (209)	- 14 Feed (209)	15 Wine (212)	
0, 42 0, 22	0. 27 0.14	0. 33 0.19	0. 54 0. 2 0	5. 4 0 2.69	10,99	1.66	0.32	0,60	0,13	
0, 10 0, 74	0,0 3 0,44	0.0 2 0. 54	0.08 0.82	1.08 9.17	2.34 17.21	0.86 0.80 3.32	0,34 0,18 0,84	0,44 0,30 1,34	0.17 0.04 0.34	
3.3 1.8	2.9 1.6	4.7 2.7	3.1 2.8	15.2 5.4	2 0.1 9.8	6.0 3.0	3.5 2.8	4.8 1 8	8,0 8.0	
0.0	0.0	6,0	7.1	245 .0	305.1	50,0	6,0	8.8	15 ,0	
7 35 18 60 158	8 86 16 110 314	14 76 20 110 318	2 50 43 95 203	50 240 60 350 1,030	83 377 120 580 1,666	20 140 50 210 570	10 25 15 50 - 140	12 33 25 70 184	3 15 7 25 67	
3.5 0.84 0.19	2 1.3 0.71	8 0.99 0.33	14 1.8 0.90	14 5.8 2.4	40 11.6 4.8	55 7.6 1.3	30 2.2 0.58	60 4.2 1.1	3 0.55 0. 2 8	
			it -	1 50 -	30 0	69	22 9	39 23		
0,3 300 1,700	0.4 8 4	0.4 13	0,5 14 11	5,8 1,610 30	10.2 2,250 65	5.8 1,500 200	1.3 1 3	21 2 4	0.02 4 50	
		10	12 14	200 35	368 71	85 56	34 30	65 60		
0,9 6,9	n	0.5 3.0	0.5 5.7	1.6 15.4	1.5 19.0	0.4 7.9	0,4 6,4	0.3 8.6	0.6 5.1	
68 12 58 240	47 7 78 560	41 13 69 120	65 2 53 131	177 14 69 167	193 14 65 290	144 9 67 137	97 20 50 72	92 17 47 70	22 12 6()	
100	158	4	39	168	255	104	43	35	7	
116	3	1.6	1	47	56	27	0.04	0.04	1.3	
1.42	0 .99	0,77	0 .8	4.35	7.5	1.08	0.7	0.7	1.33	
12	4	18	10	41	38	19	30	30	14	

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ANNEX	2	(continued)	
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PLANT No:		16 Bravery	17 Brewery	18 Brewery	19 Brewery	20 Soft Drive
(ISIC):		(213)	(213)	(213)	(213)	(214)
Capital Equipment (Ke) Building and land improvements (K.) . Total working capital (K _w) Total capital requirement (K)	(US \$ million)	0.96 0.48 0.16 1.60	1.11 0,54 0.22 1.87	3.78 3.04 1.00 7.82	5.62 4.20 1.76 11.58	0,81 0,72 0,40 1,93
Site Roofed sites (S _r) of which for production (S _{rp}) Total sites (S)	(000 m²)	11,0 5,0 25 ,0	12.1 5.8 32.1	20.1 13.3 66.8	32.9 25.3 98.9	4,9 2,9 9,9
Employment Managers and highly skilled (L 1) Skilled (L 2) Unskilled (L 3) Total employment (L) Total skill adj: (L*)	(man-years)	11 74 15 100 292	15 85 30 130 360	34 300 96 420 1,156	48 317 145 510 1,336	7 54 73 134 270
Production Quantity (Qt) Value of production (Qs) Est. value added (V*)	(000 t/year) (\$ million/year)	5 0.54 0.28	10 1,1 0,55	50 5.3 2.7	100 10.8 5.5	15 3.5 1.8
Main raw materials M (1)	* (000 t/ycar)		2.5	9 0.5	1	
Electricity and water Electricity (E) Water (W) of which: drinking water (Wa)	(million kW/li/year) (000 m³/year) (m³/day)	0.6 250 140	1.1 400 200	3,6 850 300	9,0 1,320 500	1,0 80 49
Transport requirements Input materials (Tm) Products shipment (Tq)	(XX) t/year)	8	11 18	65 101	123 199	35 44
Ratios Capital/output ratio (K/Qs) Equipment per person (Ke/L) Buildings and land improvement cost per m ² of roofed site (KsSr) Percentage composition L 1	(\$ 000) (\$/m²) (°)	3,0 9,6 44 11 74	1.7 8.6 45 12	1,5 9,0 46 8	1.1 11.0 42 9	0.6 6.0 147 5
Average value per ton (Q ₈ /Q _t) Electricity consumption per ton of out- put (E/Q _t)	(\$/t) (kW/h/t)	108 130	108 110	106 72	02 108 90	40 235 63
(W/Q_t) Main raw materials per ton of output $(M_{-1}(x))$	(m ³ /t)	50	40	17	13	5
Total transport per \$ of output	(t/t)	0,23	0 .25	0,2	0.2	0.1
*m+q/ \<\$ /	(Kg/S)	,38	27	31	30	22

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^b 000 m³.

21 Spinning (231)	22 Spinning (231)	23 Knitwear (232)	24 Wearing (231)	25 Footuear (241)	26 Footwear (241/300)	27 Clothes (243)	28 Plywood (251)	- 29 Sawaall (251)	40 Lumiture (260)	
2.04 0.67 0.53 3.24	2.24 1.52 ().71 4.47	0.41 0.11 0.38 0.90	0.95 0.34 0.36 1.65	0.57 0.31 0.38 1.26	1.25 0,88 0,81 2.94	0,98 1.52 4.04 6.51	0,46 0,30 0,09 0,85	0.14 0.30 0.06 0.51	0.64 1.15 0.20 1.99	
12.0 9.5 40.0	22.5 19.7 50,0	2.3 1.7 10.0	8.5 6.1 32.0	5.2 2.7 10,0	11.5 6.2 15.0	. 23.9 12.9 50,0	4.0 2.2 13.0	6.6 1.0 39.6	20.0 14.5 35.0	
30 330 40 1,180	80 870 50 1,000 3,060	25 290 10 325 1,005	60 340 100 500 1,420	65 170 185 430 1,030	190 370 400 960 2,46 0	440 4,020 60 4,520 14,320	30 150 40 220 640	20 140 60 220 580	55 395 120 570 1,500	
3 3.0 1.1	1 4.0 1.4	0.2 1.0 0.43	1 3.1 1.1	0.3 1.7 0.55	0.75 4.2 1.1	3 26.3 8.9	3 0.44 0.16	10 0.48 0.24	4.8 1.5 0.55	
		•2	02	03	13	2000 - 100 -				
6.1 80 15	7.8 290 40	0,2 80 15	1.4 52 20	0,3 8,1 2 0	0,8 17.4 40	2.2 %) (80)	0.6 16 10	0.5 JAN 10	1.0 60 24	
6. 		0,3 0, 2		0,9 0,4	2	3		15 10	12	
11 31	4	0.9 1.3	0.5 1.9	0.7 1.4	0.7 1.3	0.2 1.2	1,9 2,2			
56 8 92 1,031	66 8 87 3,360	49 8 89 6,143	39 12 68 2,613	60 15 41 5,617	76 20 39 5,547	64 10 19 7,976	76 14 68 147	*6 9 64 48	58 10 69 305	
2,118	6,500	1, 25 0	1,133	1,150	1,074	676	218	48	210	
28	242	476	43	27	23	27		to	-13	
1.2	1.5	1.5	0.2	0,9	2.0	0,8	3.3	.1	1.0	
3	1	0,5	2	0,8	0.7	9,4	41	52	12	

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PLANE No		31	32 Chinles su I	33 Ribert 1	.34 Pulp and	35 Puln a
		(260)	(271)	- rumenoara (271)	paper (271)	paper
	anden antegene an e senter a statistica e ander 1 a s epte antegene ante		(= .,			12/1;
Capital						
liquipment (Kettersteinen auf der der	(US \$ million)	0,65	0,66	1.76	12.8	23.
 Building and land improvements (K.) 		0,56	0,20	0,58	3.2	7.1
Total working capital (K _w)		1.12	0,08	0.16	1.2	3.2
Total capital requirement (K)		2.33	0,94	2.50	17.2	33,0
Site						
Rooted sites (S ₁)	((** N+ mr2)	7.6	3,4	8,8	14.5	52 .5
of which for production (S _{rp})		5.6	2 .0	7.3	8,0	24 .2
Total sites (S)		12.0	7,0	21.0	134.5	59 0,0
Employment						
Managers and highly skilled (L1)	(man-years)	40	16	26	- 60	170
Skilled (L 2)		290	50	86	250	500
Unskilled (L.3)		270	- 34	28	200	280
Total employment (L)		680	100	140	510	95 0
Total skill adj: (L*)		1,340	264	416	1,250	2,630
Production						
Quantity (Q ₁)	((##) t/year)	5.4	7	12	30	106
Value of production (Qs)	(\$ million/year)	3.6	0.72	1.2	5.4	20.0
Est. value added (V*)		1.5	0.27	0.38	2.3	8,6
Main rate materials						
• M. (<u>1)</u> • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	(HOU t/year)	5	9	16	160	450r
(2)		So See 1	1 - E			
Bleetricity and water						
Ekviricity (E)	(million k Wh/year)	1.8	23	7.2	414	190
Water (W)	(IND m//year)	30	66	400	100.000	50.000
of which: drinking water (Wa)	(m³/day)	60	8	10	20	80
Transport requirements						
Input materials (Tm)	(INNI T/year)	×	14	16	230	741
Products shipment (Tq)		6	7	12	35	175
Ratios						
Capital/output ratio (K/Qs)		0.7				
Equipment per person (K./L)	(S (RR))	11	66	194	3.6	24.6
Buildings and land improvement cost	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·		0.0	16.0	60.1	24 ,0
per m2 of rooted site (Ks/Sr)	(S/m ²)	74	- 50	65	201	124
Percentage composition L 1	(°a)	7	16	10	13	10
L2	(° ₈)	48	. M	61	40	10
Average value per ton (Qs/Q)	(\$/t)	(69)	109	tan	101	- 190
Electricity consumption per ton of out-						10.
ри (Е/Q)	(kWh/t)	333	349	596	1.379	*1.792
(W/ax)	an a			a ruma. Tarihi a		
Main rans marials and a me	(m ³ /t)	56	10	40	333	472
(M./C.)			· · · ·			
Total transport per S of company	(1,1)	0,9	1.4	1.3	5.3	4.2
(T _m , ,/Q _b)	(L	2		- -	a 112	
· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	(長期)(四)	4	3)	40	49	- 46

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ANNEX 2 continued)

⁴ 000 m³. ^d million m³.

36 Paper prod. (272)	37 Tanasry (291)	.38 Tannery (201)	39 Petro- chemicals	40 Petro- chemicats	41 Fenilizers	42 Benzene	43 Petroleum refinery	44 Petroleum refutero	45 Petroleum	
· - ·	(271)	(291)	(311)	(311)	(311)	(321)	(321)	(321)	(121) (121)	
1.03	0.17	0,70	38.4	161.3	33.6	6 48	и. I.	6 13	14 0	
0,56	0,19	0.36	8.0	31.2	5.6	0.47	0.64	0.96	16,9	
2.55	0.25	1.03 2.00	3.2	39.8	3.2	1.24	0.64	0,80	2.8	
and d	0,22	2,(17	49.6	223.3	42.4	8,20	5.76	10,08	21.0	
4.7	3.6	3.9	19.0	742.7	48,0	0.6	60.0	65.0	100.0	
3.3 7 8	10.6	2.3	8,0	392.0	30.0	0,3	20,0	25,0	40.0	
7.0	10.0	10.4	1.000.0	1,402.7	900,0	1.4	250,0	350,0	800,0	
28	8	32	170	662	190	18	90	110	1581)	
	60 19	176	580	1,770	570	30	280	360	700	
232	80	100 109	100	620	140	12	80	130	210	
513	232	788	2.690	3,032 9,240	900) 19:900	60	450	600	1,100	
		700	6 31770	71690	4 ,000	192	1,370	1,760	3,260	
5.5	0.6	1	40	415	450	105	974	192	1 Theo	
3.6	0.45	6.5	18.4	164.7	22.6	9.7	7.8	13.8	1,900	
1.2	0.11	1.6	6.1	54.3	7.5	4.5	3.6	6.4	26 .0	n an
6.5		1	60	640	1004	240	300	500	2.000	
				114	70					
0.6	0.2	2.0	54.8		244	11.1	78	IR A	M u	
6	X	225	2,500	14,400	5,100	180	300	664)	1.650	
14		36 - 1	40	550	40	18	45	60	110	
		7	123	1,200	240	252	340	510	2.015	
	n e file e De tra de la file	1112 2 1112	41	448	450	230	280	450	1,850	
0.7	1.3	0.3	2.7	1.4	1.9	0.8	0.7	0.7	0.4	
44	2.1	2.3	45.2	52.9	37.3	108.1	10,0	13,9	15.4	
118 12	54 In	92 10	421	42	117	726	1	15	13	
3	74	IV R7	<i>2</i> 0 63		21	39) 60	2)	18	17	na stalina da serie da serie Serie da serie da ser
655	757	5,949	460	401	50	92	02 29	60 29	64 29	
105	280	1,864	1,370	1,084	542	106	28	37	31	al Margaran (1997) Al Margaran (1997) An La Margarat (1997) Margaran (1997)
1.2	60	205	63	35	11 11	1.7	na Carlona La Carlona			
1.2		<u>6.1</u>	1.5	1.74	222	2.28	11	1.01	1.03	
	£		+1,2 G	41/ 7 10	1 0	8 1617 811	1+1 TE	1,0,3	1406	
	V	1	У	ta	JU	50	13	03	69 .	

通想法

		.14.				-
PLANT No:		40 Petroleum	4 7	48	49	50
181C ():		refinery (321)	(329)	011085 (331)	Bricks (331)	Tile (331)
Capital						
Equipment (K _e)	(US \$ million)	35.2	11.8	0.32	0,48	1.0
Building and land improvements (K.)		3.2	4.5	0.28	0,40	1.1
Total working capital (K _w) Total capital requirement (K)		-0.4 -44.8	1.8	0.63	0,05 0,93	(i.) 3.1
Site						
Roofed sites (S _r)	((XX) m²)	150,0	35.1	5.1	6.5	9.2
of which for production (S_{rp})		70,0	30,0	4.5	5.7	8.2
lotal sites (8)		1,500,0	160,1	15.0	11.0	20,0
Employment Managars and bighly skilled (t. t)	(man-vere)	346	56	to	10	37
Skilled (1.2)	(111431-y Cars)	1.120	116	72	10 70	33
Unskilled (1, 3)		270	68	78	70 \$0	12/
Total employment (L)		1.700	240	160	140	190
Total skill adj: (L*)		5,180	696	344	290	566
Production						
Quantity (Q _t)	(OOR) t/year)	4,900	600	20	26	45
Value of production (Qs)	(S million/year)	185.6	15.5	0.18	0.28	2.2
Est. value added (V*)		85.7	3.8	0.13	0.20	1.6
Main raw materials						
M _t (1)	(IXX) t/year)	5,000	800	25*	37*	105
Electricity and Water						
Electricity (E)	(million kWh/year)	140	10.0	67	11	20
Water (W)	(000 m ³ /year)	3.950	4.50	12	111 116	4.V 90
of which: drinking water (\mathbf{W}_d)	(m³/day)	1,700	72	10		12
Fransport requirements			and and a state of the state of			
Input materials (Tm)	(OOR) t/year)	5,025	802	43	64	112
Products shipment (Tq)		4,615	639	21	28	46
Ratios					, en	
Capital/output ratio (K/Q ₃)		0,2	1.2	3.4	3.3	1.7
Equipment per parson (K _c /L) Buildings and land improvement cost	(\$ 000)	20.7	49.3	2.0	4.4	8,9
per m ² of roofed site (K _s /S _r)	(S /m ²)	21	122		60	189
Percentage composition L 1	(¹ ₀)	18	24			19
L 2	(°°)	66	48	45		ž
Average value per ton (Q_8/Q_t) Electricity consumption per ton of out-	(S/t)	38	26	9	ū	50
put (E/Q ₁)	(kW h/t)	29	17	35	40	4
$(\mathbf{W}/\mathbf{Q}_t)$	(m3/r)	urtan Nargelan Agia An San Ar i tan		a serie a constante Series de la constante de la co	inan ya pinan ili Uzerta ka n ort	
Main raw materials per ton of output	7949 , 191 , 191, 191, 191, 191, 191, 191, 191,	er alstatis Article (1995) Article (1995)			U,O	(1,7
(M _{t1} /Q _t) Total transport per \$ of output	(t/t)	1.02	1.3	1.25	1.4	2.3
(T _{m+q} /Q ₅)	(kg/S)	52	90	350	120	71
	(mg/2)	34	70	350	323	

° 000 m³.

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	51 Glass (332)	52 Glass (332)	53 Coment (334)	54 Cement (334)	55 Coment (334)	- 56 Cement (334)	57 Clay products (339)	58 Masta (339)	- 59 1.inic i (19)	- 16) 1 (mic : 339)
	1.02	1 72	264	•	4 9 .1					
	0.57	0.84	1.76	0.08 2.40	0.30	11.32	0,70	0,34	(1,40	0,30
	0.15	0.27	0.28	() 48	3,01	6,80	0.42	0.24	0.20	0 ,16
	1.74	2.83	4.68	6.56	9.95	1.00	0,14	0,06	0.06	6,06
					r, r.j	17.72	1.20	0.64	0.66	0.52
	13.0	17.2	14.5	18,0	33.0	44.0	21	15		
	5,9	7.2	8.0	11.0	15.0	18.0	1.7	6.9	1.1	0.4
	50.0	50.0	12 0.0	16 0,0	2 00,0	25 0,0	9,0	4.6	3,0	3,0
	50	3 0	19	24	30	72		·		
	190	210	207	220	300	350	15	8	6	10
	100	40	34	56	70	100	65	03	47	75
	340	280	260	300	400	525	180	84	22 75	
	920	820	750	836	1,120	1,525	436	242	193	330
	10	25	100	200	200	8na				
	1.2	3.2	1.6	3.1		19.0	75	25	25	25
	0,72	1.8	0.71	1.4	2.2	5.4	0,58	0.36	(),4() (),28	0.34
					e de la construcción de la constru La construcción de la construcción d La construcción de la construcción d					
		18 14	160	320	430	1,100	50	32	33	37
	1.6	1.3	12.0	21.0	30.0	80.0	2.1	1.0	11	0.75
		130	60	110	416	200		.	Ť	1.2
				30	45	60	9	7	6	6
	18	70	220	AR A	610	1.110		1		
	- 11		105	210	300	800	77		41 34	33 16
										40
	1.4	0.9	3.0	2.1	2.1	1.6	1.6	1.8	1.7	1.6
	3.0	0.1	10.2	12.3	15.8	21.6	3,9	4.0	5.3	2.2
	4	49	121	133	91	155	199	160	182	356
	13	11	7		8	H.	7	10	8	7
	123	197	81/ 12	75 12	75	67	57	75	63	54
				80	10	10. 19. sec. s. 19. sec. s. 19. 19. sec. s. 19. sec. s	1		16	13
n yn Herner Herne yn 1 Herne yn 1	160	52 - States	120	106	100	100	28	40	44	30
			0,6	0 .6	1.4	0,4	0,5	0,1	03	0,1
	1.3	0.7	1.6	1.6	1.4	1.4	0.7	1,3	13	1.5
	23	- M	200	201	100	180	100	474	1.00 M	

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ANNEX 2 contracti						
PEAN (N)		#1 1	62 Building clements	63 Building clements	64 Building clements	4. Alto
1NU -	مېر د ده دې کې کې	(.1.19)	(339)	(339)	(.3.39)	134
Capital Equipment (K.) Building and land improvements (K.) Fotal working capital (K _w) Fotal capital requirement (K)	(USS million)	0,36 0,16 0,06 0,58	0,22 0,30 0,05 0,57	0.51 0.17 0.44 1.12	1.6 0.3 1.2 3.1	2
Site Rooted sites (S _t)	(IRR) m ²)	0,9 0,6 3, 0	4,0 2,5 8,5	3.6 2.5 , 20.0	18,1 10,0 54,3	.35.) 15.) 12 0.)
Employment Managers and highly skilled (L 1) Skilled (L 2) Uaskilled (L 3) Total employment (L) Total skill adj: (L*)	(man-years)	8 70 22 100 272	12 118 45 175 459	24 200 51 275 771	50 381 72 503 1,465	50 350 100 5 00 1,4 00
Production Quantity (Q _t) Value of production (Q ₅) Est. value added (V*)	(188) t/year) (S million/year)	30 0.41 0.28	40 0.44 0.18	50 3.1 1.3	114 5.0 2.1	100 7.: 2.
Main raw materials M ₁ (1) (2)	(UIII) t/year)	45 	35 7	10° 18	115	225 30
Electricity and water Electricity (E) Water (W) of which: drinking water (Wd)	(million kWh/year) (000 m ³ /year) (m ³ /day)	0,9 1 5	0.1 10 10	0.5 13 15	2.5 90 25	43.(1,400 75
Transport requirements Input materials (Tm) Products shipment (Tq)	((KK) t/year)	66 31	42 41	50 50	117 115	362 101
Ratios Capital/output ratio (K/Qs) Equipment per person (Kc/L) Buildings and land improvement cost	(\$ 000)	1.4 3.6	1.3 1.2	0.4 1.9	0.6 3.2	.4.0 41.0
рег m ² of roofed site (K ₅ /S ₁) Percentage composition L 1 L 2 Average value per ton (Q ₅ /Q ₁)	(S /m ²) (°) (°) (S /t)	168 8 70 14	76 7 67 11	47 9 73	15 10 76	183 10 70 72
Electricity consumption per ton of out- put (E/Q ₀)	(kWh/t)	30	2	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	2	430
Water consumption per ion of output (W/Q_t)	(m ³ /t)	0.03	0.3	0.3		
(M_{t1}/Q_t)	(1/1)	1.5	0.9	0.4	1.0	2.2
$(\mathbf{T}_{\mathbf{m}}, q^{j} \mathbf{Q}_{\mathbf{s}})$	(kg/\$)	238	189	32		ita Satisti

r 000 m3.

66 Alumin 1 and	67 Foundry	68 Estandare	69	70	71	72	71			
alum inimi (342)	(341)	(341)	Pounary (.341)	Foundry (341)	Swelworks (341)	Swelworks (341)	Steelinarke (341)	Forging (350)	Hardware (150)	
117.8	0.78	1.24	1.04	1.60	199,9	349,7	143 (j		•	
15.8	0,40	0.44	0.60	0.76	73.4	116.6	194.5	11.000 11.701	2.114 	
12.4	0.64	0.68	0.96	1.00	32.8	60,0	44.6	0.26	11,7575 43,96 <u>,1</u>	
140.0	1.82	2.56	2.60	3.36	306.1	526.3	339,0	1.38	3.76	
170.0	4.5	3.7	6.0	8,0	350,0	550,0	208.0	2.5	7.4)	
13939 400 A	3.U 9.G	2.5 7 A	4.0	6.0	150,0	200,0	98,5	1.8	5.0	
366.0	6 ,9	7.0	10,0	15 .0	2,500,0	3,000,0	1,100,0	4.5	11.0	
2 00 4 5 0	50 113	40 260	70 450	35	600	9(K)	848	25	75	
250	47	90 90	400 140	125	4,000	6,400	1,961	1(0)	240	3 K
900	430	380	10V 700	100 340	- 秋 月 - * - 4493	7(11)	771	65	135	
2,100	1,296	1,040	1,880	650	3,1887 15,400	8,(RR) 24 400	3,580 10,894	19(1) 49(1)	5007 1.500	
100	3. 	5	10	and and a second second	748.000	T.ARA	4 41.101 A	a di sana an Maria Aliante		
44.0	1.7	2.6	3.3	3.8	164.0	1/130 • 112.()	4,12,97 36.1.6			
12.8	0.3	0,4	0.5	0.6	27.6	59,9	42.7	1.4 0,2		
450	•			20	1.375	2.6(1)	A (11)			
175					750	1,600	500			
1,700		12.0			30	750		1997 1997 1997 1997 1997 1997 1997 1997		
2,100	18	0	72	145	31,000	65,000	101.000	10		
105	43	10 10 50 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10	105	40	1,000	1,6(1)	895	25		a de la companya de La companya de la comp La companya de la comp
660	8		18	33	2,620	5,400	9.762	1999 - 1995 - 1995 - 1995 - 1995 - 1995 - 1995 - 1995 - 1995 - 1995 - 1995 - 1995 - 1995 - 1995 - 1995 - 1995 - 1996 - 1996 - 1996 - 1996 - 1996 - 1996 - 1996 - 1996 - 1996 - 1996 - 1996 - 1996 - 1996 - 1996 - 1996 - 1996 -		
120	3			20	980	1,800	4,592		i i i i i i i i i i i i i i i i i i i	
3.3	1.1	0.9	0.8	0,9	1,9	1.6	13	1.2		
IJU.0	1.8	33	1.5	6.2	40.0	43.7	53.9	8.4	41	
93	89	119	100	95	210	212	A11	115	126	
44 14	12	10	10	13	12	11	21	13	15	
440	6 17	60	04 444	48	8U 1990	80	55	53	58	
17 000						287		276	651 	l de la contraction d California de la contraction de la contr California de la contraction de la cont
1/,UR#J		2,400 		322	469	517	119 119	786	20 8 03	
an a	1977 - 1989 - 1989 1989 - 1989 - 1989 - 1989 - 1989 - 1989 - 1989 - 1989 - 1989 - 1989 - 1989 - 1989 - 1989 - 1989 - 1989 - 1989 -		alama Series M ada ang sang Series Series Series			45	25	2		
4.5	1.07	1.12	1.14	1.11	1.84	1.80	1.5	1.31	1.23	
18	7	6	9	14.	22	22	57	9	4	na sa

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ANNEX 2 (continued)

PLANT No:		76 Toolings	77 Machine tools	78 Handling	79 Containers	80 Househola
(ISIC):	····	(360) -	(360)	(360)	(350)	appuance (360/370),
Capital Equipment (Ke) Building and land improvements (K.) . Total working capital (Kw) Total capital requirement (K)	(US \$ million)	0.96 0.27 0.59 1.82	0.94 0.58 1.00 2.52	0.28 0.24 0.36 0.88	1.52 0.62 0.92 3.06	1.04 0.76 0.80 2. 60
Site Roofed sites (Sr) of which for production (Srp) Total sites (S)	(100) m²)	1.2 0.8 3.0	9.3 6.5 20.3	3.0 2.0 6.0	3.4 2.7 6.0	5.1 3.1 10.0
Employment Managers and highly skilled (L 1) Skilled (L 2) Unskilled (L 3) Total employment (L) Total skill adj: (L*)	(man-years)	130 270 70 470 1,530	110 210 50 370 1,230	50 230 20 300 960	65 590 245 900 2,340	75 555 70 700 2,110
Production Quantity (Qt) Value of production (Qg) Est. value added (V*)	(000 t/year) (\$ million/year)	0.2 1.7 0.7	2 3.2 1.3	1.5 1.2 0.5	9 4.3 1.8	7 5.2 1.9
Main tau materials Mt (1)	(000 t/year)	0.2	0.9		12	
Electricity and water Electricity (E) Water (W) of which: drinking water (W _d)	(million kWh/year) (000 m³/year) (m³/day)	2.4 20 47	0.8 26 48	1.1 9 30	1.8 40 90	1.0 20 65
Transport requirements Input materials (T _m) Products shipment (T _q)	(000 t/ycar)	1	4	2	16 12	10 7
Ratios Capital/output ratio (K/Q ₅) Equipment per person (K _c /L) Buildings and land improvement cost per m ² of roofed site (K _c /S _c)	(\$ 000) (\$/2)	1.1 2.0	0.8 2.5	0,7 0,9	0.7 1.7	0.5 1.5
Percentage composition L 1 L 2 Average value per ton (Q ₈ /Q ₁)	(%) (%) (%) (\$/t)	28 57 7,709	30 57 1.756	17 76 827	181 7 66 480	149 11 79 776
Electricity consumption per ton of out- put (E/Q_i)	(kWh/t)	10,909	444	733	200	149
where consumption per ton of output (W/Q_i)	(m ³ /t)	91	15	6	na tra Maria	3
(M_{tl}/Q_t)	(t/t)	1.14	0.50	0.80	1.33	1.10
(T _{m+q} /Qs)	(kg/S)	1	2		6	3

R 000 cars.
 h 000 mits.
 i 000 GWh.
 j 000 m³.

lationales References References - The American State

81 Instormers +370)	82 Car parts (383)	83 Car service (384)	84 Car repair (384)	85 Car serv, and repair (384)	86 Plastics (399)	87 Plastics (399)	88 Plumber (400)	- 89 Building 74007	90 Hydio, power (511)	
4.32	1.18	0,07	0.16	() 24	() 31					
3.64	1.08	0.15	0.24	0.48	9.51	0.52	0,06	0,9.	€ -4,40	
5,20	1.86	0,10	0.16	0.36	0.08	0.22	0,03	0,25) <u>EU.(H</u> 1	
13.16	4.12	0.32	0,56	1.08	0,45	1.00	0,002	0,7,	2 (),()N 5 (), ()N	
								1.0	7 14.40	
50,5	9.1	1.0	1.1	2.5	0.6	46	07	10	***	
21.3 00.0	7.7	0,9	1.0	2.0	0,4	2.5	86	3.0	49,0	
ንርትግ	17.1	2.5	4.0	6.0	1.5	9.6	1.5	7.5	65,0	
	85	to	14							
390	610	22	10	25	10	42	15	330	12	
620	98	5	7	37 40	70	198	66	1,480	.M)	
1,370	763	37	46	02	35	150	9	(集)	10	
4,370	2,203	121	156	16	115 798	.390 08.4	90	1,900	52	
					670	734	2N2	6,180	160	
15	3.4	58	108	208		0.0		an and		
16.4	12.1	0.15	0.26	0.80	0.68	1.9	0.3	0,99	0.2	
6.3	4.5	0.76	0.13	0,41	0.29	0.86	448	3.0	1.0	
an an an Arran an Ar Arran an Arran an Arr								6 .6	U, (K)	a a a a a a a a a a a a a a a a a a a
10	5.5		0.09	0.17	0.45	11.9			*	
0						2006 - 12 - 12 - 12 - 12 - 12 - 12 - 12 - 1			/INIAR P	n ageir agus agus an star fe Tha an stàrt an stàrt Tha an stàrt
15 6										
14.0 0K	1.9	0.02	0.03	0.09	0.35	1.3	0.02	0.9	64	
75	3 0	<u> </u>		6	2	16	Erec ≇ e Pe	120	7(8),(88)	
		1.3			6	18	3	80	4	
20	4	61	98	144						
17		3		7	1		4	. 130	styre i ser	
				<i>.</i>	3	1	<i>.</i>	25	- 42	
0.8	0.3	2.2	2.2	13	67	66	61	- n - A		
3.2	1.5	1.9	3.5	2.6	2.7	1.1	0.3	0,4	13.9	
130.						*****		0,3	64 .0	
26	119	160	218	192	102	49	**	98	214	an a
28	a	17 60	33	27	9	H	17	17	23	
1,065	3,597		200 200	02 40	2 367	51 1 034	73	78	58	
							1,913	0,222	5,200	
779	448	an airth an Arran an	3	al (a ssig	1,167	1,344	50	944	3,000	
6	11	0,5	0.4	0.1		17	10 P	111 4	The second	ай •
6.4						17	2	133 3,		
U.7	1.64		0.01	0.01	1.5	0,9		- 3,	500,000	
2	1	0.4	0.3	0.2	1.1	1	3	30		
	kalaning products of a statement of a statement of the statement of the statement of the statement of the state			••• • •	110	1	6	40	- size	

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PLAN I No.		91 Hydro.	92 Hydro.	93 Thermal	94 Thermal	95 The
(ISIC):		power (511)	power (511)	power (511)	power (511)	ронс. (51)
Capital Equipment (Ke) Building and land improvements (Ks) Total working capital (Kw) Total capital requirement (K)	(US \$ million)	5.2 16.4 0.1 21.7	0 11.20 0 23.20 2 0.10 2 34.50	0 6.4 0 2.4 6 0, 6 6 9,4	0 15.20 D 3.20 4 1.20 4 19.60	21 - 4 - 4 - 1 27 1
Site Roofed sites (S _t) of which for production (S _{tp}) Total sites (S)	((KN) m²)	83.9 3.9 130,0	95,0 4,3 150,0	16.0 3.5 60,0	17.0 3.7 62.0	9 4.() 49. 3
Employment Managers and highly skilled (L 1) Skilled (L 2) Unskilled (L 3) Total employment (L) Total skill adj: (L*)	(man-ycars)	15 33 12 60 186	18 48 19 85 253	26 102 22 150 458	.35 115 30 180 550	42 78 12 132 456
Production Quantity (Qt) Value of production (Qs) Est. value added (V*)	(U(K) t/year) (S million/year)	0, 2 1,3 0,8	k 1.5k 8.0 1 5.1	0, 2 * 2.8 1.8	0.6 ^k 7.2 4.6	1k 12.0 7.6
Main raw materials Mt (1) (2)	(FRR) t/year)	140,000	2,500,000)	125	285	220
Electricity and water Electricity (E) Water (W) of which: drinking water (Wa)	(million kWh/year) (USO m ³ /year) (m ³ /day)	1.2 140,000 5	6.0 2,500,000 6	20,0 1,500 13	40.0 40 15	68.0 63 12
Transport requirements Input materials (Tm) Products shipment (Tq)	(088) t/year)	2-1 22	Quering.	175 43	285 70-	220
Ratios Capital/output ratio (K/Q ₈) Equipment per person (K _e /L) Buildings and land improvement cost	(\$ 190)	17,0 86,7	4.3 131.8	3.4 42.7	2.7 84.4	2.3 163 .6
per m ² of roofed site (K _s /S _r) Percentage composition L 1 L 2	(\$/m²) (°) (°)	195 25 55	244 21 57	150 17 68	188 19 64	431 32 59
Average value per ton (Q_s/Q_i) Electricity consumption per ton of out- put (E/Q_i)	(S /t) (k W h/t)	6,400	5,330	14,733	12,000	12,000
Water consumption per ton of output (W/Qt) Main raw magerials per ton of output	(m³/t)	700,000	166,667	7,894	141,667	6.3
(M _{t1} /Q _t) Total transport per S of output	(1/1)	700,000	166 ,667	658	475	22 0
(T_{m+q}/Q_{s})	(kg/ S)	∎in,	-	78	49	18
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ANNEX 2 (continued)

^k 000 GWh. ¹ 000 m³.

moto hours.

ⁿ per hour.

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45 100 al 20 r 511)	97 Architec. design (833)	98 Laundry (854)	99 Laundry (854)	100 Laundry (854)	
45.58 7.36 3.04 55.98	0.00 5 0.01 2 0.001 0.001	0.02 0.08 0.02 0.12	0,03 0,11 0,03 0,17	0,44 0.26 0.06 0.76	
13.1 7.5 63.1	0.0 8 0,0 8 0,10	0.3 0.2 0.4	0,4 0.3 0,5	1.8 1.3 2.5	
70 89 18 177 635	5 4 1 10 38	1 11 16 28 54	2 15 18 35 73	6 77 45 128 306	
2.5* 30.0 19.1	20m 0.04 0.02	0.25 0.05 0.04	0. 45 0.10 0.09	2 0.4 0.4	
544					
1.38 120 16	0.001 0.08 0.3	0.2 15 1.5	0.3 25 9	1).8 95 7	
546		0.3 0.3	0.5 6.5	2 2	
1,9 257,5	0.5 0.5	23 07	1.7 0.9	K	
562 39 50 2,000	150 50 40 2*	271 4 39 192	265 6 43 213	144 5 60 220	
5,200	0.06"	800	667	400	n an
48	-	60	56	47	
218	-	-	. 		
18		12	10	10	

Constant and

Plant 1

A medium-sized industrial slaughterhouse constructed for basic operations only (excludes waste processing) One-shift operation

 M_t (1): Livestock (50,000 t) (Not profitable)

Plant 2

A small-capacity dairy plant with low degree of automation M_t (1): Milk (20,000(00001)

(Profitable)

Plaut 3

A medium-sized, senti-automated dairy plant producing pasteorized milk and various kinds of cheese, butter and powdered milk M_t (1): Milk (38,000,0001)

(Profitable)

Plant 4

A large-scale automated dairy collecting and processing milk and producing all kinds of dairy products Continuous operation on three shifts M_t (1): Milk (110,000,000]) (Highly profitable)

Plant 5

A small-capacity, semi-mechanized plant producing both natural and concentrated fruit juice

Continuous operation with seasonal fluctuations in employment

 M_t (1): Fruits (5,000 t) (Not profitable)

Plant 6

A part of a multi-product firm producing soda water and carbonated juice as well as natural and concentrated fruit juice

Continuous operation with seasonal fluctuations in employment

 M_t (1): Fruits (5,000 t) (Profitable)

Plant 7

 A small, labour-intensive (mainly female workers) bakery plant of local significance
 Two-shift operation
 M_t (1): Flour, sugar, salt (2,370 t) (Highly profitable)

Plant 8

A small, setni-mechanized plant supplying bread and rolls for a small town
 Two-shift operation
 M_t (1): Flour (6.4000 t)
 (Profitable)

Plant_9

A large-scale bakery with modern equipment Two-shift operation M_t (1): Flour and salt (11,000 t) (Highly profitable)

Plant 10

A relatively small-scale sugar refinery Annual output of 34,500 t consists of: Sugar 20,000 t Molasses 6,000 t Bagasse 8,500 t Three-shift operation for 100 days during the harvest period; two-shift operation in off-season M_t (1): Sugar beet (150,000 t) (Profitable)

Plant 11

A medium-sized sugar refinery with a processing capacity of 3,000 t/day of sugar beet Annual output consists of: Sugar 40,000 t Molasses 10.000 t

Molasses 10,000 t Dry and crude cossettes 40,000 t Continuous operation on two shifts M_t (1): Sugar beet (300,000 t) (Profitable)

Plant 12

A medium-sized plant with its own refinery Output consists of soy oil and animal feed Continuous operation for about 300 days a year M_t (1): Oilseed (60,000 t) (Highly profitable)

Plant 13

A medium-sized, partly mechanized feed-meal mixing plant

Basic raw materials are flour-mill by-product cereals (maize, barley and oats), proteins of vegetable and animal origin, and various minerals, vitamins, antibiotics and other additives

Two-shift operation

Mt (1): Cereals (22,000 t)

(2): Proteins, minerals and vitamins (9,000 t) (Highly profitable)

Plant 14

In automated feed-meal pla	nt
Principal raw materials:	
Cereals	39.000 t
Proteins	17,000 t
Minerals, vitamins etc.	6.000 t
Two-shift operation	
Mt (1): Cereals (39,000 t)	
(2): Proteins, minerals,	vitamins (23.000 t)
(Highly profitable)	(00,000 4)

partly mechanized wine-cellar for basic grape pro-. cosing three-shift operation during the harvest season; otherwise, one-shift operation M_t (1): Grapes (4,000 t) Highly profitable) ant 16 small, semi-mechanized brewery Continuous operation with seasonal fluctuations M_t (1): Barley (1,150 t) (Not profitable) Plant 17 A semi-mechanized brewery, small yet economic Continuous operation with seasonal fluctuation in output M_t (1): Barley (2,500 t) (Profitable) Plant 18 A brewery of an economic size with an annual capacity of 500,000 hectolitres Water consumption is reduced through partial rectrculation Two-shift operation M₁ (1): Barley (9,000 t) (2): Hops (500 t) (Profitable) Plant 19 A large brewery with an annual capacity of 1,000,000 hectolitres Two-shift operation M₁ (1): Barley (17,000 t) (2): Hops (1,000 t) (Highly profitable) Plant 20 A soft drinks plant with an annual capacity of 180,000 hectolitres Two-shift operation with seasonal fluctuations M_t (1): Sugar (1,800 t) and carbon dioxide (Highly profitable) 1 lam 21 A fully-automated, small (20,000 spindles) cottonpinning mill Two-shift operation M_t (1): Cotton (3,300 t)

: 15

(Not profitable)

Plant 22

hn automated cotton-spinning mill with 22,000 spindles Two-shift operation M_t (1): Cotton (1,800 t)

Not profitable)

Plant 23

A small cotton knitwear plant employing low-wage female labour Two-shift operation

 M_t (1): Cotton and staple fibre varn (250 t) (Not profitable)

Plan 24

A small weaving mill, employing mostly female labour Two-shift operation M_t (1): Man-made yarn (200 t) (Profitable)

Plant 25

A footwear factory with an annual capacity of 600,000 pairs Two-shift operation

M_t (1): Upper and sole leather (280 t) (Not profitable)

Plant 26

A large leather and rubber footwear factory with an annual capacity of 1,500,000 pairs **One-shift** operation Mt (1): Leather, rubber and others (1,500 t) (Not profitable)

Plant 27

A wearing apparel factory located in a large town and employing mostly skilled labour Two-shift operation M₄ (1): Fabrics (2,500 t)

(Not profitable)

Plant 28

A relatively small-scale plywood plant Uses beech logs (10,000 m³ per annum) Two-shift operation M_t (1): Beech logs (10,000 m³) (Not profitable)

Plant 29

A small-scale say mill for beech logs **One-shift** operation M_t (1): Beech logs (30,000 m³) (Not profitable)

Plant 30

A wooden furniture factory producing a limited range of goods

One-shift operation

Mt (1): Wood and others (5,000 t)

(Not profitable)

Plant M

A medium-sized metal furniture factory producing a limited range of goods

Two-shift operation

M_t (1): Steelstrip and tubing, and aluminium section (5,000 8

(Profitable)

$P_{abst} \not = \bot$

A small-capacity chipboard factory Three-shift operation M. (1): Wood and wood waste (9,0004) (2): Cluctane others (1,0004) (Not profitable)

Plant 33

A medium-capacity fibreboard factory Three-shift operation M. (1): Wood and wood waste (16,000 m³) (Not profitable)

Plant 34

A pulp and paper mill producing ordinary paper on the basis of sulphate pulp; no secondary processing facilities

Besides conferons wood for pulp, the plant uses 7.200 f of lignite for filel and 5,000 f of linnestone and chemical products as auxiliary raw materials Continuous operation for 330 days a year M, (1): Conferous wood (160,000 m³)

(Not profitable)

Plant 35

A medium-sized pulp and paper mill Uses 220,000 t of auxiliary materials (chemicals, limestone, colophony etc.)

Continuous operation for 330 days M_i (1): Wood (400,000<u>-500,000 m³)</u> (Profitable)

Plant M

A relatively large factory supplying paper products for school and office use Two-shift operation M_t (1): Paper, cardboard, glue (6,500 t) (Profitable)

Plant 17

A small leather tannery using mainly local materials and producing sole leather, elk leather and sleeked leather

Two-shift operation

 M_t (1): Vegetable tanning substances (1,000 t) and lime

(Not profitable)

Plant 38

A fully mechanized tannery, specializing in upper leather, split leather and hning leather for footwear manufacturers

Two-shift operation

 $\dot{\mathbf{M}}_{t}$ (1): Skins and hides (6,700 t) (Highly profitable)

(infini) Incontaint.)

Plant 39

A modern but small-capacity petrochemical plant producing ethylene (20,000 t) and polyethylene, polystyrene, phenol and acetone (20,000 t)

Continuous operation M_t (1): Gasoline (60,000 t) (Not profitable)

(.... f

Plant 40

A petrochemical plant producing a number of seatives of ethylene, propylene and C4-fraction with the ntilization of all by-products, but without a senelectrolysis facilities

Total annual output amounts to 900,000 t of a sch 415,000 t are finished products for sale, succe as 280,000 t of plastics, 30,000 t of synthetic raidber, and 130 t of other chemical products

Continuous operation for 330 days a year

M_t (1): Gasolene (690,000 t)

(2): Chlorine and other chemicals (114,000 t) (Profitable)

Plant 41

A medium-sized, fully automated plant producing nitrogen fertilizer

Continuous operation on three shifts

Mr (1): Natural gas (100,000,000 m3)

(2): Superphosphate. potassium salt, lime etc. (70,000 t)

(Profitable)

Plan 42

A benzene plant using reformed gasolene supplied by a nearby refinery

By-products are low-octane gasolene for refineries and waste gases used as fuel for the plant's own operation

Continuous operation for 330 days a year

M_t (1): Gasolene (240,000 t) (Highly profitable)

Plant 43

A small-capacity petroleum refinery

Facilities include atmospheric distillation and simple vacuum distillation for bitumen production

Continuous operation on three shifts for 300 days a year

M_t (1): Crude oil (300,000 t)

(Highly profitable)

Plant 44

A small-capacity petroleum refinery

Facilities include atmospheric and vacuum distillation and a gasolene reforming plant for bitumen accduction

Three-shift operation for 300 days a year

M_t (1): Crude oil (500,000 t)

(Highly profitable)

Plant 45

A modern petroleum refinery

Includes atmospheric distillation facilities with cracking and catalytic gasolene reforming in tions bree-shift operation for 330 days a year (1, (1)): Crude oil (2.000,000 t) highly profitable)

· 46

- large-capacity petroleum refinery with a wide roduction programme including primary and seconury processing
- acilities include atmospheric distillation, catalytic cracking, catalytic gasolene reformation for bitumen and high-octane gasolene
- Three-shift operation for 330 days a year
- M_t (1): Crude oil (5,000,000 t)
- (Highly profitable)

Plant 47

A highly automated independent coking plant

- Annual output consists of 570,000 t of metallurgical coke and 30,000 t of small coke for foundries and consumers. By-products are: tar, benzene, and others (approximately 38,000 t) and waste gases (about 120 million m³)
- Three-shift operation for 330 days a year
- M_t (1): Metallurgical coal (800,000 t)

(Profitable)

Plant 48

- A small brickwork plant with a rotating furnace
- About 9,000 t of low-calorie coal are required annually for fuel
- Three-shift operation for 300 days a year
- M_t (1): Clay (25,000 m³)
- (Not profitable)

Plant 49

- A roofing-tile and brick factory with a tunnel furnace Firing with heavy fuel oil
- Continuous operation on three shifts for 300 days a year

(Not profitable)

Plant 50

modern, medium-sized roofing-tile factory Fuel requirement: 5,000 t of heavy fuel oil a year Three-shift operation for 330 days a year M_t (1): Clay (37,000 m³) (Profitable)

nt 51

very small hollow-glass factory Continuous operation for 330 days a year M_t (1): Siliceous sand, stone and cullet (13,500 t) (Not profitable)

Plant 52

A small plate-glass plant Continuous operation for 330 days a year

- M_t (1): Siliceous sand (14,000 t)
- (2): Cullet, limestone (18,500 t) Profitable)

Plants 53, 54, 55 and 56

Various-sized Portland cement plans

- Continuous operation for 300 days a year
- M_t (1): Limestone and clay (plant 53 160,000); plant 54 320,000 t; plant 55 430,000 t; plant 56---1,100,000 t)

(Plant 53 –unprofitable; plants 54, 55 and 56 profitable)

Plant 57

- An acoustic and heat-insulating structural clay products plant
 - Fuel requirement: 4,800 t of heavy fuel oil a year
 - Continuous operation on three shifts
 - M_t (1): Clay (50,000 t)
 - (2): Cement (18,000 t)

(Profitable)

Plant 58

- A medium-sized plaster plant with no secondary processing facilities
 - Fuel requirement: 4,500 t of coal a year
- Continuous operation for 300 days a year
- M_t (1): Gypsum (32,000 t)
- (Profitable)

Plant 59

 A modern hydrated lime plant producing both quicklime and slacked lime ready for use
 Fuel requirement: 8,000 t of heavy fuel oil a year
 Continuous operation for 330 days a year
 M_t (1): Limestone (33,000 t)
 (Profitable)

Plant 60

A medium-sized lime plant with a shaft limekilu having au annual capacity of 27,000 t of quicklime Continuous operation on three shifts for 300 days a year

M_t (1): Limestone (37,000 t)

(Not profitable)

Plant 61

A highly mechanized lime plant with a rotary kiln Fuel requirement: 10,000 t of coal Three-shift operation for 300 days a year M_t (1): Limestone (45,000 t) (Not profitable)

Plant 62

A prefabricated concrete building block factory producing mainly blocks of a simple shape One-shift operation

M_t (1): Cement (5,000 i)

(2): Others (1,700 t)

(Not profitable)

Plant 63

A masonry with a small-capacity mit producing concrete products, including concrete blocks of a complex shape

One-shift operation

 M_{1} (1): Sind (18,000 m³)

(2): Clay products (15,000 t) and cement (3,000 t) (Profitable)

Plan 64

A plant producing boards for partition walls and for thermic and acoustic insulation

Two-shift operation

M_t (1): Cement, wood, particle board etc. (115,000 t) (Profitable)

Plant 65

A small alumina plant located in the vicinity of a local bauxite mine

Capital investment figure does not include investment in mines and transport facilities; it does include investment in a small thermal power plant

Continuous operation for 330 days a year

M_t (1): Bauxite (225,000 t)

(2): Alkaline additives Na₂CO₃ or NaOH (15,000 t) (3): Low calorie coal (15,000 t)

(Not profitable)

Plain 66

An integrated alumina and aluminium plant Continuous operation for 330 days a year

M_t (1): Bauxite (450,000 t)

- (2): Alkaline additives (30,000 t)
- (3): Coal (145,000 t)

(Not profitable)

Plant 67

A foundry producing tempered castings of 0,1-5 kg to order Two-shift operation M_t (1): Gray and scrap iron (2.850 t) (Not profitable)

Plant 68

A modern foundry equipped with medium-sized electric furnaces producing steel castings of 1-200 kg Two-shift operation M_t (1) Gray and scrap iron (5,600 t)

(Not profitable)

Plant 69

A foundry attached to a machine factory producing machine castings of 1-250 kg Two-shift operation Mt (1): Gray and scrap iron (1,200 t) (Not profitable)

Plant 70

An independent foundry producing castings of 1-50 kg **Two-shift** operation Mt (1): Gray and scrap iron (20,000 t) (Not profitable)

Plant 71	
An integrated steel plant produc	ing pig iron, crude 🗤 💡
and rolling mill products (fm	al products); the anni
production of 745.000 t rep	resents the rolling mail
Fixed conital includes a set	•
and an average plan	ig plant, a power plan
Three-shift onoration	
$M_{\rm e}(1)^{1}$ Iron ore (60 $^{\circ}$ Ea)	(1.200.000.0
(2): Limestone	(1,300,000,1)
(3): Scrap iron	(250,000 t) (75,000 s)
(4): Metallurgical coke	(500.000.)
(Not profitable)	(source y
Dlane 72	
Plant 72	1
shows and plates as in final an	el mill producing steel
Through the operation	tput
M. (1): iron ore (60° Ea)	(3 60 0 000 A
(2): Linestone	(2,000,000 t) /700,000 v)
(3): Metallurgical coal	(700,000 t) (900,000 v)
(Not profitable)	(300,000 t)
bloc m	
Plant 75	
A steel mill producing crude stee	cl (2,800,000 t) and pig
facilities such as all with t	secondary processing
Fuel requirements 1 052 000	no coking plant
of fuel oil for blass forman	of coke and 362,000 t
Three-shift operation	
M. (1): Iron ore /6 000 A	00 A
(2): Scrap iron (500.0	00.0
(Not profitable)	ωy
Plant 74	
A small forged and alars	
products ranging from 5 to 190	roducing torged-steel
in machine tool factories	kg in weight and used
Two-shift operation	
M ₁ (1): Rolled steel (5,500 A)	
(Not profitable)	
Plant 75	
A small automated handware -1	
nails, rivers, holes, nue are	ant producing screws,
Two-shift operation	
M _t (1): Drawn steel (6, 300 t)	
(Profitable)	
Plant 76	
A machine tool and match a 1	alistationalist Alistationalista
Two-shift operation	roducts plant
M. (1): Special steet (280 a)	
(Not profitable)	
Dlaut 77	
A machine seel at a state	•
about 1 480 units of the	nnual production
Has no foundance and a	ing tools
dent foundries	ne by other indepen

States of the states of the state of the states

Ao-shift operation	
(1): Steel, sheet metal	(900 t)
(2): Castings	(1,800 t)
Protitable)	

- 78

Ant producing materials-handling equipment two-shift operation M_e(1): Rolled steel and castings (1,200 t)

(2): Timber Not profitable)

1.mt 79

partially automated, metal drum manufacturing plant
 Two-shift operation
 M_t (1): Sheet metal (12,000 t)
 (Profitable)

. .

Plant 80

A semi-mechanized, household gas stove plant; has no enamelling facilities

Partial two-shift operation

 M_t (1): Sectional steel and sheet metal (8,000 t) (Profitable)

Plant 81

A modern, fully mechanized plant producing transformers

Produces both small (20-60 kg per unit) and large (400-300,000 kg per unit) power transformers

Investment figure represents an initial phase of a multi-stage project and is therefore about 20 per cent higher than the normal case

Two-shift operation

M_t (1): Copper goods and transformer sheets (10,500 t) (2): Wites and transformer oil (6,000 t) (Profitable)

Plant 82

An automotive parts plant producing radiators, axles, gear wheels and various cast parts for cars Serial production possible but without assembly-line

operation

Two-shift operation

 M_t (1): Steel sheet metal (5,500 t) (2): Scrap iron (1,800 t)

Highly profitable)

un 83

specialized service shop for passenger cars (Not profitable)

Plant **84**

A car repair shop specializing in body work One-shift operation M_t (1): Spare parts (94 t)

Not profitable)

Plant 85

A car repair and service shop One-shift operation M_t (1) Spare parts (168 t) (Profitable)

Plant 86

A plant producing plastic articles Two-shift operation M_t (1): Thermosetting plastics (450 t) (Profitable)

Plant 87

A plant producing large plastic articles Three-shift operation M_t (1): Plastics (860 t) (Profitable)

Plant 88

A semi-industrial enterprise engaged in the installation of water supply, gas and central heating facilities Two-shift operation (Not profitable)

Plant 89

A construction firm specializing in industrial buildings Seasonal operation on 1–2 shifts (Not profitable)

Plant 90

A small hydroelectric power plant Turbine operations for 300 days a year (Not profitable)

Plant 91

A hydroelectric power plant with a storage basin of 37 million m³ of water (Not profitable)

Plant 92

A hydroelectric power plant with a storage basin of 540 million nu³ of water

Continuous operation with 7,000 hours of peak-load operations (Profitable)

Plant 93

A small steam power plant with three generator units Continuous operation at various outputs of electric power M_t (1): Coal (125,000 t)

(Not profitable)

Plant 94

A medium-sized steam power plant with one large generator M_t (1): Coal (285,000 t)

(Profitable)

Plant 95

A thermal power plant with one generator Operation for 5,000 hours a year M_t (1): Heavy fuel oil (220,000 i) (Highly profitable)

Plant 96

A modern illermal power plant with two generators Operation for 5,000 hours a year M_t (1): Heavy fuel oil (546,000 t) (Highly profitable)

Plant 97

An architectural design firm specialized in industrial building designs (Not profitable)

Plant 98

A small laundry plant Two-shift operation (Not profitable)

Plant 99

A medium-sized laundry with its own boiler plant to generate steam Two-shift operation (Profitable)

Plant 100

An industrial laundry plant serving hospitals, hotels and other institutional customers Two-shift operation (Profitable)

