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FEASIBILITY STUDY OF A REGIONAL PLAN FOR THE PRODUCTION OF NITROGEN AND PHOSPHATE FEMTILIZERS IN THE ASEAN COUNTRIES

by

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and

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Bangkok **July 1972**

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INTRODUCTION

Since the ASEAN Declaration was first made in 1967, extensive discussions and investigations have taken place on what sight be the form of econoric co-operatin the Indonesia, daleysia, the Philippines, Singapore and Thailand. Much of the ent cal work was carried at in the period morch 1970-July 1972 by the United Nations ASEAM Team.

Three specific forms of co-eperative effort have been reviewed at considerable length: trade liberalization, complementarity agreements and 'package deals'. The last technique envisages the selection of a number of industrial projects which would be allocated mongst the ASEAN countries in an efficient and equitable manner and each of which would serve the entire ASEAN market without the hindrance of trade barriers.

To provide a concrete basis for discussion, the U.N. Team corried out 13 studies on possible products suitable to the package deal technique and the results of these have been presented in the Team's Final Report: "Economic Co-operation for ASEAN".

The following document, "Feasibility Study of a Regional Plan for the Production of Nitrogen and Phosphate Fortilizers in the ASEAN Countries" continues the work of project definition and is the first in-depth feasibility report on a possible ASEAN prokage deal project. The study has been carried out by a chouled engineer, for. Toylor Dorden, and an industrial economist, Mr. Stephen Merrett, and was financed under the Special Industrial Services of the United Nations Industrial Development Organization.

SECTION I

SUMLRY AND CONCLUSIONS

Market Forecast

The study begins with the wirket. An estimate is made for 1980/81 $\mathbf{1}$. of the consumption of the nitrogen and phosphorus pentoxide nutrients for each of the ASEAN countries. The results are:

The aggregate rate of growth in demand in the twelve years from the end of the 1960's up to 1980-81 will be approximately 10.1 per cent for nitrogen and 9.5 per cent for P₂O₅.

The total ASEAN consumption in tons of nutrient after excluding supplies expected to come from mound rock phosphate, that is to say the total ASEAN effective demand for chemical fertilizer nutrient is forecast for 1980/61 as:

> \mathbf{N} 1,038,000

 $rac{F_2O_5}{43L_0000}$

2. Present and Planned Supply

Information was collected on all units at present manufacturing nitrogen and phosphate fertilizers in the ASEM countries. Adding up these quantities plus that of the Indonesian Pusri II complex, which has now been approved and financed, gives total capacity output in the region. The gap between 1960/61 consumption and this total of existing and assured additional capacity is the forecast nutrient shortfall which equals:

ASEAN Nutrient shortfall in in tons <u>n</u>
395,000

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3. Product choice and plan alternatives

In order to eliminate this nutrient shortfall, alternative plans were drawn up, all of which arc based on the production of two fertilizers: prilled urea and a complex fertilizer with an N P K analysis of 23-23-9.5. The choice of urea and a complex fertilizer was made because:

- a) supplying the farmer with complex fertilizers permits a balanced application of nutrients much more easily;
- b) investment costs can be reduced by producing complex fertilizers rather than two or more straight (single nutrient) fertilizers;
- c) mixing some straight fertilizers, e.g. urea and triple superphorphate, presents technical difficulties;
- d) urea and the complex fertilizer chosen in this study each have ^a high nutrient percentage thereby reducing the cost of distribution of each ton of plant food with consequently lower prices to the farmer.

Three alternative plans were drawn up. Regional Plan I (R.P.I) has two independent complexes, both based on natural gas, both producing urea and the complex fertilizer, and with a total capacity matching the ASEAN nutrient shortfall. Regional Plan II (R.P.II) has three complexes. Only one of the complexes has phosphoric acid production facilities, but the same complex produces no ammonia. Therefore each complex exports or imports intermediate products to one of the other twe complexes. Total output in terms of nutrient is the same as in R.P.I. With such large tonnages of end-product and intermediate products requiring transport. in the regional alternatives, we recommend that the regional complexes each be located at a large port and each should have its own loading and unloading facilities. The National Plan (N.P.), the third alternative, has two independent ccrinlexes. Both complexes produce urea and the complex fertilizer. One is based on natural gas and the other on naphtha. Total nutrient capacity is sufficient to eliminate the forecast nutrient shortfall in the two largest consuming countries in the region.

Soction I Pf-ge ³

4. Economic viability of the three alternatives

The main economic indicators of the three plans are given below:

In terms of all of the economic indicators, R.P.I and R.F.II are very similar in magnitude. In terms of volume and value of output, total investment and total foreign exchange savings, N.P. is approximately 81 per cent of the magnitude of the regional plans, whilst the proportional annual operating surplus is higher, at 87 per cent; and the average rate of return on capital is of the same magnitude as the Regional Flans. The return on capital in all three plans is encouragingly high.

In Section VI of this study we show in detail that in every respect R.P.I is either as good as or better than R.P.II, even though the differences are not large. The chief comparison mde, therefore, is between Regional Plan I and the National Plan.

Decause N.P. is designed to ncet the consumption requirements of the two largest consuming nations in 1980/81, its scale of output is sufficient to reap substantial economies of scale of manufacturing. However, one of the complexes is based on naphtha - less efficient than the same process using natural gas and it also has a smaller ammonia capacity than the $R.P.I$ complexes. As a result the efficiency of R.F.I is greater than that of M.P. in terms of investment costs and operating coats. But the transport costs incurred in the regional solution tell egainst it for there are none in the national solution.

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The choice between $R_{\bullet}P_{\bullet}I$ and $i.P.$ should be based on the cost of finance of the plans using the most modern of project appraisal techniques, discounted cash flow. In Section VI we show precisely under what circumstances which plan is preferable in economic terms.

The final result is:

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NOTE ON UNITS OF MEASURETENT AND TIME-HORIZON. ABBREVIATIONS

NOTE

Throughout this study the basic units of measurement are metric tons and U.S. Dollars. 1980/81 has been chosen as the time-horizon for estimated consumption and the plan alternatives. This gives sufficient time for: thorough review by the .SEAN countries of the alternative techniques of economic co-operation; taking ^a decision (if so nade) to go ahead with the package deal technique; selection of projects; project report; calling of tenders and allocation of contracts; construction of the manufacturing complexes.

Abbreviations

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Section II: The Effective Demand for Nitrogen and Phosphate Fertilizers in the ASEAN Countries

The starting point of any plan of production must be the estimation of the effective demand for the end- β roducts manufactured. As we are dealing with the feasibility of a regional plan, then naturally we examine in turn the situation in each of the ASEAH member countries in terms of past and present consumption and the prospects for change in the future. This Section in which we forecast the effective demand for nitrogen and phosphate fertilizers is composed therefore of ^a series of country studies,

A. Indonesia

1. The available statistics indicate that the import and consumption of fertilizer nutrients in Indonesia have fluctuated sharply from year to year during the 1960s. Throughout the period there have also been very large stocks in the warehouses, never less than one year's sales. In spite of this it is clear that there has been ε strong growth trend in the consumption of nitrogen from very low base period tonnages, whilst the growth rate in the demand for phosphorus pentoxide has been rather modest.

Table II.1 presents the time-series of distribution of the NP nutrients by major sector. Taking the years 1964-65 and 1969-70 as base and end-periods, the annual rate of growth of distribution has been 12.4 per cent for nitrogen and 4.3 per cent for P_2C_5 .¹

/Table II.1:

1/ Throughout this Section we have used as the measure of annual consumption in the base and end-periods an average taken over three years. We do not do so in this case because of the abnormally low figure for P_2O_q in 1966. Here, a base-period of 1964-66 gives a misleadingly hign growth rate because of the misleadingly low base.

Table II.1: Nutrient distribution in Indonesia

by sector by year in tons

No comprehensive nation-wide statistics at present exist for $2.$ Indonesia, either on the proportion of nutrient going to specific crops or on the relative shares of harvest area fortilized. The best estimates which exist are the results of a recent farm survey. Table II.2 shows estimated proportionate nutrient consumption.

Table II.2: Nutrient constantion in Indonesia

in 1969 by crop/sector in percentages

Rice is the most important consumer and the estates run second. The chief estate crops are rubber, oil palm, sugarcane and tea; for secondary food crops, maize and vegetables are mere significant. The nutrient ratio, as can be seen, varies widely between the four categories. In the waallholder sector the predominance of rice in nutrient consumption is established by the much bigger aren harvested. In fact, for the main foodcrops, in Java at least, there is little difference between the proportion of harvested area fertilized: for rice, maize and vegetables it lies in the range 27-30 per cent. Tobacco, on the other hand, is 64 per cent fertilized, whilst all other smallholder cash crops together receive ^a negligible amount of fertilizer.

With respect to area-wise consemption, the 1968-70 shares in total foodcrop NFK consumption by main region were:

```
East Java 36<sup>7</sup>
West Java 28\%Central Java 23%
Sumatra 11%
Other islands 2%
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High distribution costs in the outer islands is the most serious constraint to an increase in fertilizer demand in these areas. Whilst the average distribution nargir. for Java is Rp. 8,400 per ton, that for the outer islands is Rp. 12,900 per ton.

3. In terras of end-product the foodcrop sector has come to rely less and less on ammonium sulphate, substituting urea. Triple superphosphate has become the dominant source of P_2O_c . This standardization has been largelv determined bv official policías whi^h subsidize urea and T8P on rice and maize, although it is in line with the relative profitability of different nutrient sources. As yet there has been little significant development in the use of compounds. The trend over time on the estates is not clear but we do know that there has been traditionally a greater reliance on ammonium svlphate and compounds such as nitrophosphate than in the foodcrop sector. The Indonesian estate sector at present uses about 20,000 tons per annum of ground rock phosphate as a P_2O_e source. Table II.3 shows the 1970 end-product shares in total nutrient distributed.

/Table II.3

Table II.3» End-product shares ot nutrient

4. In 1970 the area of cultivated land in Indonesia totalled approximately 18 million hectares. From Table II.1 we see that in the same year distribution of the nitrogen and P_2O_5 nutrients totalled some 230,000 tons. On this basis the average application rate to agricultural land in the country is 12.8 kg./ha. This is very much lower than the rates in South Korea, Japan and Taiwan, the cost intensive fertilizer consumers in Asia, whose rates lie in the range 195 to 283 kg./ha. It is therefore worthwhile to sketch in what nave been some of the constraints on expansion in fertilizer demand in Indonesia in the past.

5. The first constraint we begin with is value-cost ratios where most of the work has been done on the nitrogen-rice relationship. Experiments by the Central Research Institute of Agriculture which have been conducted on the response rates of paddy to N show good results when controls are maintained for all other variables. The average value-cost ratio was 5.5tl. However, fertilisation of most traditional Indonesian varieties is not recommended because of the likelihood of lodging. Another data source is a recent farm survey of the rice sector which showed that

/when

when other inputs were allowed to vary the ratio of the values of the incremental yield expected by farmers to additional nitrogen nutrient lay predominantly in the range of $2-4:1$ for high yielding varieties and 1-3:1 for non-HYV».

However, the results from ^a survey of crop-cuttings give ^a more pessimistic picture. These bring out not merely the average rate for a crop or region but also the frequency distribution of the outcomes. Only this measure provides evidence on the risk element the famer faces in the decision to invest in fertilisers and associated inputs. The data suggest that amongst every 100 farmers in West and Central Java, where the cuttings were taken, about 22 will find that the value of the incremental yield was actually lower than the cost of the input package which included the fertiliser; about ³⁷ will find that the value approximately equalled the cost; and only 41 will find a clearly high value-cost ratio, with an average equal to Sil. The last group is the only one to have gained from the Investment. Low yields were principally due to inadequate water supply, insufficient water control, pest attacks and nutrient application to unresponsive plant varieties.

The latest evidence from crop cuttings brings together some of all these points. The highest vieles come, not surprisingly, from the HYVs, but these also have the widest vield distribution and therefore ^a very appreciable element of risk. This is due to their greater sensitivity to non-optimality in other inputs, e.g. pesticides and water. The evidence shows, then, that auch higher nutrient application rates can be expected in the future with the spread of HYVs provided the farmer can be sure of getting the right fertilizer at the right time, with assured supplies of water and pesticides.

This raises the problem of the *NV* seeds. In the past many farmers have been disappointed by them. This is due to the fact that in many cases they have been using degenerated seed which was less fertiliser responsive and had ^a lower incremental yield than local improved varieties. The farmers felt, however, that the "extension seed" was even worse than their own. At the same time village seed farms have faced a very bad marketing situation, primarily due to the vary poor quality of

tbeir product. However, in the last two years ^a number of new projects have bean started both for seed farms and seed distribution and improvements in the situation are already apparent giving much more hope for the future.

6. The second constraint concerns the extension service. In the paat the Indonesian extension service has suffered from two basic weaknesses! extension officers have had very little contact with the individual farmer and extension has been largely limited to the information phase - radio, handouts, lectures and field-days. This is now frankly recognised and over the last ¹⁸ months the situation has definitely begun to change. Also there has been an attempt to formulate clear work progresases and *tiïikê* during the last season showed it was willing to pursue a more flexible policy on the supply of inputs to the farmer.

7. The third constraint on nutrient demand we wish to mention has been that the majority of farmers with one hectare or less of land have been unable to repay or only partly able to repay credit issued for fertiliser purchases. Of total rural credit extended in Indonesia from 1965-66 to 1970 only one fifth was repaid. Whilst the marginal valuecoat ratio for fertiliser application is believed to be relatively high on these farms, the fact remains that ^a good part of additional production is in practice allocated to the most immediate consumption needs. The new credit policy introduced since ¹⁹⁷⁰ will channel the majority of loans to the richer farmers and already repayment rates have improved significantly. However, it does mean that the very small farmers are unlikely to constitute ^a growth sector for fertiliser consumption.

The improved seed supply and extension service changes mentioned above will themselves improve credit repayment rates by raising yields, and thereby ensure ^a greater supply of 'recycled' credit for fertiliser purchase.

8. In the light of these comments on past demand constraints and current changes in the situation for the better we feel that the rounded 1964-70 growth rate of ¹² per cent for nitrogen will be maintained during the 1970s. This in spite of the fict that the base period tonnages arc now, of course, much much higher. As the new base we use the average N consumption of 1969 and 1970; consumption in these two years was 142,000 and 166,000 tons respectively.¹/ Application of a 12% growth rate to this base gives estimated N consumption in 1980/81 as 540,000 tons.

Rice will remain the predominant fertilizer user, with perhaps as much as 90 per cent of rice demand coming from the dYVs. It is grown mainly under submerged conditions and *d* losses in gaseous form from nitrates may be heavy. N should therefore be provided in the ammoniacal form.

9. With respect to phosphorus pentoxide we are driven to speculation. There is little information in Indonesia on the use of P_2O_5 either on value-cost ratios or on physical response rates. This is in part due to the fact that very little experimental or research work has been done where F_2O_g was the principal variable. The lack of data may account for the large errors (in an upward direction) in earlier projections of demand for this nutrient, a rather discouraging precedent for the forecaster.

Undismayed by past experiences of unjustified optimism, we feel sure that during the 1970s the consumption of $P_0 Q_6$ will grow at a markedly faster rate than the 4.3 per cent of 1964-70. In the first place there has been very recently a clear quickening of interest in Indonesia amongst experimental workers, extension officers and farmers. Second, the year-by-year increase in nitrogen-application - and nitrogen demand will increase by ^a factor of ³ in the 1970s - should begin to

/reveal

y These are the best available estimates. They differ from the distribution figures for 1969 and 1970 in Table II.1 because of year-to-year stock changes and stock run-down caused not by demand but by product deterioration.

reveal P_2O_5 (and K_2O) deficiencies in the soil as these nutrients too are taken out of the soil by increased food a d cash crop production. A related point is that in 1969-70 the III_2O_5 consumption ratio was 2.7:1. The optimal ratio for Indonesia is not known but it probably does lie between ² and ³ to I. However, the continued maintenance of a ratio of this order would not be consistent with a continuation of the 1964-70 experience of the ratio of growth rates of demand for H and P_2O_5 diverging in the ratio of approximately three-to-one.

Our final reason for expecting an increase in the P_2O_5 growth rate is that the future is likely to bring with it the production and marketing of complex fertilizers in Indonesia. The greatlv increased availability of NP fertilizers and the ability to apply both nutrients at the same time is certain to raise the farmer's outlays on P_2O_5 .

We assume that the $N: P_2O_5$ consumption ratio in 1980-81 will be of the order of 2.5:1. This implies a demand for P_2O_5 of some 220,000 tons and an implicit average growth rate from the 1969-70 annual average consumption, equal to 57,000 tons¹, of 13 per cent.

Of the ¹⁹⁸⁰ total about one-fifth will be consumed by the estates. We assume ground rock phosphate will provide approximately 20,000 tons of total nutrient consumed. For rice the end-product source is more or less immaterial, in the plant biological sense; for upland crops the information is not yet available.

1/ Different from Table II.1 for the same reasons as stated for nitrogen.

/B- Malaysia

B. Malaysia

1. Agriculture and forestry continue to-day to be Malaysia's most Important economic sector. Fifty per cent of the countrv's present 12 million population work in agriculture where approximately 30 per cent of gross domestic product is produced, half of which come from rubber alone. In 1970 rubber supplied 34 per cent of total export receipts. Malaysia is also the world's largest producer of tropical hardwoods and palm oil.

In estimating future nutrient consumption we shall, following Kemmler's analysis, adopt a product-by-product approach for West Malaysia alone, returning to the needs of Salah and Sarawak in a separate paragraph. (Remmler 1970)

2. Rubber. Of Wast Malaysia's 2.7 millior. hectares of agricultural land, 2.2 million is devoted to plantation crops and 0.5 million to food crops, Rubber dominates the plantation sector with a 1968 total of 1.8 million hectares of which 1.1 million were in small-holdings and 0.7 million in estates. The estates' rubber area is decreasing in favour of oil palms whilst the smallholding rubber area is increasing due to encouragement from government-supported schemes. To meet the serious competition from synthetics the rubber sector is replanting on a consistent basis with new high-vielding clones developed by the Rubber Research Institute of Malaya and private research institutes.

These institutes provide an excellent fertiliser advisory service with detailed schedules for newly-planted and mature trees. Formerly, the main emphasis was laid on phosphorus pentoxide particularly for establishing a leguminous cover crop in immature rubber plantations. At present the recommended average $M: \mathbb{F}_q \mathbb{C}_q$ nutrient ratio for rubber trees is 111.I and for a substantial part of inland soils nitrogen in fact outweighs P_2O_5 in the ratio 1:0.7.

Most estate fertiliser programmes are well organised and their ¹⁹⁶⁹ consumption was already very close to the recommended rate. The future growth rate will therefore be rather low, of the order of five

> **Northern** /per cent

per cent per annum with an unchanged nutrient ratio. The smallholdings rubber area will increase by about ³ per cent per annum and fertilizer consumption can be expected to increase at a corresponding rate. After 1975 the annual rate of growth of total consumption of nitrogen and P_2O_g will be at the average, let us say, of the two rates up to 1975. 1969 consumption and the 1975 and 1980 projections are given in Table U.U.

Table II.4: Nutrient consumption on rubber estates and mallnoldings in West Malaysia in 1969, 1975 and 1980 in tons

Ammonium sulphate and ammonium nitrate are both widely used. The usual F_0O_g form, in straights or mixtures, is ground rock phosphate fron Christmas Island. In fertiliser experiments it has given satisfactory results under the prevailing climatic and soil conditions. By 1968 compounds accounted for about ⁵⁰ per cent of total consumption for rubber.

3. Oil palm. Since the early 1950s the oil pair acreage has increased five-fold to 200,000 hectares in ¹⁹⁶⁹ and is still expanding, loth the smallholding sector and the rubber estates have been diversifying their output by moving into this crop. Nutrient requirements for the palm for vegetative growth and fruit bunch production are vary high and adequate fertiliser application is essential. Eight-year old palms can in a single year take up from the soil 128 kilogrammes of nitrogen and 39 kilogrammes of P_0O_5 per hectare. The Department of Agriculture and private research stations have now established ^a well-organised fertiliser advisory service on the basis of numerous experiments.

/In Table II.5

In Table II.5 the ¹⁹⁶⁹ consumption of fertilizer for oil palm production and Kemmler's projections for 1975 and 1980 are given. The average growth rate of nitrogen and $\overline{P}_2C_{\bf g}$ nutrient consumption over the 1969-80 period is 8.1 per cent and 11.3 per cent respectively. Fertilizers used for oil palms are the same as those applied to rubber.

	production on estates and smallholdings in West Malaysia in 1969, 1975 and 1980								
	Total oil palm area	Application rate in kg./ha.		Fertilizer consumption in tons					
	in ha.	N	P_{\perp} O	Ñ	P_{0}				
1969	211,000	52	38	11,000	8,000				
1975	332,000	60	60	20,000	20,000				
1980	400,000	65	65	26,000	26,000				

Table II.5: Nutrient consumption for oil palm

4. Rice. It is now an objective of Malaysian government policy to make the country self-sufficient in rice. ^A number of measures have been adopted to achieve this such as ^a minimum price for paddy, ^a ³⁰ per cent subsidy for fertiliser used on paddy and the introduction of highyielding varieties. Since 1968 a sister variety of the International Rice Research Institute's IK5 known as Bahagia has been introduced and it is believed will become the major variety used in double-cropping areas. The present recommended nutrient application in kilogrammes/ hectare is 67-100 N, 34-45 P_2O_5 and 17-34 K₂0. This is estimated to give a 4:1 value-cost ratio.

Table II.6 presents the consumption of nutrient by paddy in 1969/70 on the single-cropped and double-cropped acreage. The 1975 figures are Kemaler's projections of acreage, application rates and consequent nutrient consumption. The 1975-1980 growth rates for nitrogen and phosphorus are 11.4 per- cent and 12.5 per cent respectively. Endproducts used are ammonium sulphate, urea, ground rock phosphate and compound fertilisers.

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5. Other crops. This includes cassava, sweet potatoes, groundnuts, maise, green vegetables, pepper, sugarcane, coconuts, pineapples, bananas and other fruit. Pineapples and pepper already receive heavy applications but the acreage is small. If present private enterprise plans for the expansion of sugarcane production are realised, this crop could become . the largest single nutrient consumer in the "other crops" category. In 1969 consumption by "other crops" of nitrogen and P_2O_5 stood at 12,000 tons and $2,000$ tons respectively. By 1980 this could increase to $27,000$ tons and 9,000 tons respectively.

6 East Malaysia. Sarawak and Sabah together cover 60 per cent of the territory of the Federation of Malaya. In terms of agricultural area the figure is much lower, at 36 per cent. Bast Malaysia takes up about ¹⁰ per cent of the total fertiliser consumption of the Federation.

Measured by area cultivated Sarawak's cropping pattern is mainly given over to rubber and rice. But it is pepper which accounts for over half the territory's fertiliser consumption. Fertiliser endproducts used are similar to West Malaysia. Sabah's main crops in acreage terms are rubber, coconuts, rice and oil palm. Most of fertilizer imports go to this last crop.

/In Table II.7

In table II.7 Bast Malaysia's 19G8 consumption of nitrogen and P_2O_5 are set out with projections for 1975 and 1980.

	1968		1975		1980	
	N	P_2O_5	Ν	P_2O_5	N	$P_{0}O_{c}$
Sara wak	3,100	3,200	$\bullet\bullet\bullet$	$\bullet\bullet\bullet$	$\bullet\bullet\bullet$	$\bullet\bullet\bullet$
Sabah	400	700	$\bullet\bullet\bullet$	$\bullet\bullet\bullet$	$\bullet\hspace{0.1cm} \bullet\hspace{0.1cm} \bullet\hspace{0.1cm} \bullet\hspace{0.1cm} \bullet$	$\bullet\bullet\bullet$
East Malaysia	3,500	3,900	7,000	7,000	10,000	10,000

Table 11.7: Nutrient consumption in East Malaysia in 1968. 1975 and 1930

7. Table II.8 brings together the nutrient consumption projections for each crop and for East Malaysia. In ¹⁹⁶⁹ the total nutrient consumption was 56,000 tons of nitrogen and 46,000 tons of P_2O_5 for the Federation of Malaysia as a whole. Thus the implicit growth rate for nitrogen and P_2O_5 in the period 1969-1980 is 9.2 per cent and 9.1 per cent respectively. P_2O_5 will continue to be supplied in the form of ground phosphate rock. If the percentage of nutrient supplied in rock form remains the same as it was at the end of the 1960s, that is ⁸⁵ per cent, then the P_2O_5 nutrient requirement in the form of chemical fertilizers will be only 18,000 tons out of the 1980 120,000 tons total.

/C. The Philippines

C. The Philippines

1. The importance of agriculture to the Philippines is wellrecognized. Agriculture and forestry contributed one-third of gross national product in 1970 and the proportion was actually increasing in the late sixties. Some sixty per cent of the labour force work in agriculture. Four-fifths of total export earnings come from the sale of agricultural products, the most important of which are copra, sugar, abaca, pineapples, forest products, vegetable oils, and seeds.

2. A time-series of nutrient consumption is difficult to construct with complete accuracy because of the uncertainty in year-to-year stock changes, the incompleteness of import statistics and the likely doublecounting of imported materials used for domestic production of compounds. It is accepted that the PAO data are the best available and these are given in Table II.9.

Table II.9: Nutrient consumption in the Philippines to year in tons

8ource: PAO Annual Fertiliser Review.

Using the annual average of 1932/63 - 1964/65 as base and 1967/ ⁶⁸ - 1969/70 as the end-period, the rate of growth of nitrogen was very modest at 5.3 per cent per annua. The correrponding growth rate of phosphorus pentoxide was 13.7 per cent, all of the advance being registered by the quantum leaps of the last two years of our time-aeries.

The devaluation of the peso in February 1970 from ^P 3.90 to the dollar to a fleating rate which in 1971 was some P 6.40 meant a

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severe increase in the price of fertilizers. Between September ¹⁹⁶⁹ and March 1970 end-product prices rose by 41 - 73 per cent (TVA 1971). As ^a result consumption in 1970/71 and 1971/72 has probably not increased on the 1969/70 figure and may well have fallen back.

3. In geographic terms nutrient consumption is highly concentrated Regional estimates for 1970 to the nearest percentage point were:

In Southern Tagalog, particularly Batangas and Cavite provinces, application rates are very heavy compared with the rest of the country. Western Visayas is an important sugar-cane producing region. Central Luson has priority rice programmes and is also a sugar producer. (TVA 1971) \mathbb{R}^4

4. Consumption is also concentrated in terms of its distribution amongst crops. According to ESFAC $\frac{1}{2}$ estimates for 1967, shown in Table 11.10, sugarcane and rice between them took up more than threequarters of total consumption of each nutrient, nitrogen and P_2O_5 . Kamm1er has suggested that in 1975 these two crops will continue to dominate effective demand, joined by maise; the three together will consume 81 per cent of all nitrogen and 73 per cent of all P_2O_g . A more detailed study of these three crops is therefore justified.

/Table 11.10

 $1/$ Ssso Standard Fertiliser and Agricultural Chemicals Company. Since these estimates were made Ssso has sold its fertilizer business.

Table 11.10» Nutrient consumption in the Philippines by crop in 1967 and 1975 in percentages

Source: 1967 ESFAC. 1975 Kemmler.

5. Sugarcane. Table II.11 shows that only 4 per cent of all harvested land is given uver to sugar-cane. But it consumed ⁴⁸ per cent of all nitrogen in 1967. Therefore sugar-cane uses about ²⁷ times more nitrogen per hectare than the average for all other crops. The ratio of P_2O_5 is even higher.

Table 11.11» 1970 area harvested by major crops

Source: TVA 1971

Sugar-cane acreage has almost doubled since the early fifties but from the beginning of the sixties yields have decreased and the trend rate of growth in production for the last two decades has been negligibly different from zero. The Philippines did not fill its expert quota to the United States in the late sixties and its quota was accordingly cut in 1971 by the U.S. Congress. The Philippines special ambassador to the United States predicted in May ¹⁹⁷² a further cut when the new quotas are established in 1974.

With these points in mind our orojection for fertilizer demand in 1980 takes the rather conservative ESFAC estimate for 1975 raised by ten per cent. This gives 1980 consumption as 52,000 tons of nitrogen and 26,000 tons of P_0O_5 . A low estimate is strongly confirmed by the fact that 1967 data show that the average recommended rate for nitrogen was exceeded by actual applications whilst P_0O_5 use was as high as 83 per cent of the recommended rate.

Nitrogen is used to an increasing extent in the form of urea but many growers insist on applying part of it as ammonium sulphate. Other M sources are mono- and di-ammonium phosphate which, with NPK compounds, supplies virtually all the $P_{\gamma}O_{\zeta}$ uptake.

6. Rice. As we can see from Tables II.10 and II.11 rice is the second most important consumer of fertilizer nutrients and the most important of all crops, in terms of acreage harvested. Acreage has remained fairly stable in recent years. The remarkable increase in output since 1966 is mainly due to the successful introduction of the new HYVs produced by the International Rice Adsearch Institute and the Bureau of the Plant Industry. The acreage under HYVs has increased from a negligible amount in ¹⁹⁶⁵ to about ³⁰ per cent of the total in 1968/69.

In ¹⁹⁶⁸ the Philippines achieved self-sufficiency in rice production for the first time, although in ¹⁹⁷⁰ and ¹⁹⁷¹ there were largescale imports because of damage to crops by typhoons and the ravaging effects of disease on one of the new $dNVs$. These set-backs appear to be of ^a temporary nature and we can expect total production to equal or be very close to total consumption throughout the 1970s. Possibilities for export seem very limited. \mathcal{L}

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/Accordingly

Accordingly we expect rice acreage to change little over the coming years. Paddy output may riae at ^a rate slightly above the rate of growth of population, say four per cent per annum. Present rates of application are definitely below the recommended rates of approximately 60 kg. nitrogen and 40 kg. of P_2O_5 per hectare. Room for growth in fertilizer demand exists. Furthermore, new strains developed by the IRRI and BPI with a better taste and higher disease resistance may also encourage increased acreage intensity of nutrient use. On this basis the effective demand for nitrogen on paddy could rise each year by say 6 per cent and for $R_0 O_5$ at a higher rate. Nitrogen consumption in 1980/ 81 we project to be 50,000 tons against 20,000 tons of P_2O_5 , a nutrient ratio of 2.5:1.

 $7.$ Maize. Maize is the most important food crop in the Philippines after rice. Average yields per hectare have been very low. In order to meet the growth in demand, but with total acreage little changed, the government has been promoting HYVs. The target number of hectares under these new varieties has been set at 500,000, which is about one-fifth of present total acreage harvested. In 1967 maize accounted for only 4 per cent of total nitrogen consumed and 2 per cent of total P_2O_5 . But the government's HYV programme, will boost these proportions.

The Rice and Corn Production Co-ordinating Council's recommendations are 90 kg. N and 45 kg. P_2O_5 per hectare. If 90 per cent of total fertiliser consumption in 1980 is on HYVs and if these cover the planned 500,000 ha., using fertilizer at say ⁶⁰ per cent of the recommended rate then the effective demand for nutrients for maize in 1980/81 will be 30,000 tons of N and 15,000 tons of P_0C_5 .

8. Other crops. The most important of these are coconuts, pineapples, bananas, vegetables, abaca and tobacco. Coconuts are the Philippines biggest export earner in the form of copra, coconut oil and dessicated coconut. Experiments on fertiliser response rates have begun in the last few years and rates of 80 kg. N and 60 kg. P_2O_5 per hectare have been recommended by the Bureau of Soils. Coconut could become a very considerable user of fertilizers but a number of problems such as

land tenure, lack of capital, small *tarm size*, etc. are holding demand in check. 1980 consumption may be of the order of 5,000 tons of nitrogen and $4,000$ tons of P_2^o , All other crops mav generate a demand in the projection year for say 35,000 tons of nitrogen and 15,000 tons of P_2O_5 .

9. Table II.12 brings together the crop-based consumption estimates. Using 1967/68 - 1969/70 as base-period, the rate of growth of effective demand averaged over all products in the twelve years up to 1900/81 is 8.4 per cent for nitrogen and 5.0 per cent for P_2O_5 .

In terms of the crop-wise distribution of nitrogen, sugarcane's share falls from 48% in 1967 to 30% in 1980/81. On the other hand the share of maize rises from 4% to 17% . The same shift in relative weights is even more marked in the case of P_2O_5 . It is the relative stagnation in the growth of fertiliser demand from the sugarcane sector which explains the slow rate of growth of demand for P_2O_5 .

Table 11.121 Estimated nutrient consumption in the Philippines in 1980/81 by crop in tons

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D. Thailand

1. Agriculture is far and away the dominant sector in the economy of Thailand in terms of employment and value of exports. Three-quarters of the labour force work in agriculture and in 1969 74 per cent of the country's exports originated in this sector, the most important products being rice, rubber, maise and tapioca in that order. With the rate of. growth of the Thai population at present exceeding ³ per cent and with the largest increases in foreign exchange earnings projected still to come from primary products, the agricultural sector can be expected to maintain its dominant position throughout the 1970s.

About 30 different crops are grown in the country of which ⁴⁰ are of commercial importance. These can be broken down into seven major categories:

Rice

Grains and forage (maise and sorghum) Fibre (jute, kenaf, cotton) Oil (caster beans, peanuts, soya beans; coconut) Fruit and vegetables Tree crops (deciduous, citrus, banana, coffee, rubber) Others (including tapioca, sugarcane and tobacco)

Rice is and always has been the most important crop and some two-thirds •f the country's ¹¹ million hectares of cultivated land are devoted to it. The major rice cultivation area is the alluvial Central Plain.

Chemical fertiliser was first imported into Thailand in the early years after the Second World War, in the form of white ammonium sulphate. This product became the accepted nutrient source amongst farmers. As ^a result during the early 1950s Thailand was basically a nitrogen-using country. In the late 1950s ^a gray 16:20:0 compound was introduced and also met wide acceptability. The spread of fertiliser usage in the years up to 1960 was very modest and in that year the country consumed a total of only 12,000 tons of nitrogen and phosphorus pentoxide.

Table 11.13 shows the growth of the main products during the period 1961/62 - 1969/70. The first point to note is the high rate of

growth in effective demand for both nutrients from a low base-period tonnage. Taking as base and end periods the three year averages of 1962/3 - 1964/5 and 1967/8 - 1969/70 respectively, the annual rate of growth over the intervening five years was 27 per cent in the case of nitrogen and even higher at 34 per cent in the case of $P_2^0O_5^2$.

These aggregate growth rates hide ^a pronounced shift in the type of end-product purchased. Dividing the products into two groups, low analysis straight fertilisers (ammonium sulphate, ammonium nitrate, other nitrogen fertilizers, superphosphate and other phosphate fertilizers) and high analysis and complex fertilisers (urea, ammonium phosphate and other complex fertilizers) we can deduce from Table 11.13 that whilst in 1961/62 the relative shares in total consumption of the first and second g_{λ} bups was 51 per cent and 49 per cent respectively, by 1967/68, the last year for which we have the product break-down, the relative shares had changed to ²² per cent and ⁷⁸ per cent. This is effectively symbolised by the displacement of ammonium sulphate by ammonium phosphate as the No. 1 nutrient provider to Thai agriculture. $^{1/}$

2. For many years fertiliser use was mostly confined to fruit and vegetable cultivation in the Central Plain for the Bangkok market. Accurate statistics do not exist on fertilizer use broken down by area or by crop. But it appears that some ⁶⁰ per cent of total fertilizer consumption is taken up within *^a* ¹⁰⁰ kilonetre radius of Bangkok. It was

/the fruit

1/ One uncertainty in the data sources is the quantity of urea used in agriculture. Mueller has suggested that as much as 80-90 per cent of the urea produced in Thailand or imported goes to industrial uses such as glue, monosodium glutamate and various fermentation processes. /"Mueller ¹⁹⁷¹ J? If this were true it would tend to diminish the rate of growth of consumption of fertiliser nitrogen because urea makes up an increasing proportion over time of total nutrient consumed in Table 11.13} but even with 90 per cent industrial usage the rate of growth would not fall below ²⁵ per cent.

Page II.22

Table II.13: Consumption of nitrogen and phosphate fertilizers in Thailand

by product in tons of nutrient, 1961/62 - 1969/70

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ground rock phosphate excluded. Note:

the fruit and vegetable growers who pioneered the use of compounds on a significant scale. These farmers are regarded as the most progressive of all due to their educational levels and financial status. (Cavuaoglu 1970). Complex fertilisers and mixtures have been preferred because they are less bulky than straight fertilizers. They also combine the NP and NPK nutrients homogeneously enabling farmers to apply them more accurately and easily than combining straights. Vegetables in particular are said to show a remarkable response to fertilizer use. 13:13:13 mixtures are widely used.

During the 1950s and early $1060s$ there was widespread pessimism on the likelihood of rice farmers using fertilizer. Since then there has been ^a remarkable change in the situation and now it is estimated that about one-half of total consumption on N and P_2O_k goes on paddy. In 1970 Kemmler pointed out that in the case of ^a farmer following the fertiliser recommendations of the Department of Agriculture the value-cost ratio of fertiliser use was as high as 3.3 - 6.7:1. (Kemmler 1970) Ammonium phosphate has been particularly popular amongst rice farmers.

Thus rice, vegetables and fruit, dominate the consumption of fertiliser in Thailand. After these three the most important crops: are probably tobacco, rubber, maise and sugar-cane.

3. Wo now look at the main determinants of the changes in aggregate and product-wise consumption described in paragraph 2 above.

Prices. Table II.14 shows the prices Thai farmers had to pay in ¹⁹⁶⁵ and ¹⁹⁶⁹ for nine different fertilisers when purchased on credit. The price reductions have been very large, in all cases but one they lie in the 14-25 per cent range. This fall played ^a major role in the large expansion of demand over this four-year period. (See Table 11.13.) There is no clear correlation between the magnitude of the fall in price and the magnitude of expansion in volume demanded: for example, the price of ammonium sulphate fell more rapidly than that of ammonium phosphate, but as we have seen the volume of ammonium phosphate consumed increased much more rapidly in the second half of the sixties than did ammonium sulphate.

/Table 11.14

Table II.14: Fertilizer prices on credit to Thai farmers 1963-69 in baht per ton

•Cash prices.

Sources prices from Cavusoglu 1970.

Table 11.14 also shows that ^a correlation exista between price per ton of nutrient and the percentage of nutrient in each ton of fertiliser. The products in the table have been ranked in terms of their analysis. Potassium chloride, for example, has the highest analysis and the lowest price per nutrient ton. Superphosphate has the lowest analysis and the highest price per nutrient ton. The fit is not perfect: the 12:24:12 compound, in particular, seems to be considerably over-priced.

It is not only fertilizer prices which effect consumption, bet crop prices too, because for the farmer the relative price of fertiliser and crop plus their agronomic yield relationship is what determines his value/cost ratio upon fertiliser application. Unfortunately we do not have time-series data on crop-prices received by the farmer. But we do know that the farmer is price-sensitive. For example, whilst the area devoted to kenaf, or Thai jute, increased rapidly in the decade of the sixties, present usage of fertiliser is very low. One of the reasons

cited by Kemmler is the price fluctuation of the crop. In other cases fertilizer use followed by higher yields has had the result of ^a fall in price received for the crop. This is a clear example of inelastic demand for the crop checking expansion in the derived demand for fertilizer.

4 Import policy. Up to the mid-1960s there were no quantitative restrictions on the import into Thailand of fertilizers. ^A charge of approximately ⁷ per cent of the c.i.f. price was imposed in transferring the product from steamer to godown to cover a government ad valorem tax and the transportation charges of the government-owned Express Transportation Organisation. /"TVA ¹⁹⁶⁶ ?

In 1967 Thailand's first chemical fertilizer plant came onstream at Mae Mo near Lampang, producing ammonium sulphate and urea. It is owned by the Chemical Fertiliser Company Limited. At the end of the previous year ammonium sulphate imported from Japan was sold at 1,250 baht per ton. Mae Mo marketed its output at the same price in 1967. Within ⁸ months the price of imported ammonium sulphate had been slashed twice by the Japanese to 900 baht, a ²⁸ per cent cut. This was lower than the production cost of the indigenous product. Furthermore, profit margins and credit terns offered by importers to dealers were more favourable than those offered by Chemferco.

By June 1968 Mae Mo's unsold stocks exceeded 35,000 tons and the factory ceased production. In the same month the government banned the import of ammonium sulphate and urea. Excess stocks were slowly liquidated and production was restarted at the beginning of 1970. (Cavusoglu 1970) After the import ban importers increased tremendously their import of nitrogen fertilizers other than ammonium sulphate and urea and in January 1970 the government imposed a ban on other nitrogen fertilisers.

The situation then has been complex. The appearance of Mae Mo led to a fierce price war and considerable price reductions for the farmer in 1966-68. Thereafter, the ammonium sulphate and urea ban led to importers switching into other nitrogen products in 1969. Finally the total nitrogen fertiliser ban in ¹⁹⁷⁰ held back the consumption of all

these products. This analysis is confirmed in aggregate terms by Table I*tD* where we see ^a strong surge in nitrogen consumption up to 1967/68 which is checked thereafter. P_2O_5 consumption continues to grow after 1967/68 but at a much slower rate. $\mathcal{L} \times \mathcal{R}$

The import legislation still permits Chemferco itself to import ammonium sulphate and urea. In Table 11.15 we show the 1971 pricing system. The c.i.f. to wholesaler price increase is very high indeed, 92 per cent and 121 per cent in the case of ammonium sulphate and urea respectively. These mark-ups alone constitute 40 per cent and 46 per cent of the price to the farmer on the respective products.

Table 11.15: Post-1969 pricing system for ammonium sulphate and urea in baht per ton

* Domesticali/ produced or imported. Source: Mueller 1971.

5. Credit. In 1966 the Thai government launched a project aimed at providing credit to farmers for purchasing fertilizer. Later the credit was distributed primarily through agricultural co-operatives. This led to co-operatives bulk-purchasing from wholesalers at cheaper prices. About 6-10 per cent of total fertiliser consumption in ¹⁹⁶⁹ was financed in this way. It is of considerable interest to note that in that year only ³⁴ per cent of total credit applications were granted. The lesson is clear. Greater availability of credit could lead to a vigorous expansion of fertiliser consumption.

/Confirmation

Confirmation can be found for this in the case of tobacco. The Tobacco Monopoly of Thailand ensures the fertilization of almost the entire crop by providing credit to the growers.

However, the credit situation in Thailand at present is not good. Indeed, Donner has said that it is on the verge of collapse. Distributors hesitate to establish new dealers because they are not interested in expanding their volume of fertilizer credit and thus acquiring additional bad credit risks. (TVA 1966) The fanners themselves are deep in debt, an average of 8,000 baht per family and the average interest on this debt is at a rate of 28 per cent per annum. (Donner 1971). Donner estimates that present credit needs for fertilizer alone are 500-600 million baht. If these views are correct then clearly the continuing progress of Thai agriculture depends on resolution of the credit problem.

6. Enough has been said in the previous paragraphs to demonstrate that it would be quite invalid to estimate consumption in ¹⁹⁸⁰ on the basis of projecting the growth rates of the 1960s. As we have seen they

were 27 per cent per annum for nitrogen and 34 per cent per annum for P_2O_5 .

Taking the $1967/68 - 1969/70$ annual average as base, we can foresee only a very modest growth in the short-term primarily because of uncertainties in the import position. However, if this problem is dealt with in a way which is satisfactory to the domestic producer but which permits unrestricted entry of imports once again, the situation will be most encouraging. The present c.i.f. - domestic wholesaler mark-up is sufficiently high that resolution of the import problem would probably permit price cuts for nitrogen of up to 35 per cent to the farmer and smaller reductions in the price of P_2O_5 . This will bring about a large, once-for-all surge in the demand for both products. Thereafter the growth rate of consumption will settle down to a somewhat lower but steadier rate, the maintenance of which will necessitate the provision of an adequate agricultural credit system.

The underlying situation, then, is excellent. In terms of crops, one can foresee that NP compounds will continue to spread amongst rice farmers, with nitrogen supplied in the mnaonium, not the nitrate form. However, Thai rice which is of *tno* tall Ino lea variety, will never become an intensive fertilizer user as it *it* liable to lodge with heavy nutrient application. Only if there were ^a shift into high yielding varieties would this change. At present this seems unlikely since the success of the country's export trade in rice is founded on the excellent taste and cooking qualities of the present Indica grains.

Maize is likely to continue at least its modest expansion in demand for compounds as exports rise. Tobacco, of the local not the Virginia variety, has first-class export prospects and is already an NPK user. The credit system here is particularly encouraging. Rubber, too, is a good potential user and fertilizer recommendations for it are particularly heavy. Fruit and vegetables will maintain and increase their demand for compounds.

There is a continuing need to educate the farmer whose understanding today is based on colour and brand with little knowledge of analysis variation. There is a need for improved extension services. The 1970s will also bring ^a closer understanding of the agronomic yield relationship as ** result of long-tern experiments at present being conducted by the Department of agriculture and the UNDP Soil Fertility Programme. Finally, consumption will undoubtedly be encouraged by the fulfilment of the present plans for irrigation, flood control and drainage projects.

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Table II.16 sets out the assumed growth rate for nitrogen and 7. P_0 ⁰₅ up to 1980-21.

Year		1968/69- 1972/73	$1972/73-$ 1974/75	1974/75- 1980/81	$1968/69-$ $1980/81$ *
Growth rate N		5%	20 _b	12%	10.9%
	P_2 ^O 5	7%	15/	12%	10.8g

Table II.16 - Forecast rate of Growth of Nutrient Consumption in Thailand 1968/69 - 1980/81 in por cent per annum

The equivalent over 12 years of the three component growth rates.

The equivalent of the three component growth rates in the case of both nitrogen and $F_2^0F_5$ is a little short of 11 per cont per num. Projected consumption in 1980/81 of nitrogen is 178,000 tons, and 136,000 tons of P_2O_5 . Of this total we can speculate that 15 per cent or less will be applied as straight fertilizers. The rest will be applied in the form of complex or blended fertilizers.

E. ASEAN

Now we have all the information necessary to estimate the 1980/81 nutrient demand for ASEAN as a whole. It will be noticed that Singapore has so far been left out of account. The Singaporean agricultural sector is extremely small in absolute size because of the island's limited total area. Market gardening and orchid growing are the most important agricultural activities with farmers using organic fertilizers such as pig and chicken manure and prawn dust. Chemical fertilizer use is predominantly for the Garden City Programme on public parks, gardens, flower beds and so forth. Total consumption of fertilizer materials is at present only about 40 tons.

In Table II.17 we bring tegether the demand forceasts for each of the ASEAN countries.

Estimated nutrient consumption in 1980/81 in tons

Singapore's consumption is and will continue to be negligible 1.

2. Excluding ground rock phosehate (GRP) as a nutrient source, that is, including only manufactured chemical fortilizer sources of P_2O_5 .

The two most distinctive fertures of the table are that Indonesia is estimated to be the dominant fertilizer consumer of the ASEAN countries in 1980/81. Second, that in the same year fologsic will be the smallest consumer, by a considerable margin, when ground rock phosphate supplies are excluded, that is when only ponufactured cherical fertilizers are counted. This is the most appropriate figure from the point of view of the requirements for expansion of fertilizer production in the area.

In each of the country studies we used base-period consumption estimates to chiculate the rate of growth of demand for nitregen and for phosphorus pentoxide from all sources, i.e. including ground reck phosphate supplies. Using the same base-period data summed for the ASEAN region as a whole, it con be coloulated that the rate of growth of consumption of nitrogen in the twelve years from the end of the 1960's un to 1980/81 will be approximately 10.1 per cent. The corresponding figure for P_2O_5 is 9.5 per cent.

SECTION III

PRESENT AND PLANNED SUPPLY OF FERTILIZER IN THE ASEAN COUNTRIES

The existing and planned capacity of the ASEAN countries in terms of plant nutrients, N & $P_0O_5 -$ is surnarized in Table III-l. This Table also gives the estimated consumption of fertilizers for the year 1980 and the shortfall between consumption and production for that year.

In considering future capacity, it was assumed that 2ll existing and proposed plants in the ASEAN area would be operated at rated capacity, and the 52,000 metric tons of ^N capacity, as ammonia in the Philippines, would be converted to fertilizer use.

Only the Pusri II project, which has been approved and financed, was considered as being assured future production. The proposed ^M expansion in Malaysia and the completion of the superphosphate plant in Indonesia, are very much in doubt, so they are not included. In any event, the Malaysian ^N expansion would have to be based on imported ammonia which could be supplied from regional production.

The capacity of the fertilizer plants in the ASEAN countries as the situation now stands, can only supply $43.3%$ of the nitrogen and $16.2%$ of the phosphate requirements of the ASEAN countries in 1980.

In terms of plant nutrients, additional production facilities should be constructed between now and I960 to produce 595,000 metric tons per year (2190 metric tons of ammonia per day) of nitrogen, and 368,000 metric tons per year (1115 metric tons of r_2 ^O₅ per day) of P_2 ^O₅ as phosphoric acid, with conversion facilities to produce solid straight and compound fertilizers in order to satisfy the needs of the ASEAN countries.

The projected supply-demand relationships clearly indicate that by 1980 new facilities of adequate size to be economically competitive with imports from any part of the world, could be established in the ASEAN area. This is particularly true because of the availability of a most important raw material, natural gas, at ^a low cost in Indonesia..

Section III
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SERIO COUNTRIES

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SECTION IV SUGGESTED REGIONAL PLASS FOR CO-CFERATION IS FUE FERILLIZER INDUSTRY

A. Introduction

A review of previous reports and concumption figures on that iliters in the Asian countries shows a very narked trend towards the use of granular compound fertilizer of N-F and N-P-K grades.

Developing countries often establish a nitrogen industry first, followed by a phosphate industry, and finally a mixed fortilizer industry. This is what is happening in most of the ASEAN countries except the Philippines. The above sequence has disadvantages since it is likely to make the installation of total industry more expensive, and it makes it more difficult to give the farmer the balanced fertilizer that he needs.

Also, farmers are often illiterate, well-trained advisors few and soil analysis laboratories may be lacking. It would seem best to provide the farmer with mixed fertilizers, compounded on the basis of the best information available for the crops and soils of the area, with due regard to costs.

When nitrogen and phosphate fertilizer facilities are planned separately, problems may arise that could be avoided by a more integrated approach. For instance, if urea is chosen for the nitrogen fertilizer and triple superphosphate for the phosphorous fertilizer, any attempt to mix these two materials except by stecial techniques of a moniating the superphosphate and granulating the mixture simultaneously, results in a wet, sticky mixture that is unusable.

also, money may be wasted in granulating two materials in separate plants when the two could be combined and granulated in a single plant. This is very true in the case of compound fertilizers containing urea, since all of the concentrating and prilling equipment for the urea plant is eliminated at a very large investment savings.

A matter of prime importance is the cost of the finiched fertilizers delivered to the farmer. The actual conditeturing costs are often no more than half of the final cost. Handling, bagging, transport, storage and distribution costs make up a large percentage of the final cost, and for these reasons an economic evaluation usually favours high unalysis fortilizers. While only the CIF cost is used in evoluating the various schemes in this report, the above has influenced the thinking in selection of aroducts and processes.

For the obove reasons, the technology of providing high analysis $\mathbb{F}-P$ and N-P-K granulated fortilizers or intersediate areducts for croducing this type of fertilizer in well-integrated clants has been chosen as the basis for this report.

The inclusion of potash in the compound fertilizers has only been included to the extent that the addition of potash to the granulation plant affects the capacity of the plant.

The production of nitrophosphates, produced by the acidulation of phosphate rock with nitric acid, was considered because of the possible saving on sul. m imports, but has not been included because they are not suitable for paddy rice, there being some danger of spontaneous combustion of nitrophosphates during storage and shipping when they include potasium chloride. There are strong indications that in the wet fields of warm climates they are inferior to the non-nitrate fertilizers, and they are a relatively low-grade fertilizer.

For reasons similar to the above, the production of ammonium nitrate has not been included in this study.

Amonium sulfate, while considered a "Hes-been" fertilizer due to its low analysis, still remains a "tradition fertilizer" for use on paddy rice although it is rapidly being raplaced by urea. Nore than adequate supplies of by-product armonium sulfate are available on the world arrket at prices that rake $loc.1$ production uneconomical (1) .

(1) National Fertilizer Study - Indonesia - Annex V page 14

In view of the above, ures has been related as the nitrogen compound for both straight nitrogen fartilizers and the oredominant nitrogen carrier used in compound fertilizers in this study.

For fertilizer compounds containing N-P and/or H-P-K mixtures of urea, ormonium phosphate, and potash and mixtures of urea, triple superphosphate, ammonia, and pot sh were considered with the former being selected to the optimum to present in the study because the mamonium phosphate based cornound fertilizer gives the highest analysis. The cost per unit of plant food, bulk, ex-factory for monographium phosphate based fertilizer is only about \$0.10 higher, and the water solubility of the phosphate content is higher. The \$0.10 per unit of plant food higher cost of this fertilizer disappears by the time bagging, distribution, freight and sales cost are added to each product, ruking the triple superphosphate based material more expensive to the farmer.

A very wide variety of N-P and N-P-K ratios in the compound fertilizers used in the area exist today with the pattern changing yearly as the fertilizer market grows and develops. It is impossible to determine the average grade of fertilizers in use in the area teday or what it will be eight years hence, so prilled urea and a 23-23-9.5 granul r fertilizer were selected being a c'ese representative of the average analysis of fortilizers produced by the fertilizer complex plants covered in this report.

B. Proposed ASEAN Regional Fertilizer Complexes

The proposed solution for providing production fecilities to supply the ASEAN area with fertilizers (brsed on availability of raw materials and consumption patterns) has resolved into the two plans which follow:-

1. ASEAN Regional Plan I

In Plan No. 1, both nitrogen and phosphate production facilities are integrated into a fertilizer complex producing prilled urea and granular compound fertilizer.

Mitrogen production is been on the new as well additing of charge Indenteion. naturel gas which results in the clent complexes at eifferent locations. Phosphete production is also split equally between the two complexes. The real whis production units at indicated conceities comprise the plant couplexes:

ASEAN Regional Plan I is shown schematically in block flow Diagram No. 1

2. ASEAN Regional Flan II

In Plan No. II, nitrogen and phosphate production are separated, however, the production of granular compound fertilizers is produced in the phosphate plant complex and also in one of the nitrogen plant complexes. Phosphate is shipped as monoammonium phosphate (powder) from the phosphate couplex to a nitrogen plant complex, and a very low-vapour pressure ure -ammonia solution (5psig at 105 degrees F) is shipped from one of the nitrogen plant complexes to the phosphate plant complex where the ammonia is stripped from the solution and used to rake monoaurionium phosphate. The remaining urea is concentrated and used in combination with solid uren to produce granular compound fertilizers. Mitrogen production is again based on the use and availability of cheap Indonesian metural $R^{71}S_{\bullet}$

The following production units with their coprofities comprise the plant complexes:

ASEAN Regional Plan II is shown schematically in block flow diagram no.2

C. Process Plants

^A brief description of the process plant used in the study is given below:

1. Ammonia Plants (NH_3)

The ammonia plant is based on a unit utilizing high pressure reforming of natural gas, or naptha reforming, desulfurization, $\overline{{\rm CO}}_2$ removal by M.E.A. methanation, compression, and anmonis synthesis using centrifugal compressors and steam turbine.

2. Urea Plants (NH_2) 2CO

a) 83% Solution Plants

The urea solutions plant is based on a total recycle plant producing an 83% solution of ures which is used in the granulation plant to produce compound fertilizers. No facilities are provided with this unit for concentrating and prilling urea.

b) Prilled Urea Plants

The prilled urea plant is based on a total recycle plant and includes all facilities for concentrating and finishing the urea into a usable fertilizer.

3. Sulfuric Acid Plants (H_2SO_h)

The sulfuric acid plants are based on the burning of elemental sulphur to produce sulfuric acid.

4. Phosphoric Acid Plant (H_3PO_μ)

The phosphoric acid plants are based on the reaction of sulphuric acid with phosphate rock to produce phosphoric acid and gypsum (calcium sulfate dihydrate) with the gypsum being separated from the acid by vacuum filter. The resultant acid is concentrated to 45% P_2O_5 strength for use in making monoammonium phosphate powder. The plant includes all rock processes facilities and gypsum disposal.

5. Monoammonium Phosphate Plant (Powdered) (11-52-0)

The monoammonium phosphate plant is based on recent process developments where armonia is reacted with phosphoric acid at elevated temperatures and pressures and the product of reaction is sprayed in a tower where the water in the solution is flashed and a dry powder is produced in the process.

The average analysis of the monoammonium phosphate powder is: N-11.0%; $P_2^0P_5$ -52.0%, H_2^0 - 6.0%. Although the moisture content is relatively high, the material is dry in appearance, can easily be granulated with other fertilizer materials or annoniated to diannonium phosphate and granulated, and has excellent handling, storage, and shipping qualities. Capital investment for the process is low.

6. Granulation Plants

The process proposed to be used is based on the TVA ammoniator $$ granulator process using powdered (fine) dry feeds as opposed to the Dorr-Oliver slurry process. This process has the advantage that the "recycle" requirements are at least one half of that required by the slurry process, making the capital investment lower in proportion. Much larger capacity units can also be built due to the fact that the capacity of the materials handling equipment required for the "recycle" is the limiting factor. Feeds to the granulation plant wculd be raonoa.inoniun phosphate (powdered), annonia, phosphoric acid, urea solution and potash. While a single product analysis of 23-23-9.5 is used in this study for cost comparison purposes, the granulation plant proposed is extremely versatile and depending on the row materials feu to the plant, can produce almost any combination of M-P and N-P-K ratios desired, including granular fertilizer containing Magnesium. Sone examples of possible N-P and N-P-K ratios are: 27-27-0, 19-19-19, 19-48, 12-50 and 22-22-11.

D. Estimate of Capital Requirement for Regional Fertilizer Complexes.

While there are a variety of methods, processes and raw materials which can be used in the production of ammonia, urea and granular compound fertilizers, this study has evolved to ^a presentation of those unit operation and raw materials which appear to have economic justification under the conditions which exist in the ASEAN area.

The estimated investment cost for the proposed fertilizer plant complexes for ASEAN regional plans I and II, are given in Tables IV - 3 & 4.

A briof explanation of the items that wake up the investment cost follows:

1. Battery Limits Plant

A complete operating unit which when supplied with adequate quantities of specified raw materials and utilities at its battery limits is capable of producing the products specified at the rated capacity. Battery⁴limit investment costs were taken from IV - figures 1, 2 & 3, which were prepared from published cost ratio figures referred to under Section I, which have been adjusted to ASEAN conditions.

2. Offsites

Offsites are the necessary ancillary and support facilities required to keep the battery limit units operating efficiently at rated capacity. They include such items as the power distribution system, water systems, laboratories, shops, offices, stean generation, raw aterial and product storage etc.

3. Spare Parts

The requirement number and kind of spare parts or complete items of equipment required to place each unit in operation and cover operations for a period of two years.

4» Start-Up Expenses

Include all pre-operational expenses including training and schooling of personnel, expatriate start-up personnel and other costs prior to production. It also includes expatriate personnel through the first year of operation.

Section TV Page 9

5. Interest During Construction

The interest on borrowed copital for a 30 month design r.i. construction schedule is assumed to be as follows:

> $10\% \times 2.5$ years - 0.250 $10\% \times 2.0 \text{ years} - 0.200$ $20\% \times 1.5$ years - 0.300 $10\% \times 1.25$ years- 0.125 20\$ x 1.00 years- 0.200 20# x 0.75 years- 0.150 10£ x 0.50 years- 0.050 100% 1.275 equivalent years

Interest during construction is 1.275 x 8% of construction loan, or 10.2% . The construction loan includes the delivered and erected cost of all battery limit plants, offsites and spare parts.

6. Fixed Investment

The sum of Item 1 through 5 above.

7. Working Capital

Working Capital includes 30 days production of product, 30 days supply of raw materials and 10 days production of intermediate product.

8. Total Investment

The sum of Item 6 and 7 above.

>

E. Estimated Cost of Production - Regional Fertilizer Corplexes

The following is a brief explanation of the elements of cost that make up the cost of production.

A summary of the Estimated Cost of Production for ASEAN Regional Plans I and II is given in Tables IV - $5,6,7,8$ and 9 .

1. Raw Materials

a) Natural Gas

Indonesia has known reserves of natural gas amounting to 72,9 bn cubic metres with additional reserves being proven currently. The present price being paid for this raw arterial to produce annonia, is about \$0.0066 per cubic netre. Additional consumption over and above that presently planned is expected to cause a rise in the cost of gas to about \$0.0088 per cubic metre.

b) Sulfur

There are no known deposits of sulfur which are of corrected value at the present time in the ASEAN area. There are large deposits of volcanic sulfur on the Island of Negros in the Philippines, but they are not commercially attractive at present. ^A large se; le venture to produce ²⁰⁰⁰ tons of sulfur from these ores has been abandoned due to the current sulfur rarket. Sulfur is expected to be in long supply for an indefinite time in the future. The Philippines also have a considerable supply of Pyrites from which sulfur can be made, but the capital investment requirement for a plant to use either Pyrites or volcanic ores is twice that of a sulfur-burning plant, and only in special cases would the choice of these raw materials be economical.

Section IV Page 11

The reported C.I.F. price for sulfur is $\sqrt{22.50}$ to $\sqrt{22.50}$ per ton for the Philippines from the Mear East, and $$30.00$ per ton for Indonesia (source unknown). In view of the fact that the supply of sulfur will be plentiful for many years to come and that the proposed consumption for the ASEAN area would amount to about 332,000 tons per year, current or lower prices for sulfur will prevail for the proposed operation.

Estimated cost of sulfur from the most logical saurees delivered to the plant, is as follows:

C. Phosphate Rock

There are no known, deposits of phosphate rock of commercial value located in the ASEAN countries.

(1) Pacific Islands

 $\ddot{\cdot}$

The Paracel Islands, which are situated approximately six hundred miles to the west of Manila, contain some 9,500,000 million tons of phosphate rock estimated to average over 20% P₂0₅. From available analysis, the grade could be increased by calcining to $30\sqrt{P_2O_{5}}$, but the Ca $0/P_2O_5$ ratio would make the ruck require about 30% more sulfuric acid, making its use uneconomical. The deposits area is not being mined at the present time.

Christmas, Naura and Ocean Islands

While there are adequate reserves of phosphate rock on these islands (82 million tons of about 85;' BPL), with the exception of Maura, nil of this phosphate is under the control of the British Phosphate Connissi m who allocate: most of the rock to New Zealand and Australia. However, some bagged phosphatedust is sold to Ind nesia and Malaysia. Naura is expected to continue to sell its rock to Mow Zealand and Australia, plus Japan,

(2) Australia

Large deposits of phosphate rock have been recently discovered in Australia. One company, Broken'l'ilis Sout'i Ltd., is in the procese of developing \sim large deposit and expects to begin the produce $4,000,000$ tons per year of phosphate rock in the late 1970's. What effect this will have on the phosphate rock situation in the ASEAN arce, is unknown. The price of the Australian rock will be competitive with rock from other distant areas.

(3) Israel and Jordan

Adequate supplies of phosphate rock arc available from these sources, however, it is only 67 BPL. An economic analysis of using this rock as opposed to 73% BPL Florida rock shows that it issults in a cost of about \$3.00/MT F_0O_5 as 54% P_2O_5 phosphoric acid higher than Florida rock. Both Israel and Jordan rock have a high chloride content which presents technical problems when producing phosphoric acid.

The following is the estimited cost of phosphate rock delivered to the plant:

D. Potash

There are no known deposits of potash of connercial v lue in the ASEAN countries. Adequate supplies of potash are available from the following sources at the estimated delivered prices shown:

An average of these prices was used in cost calculation.

UTILITIES

Power

While in all probability each fertilizer plant complex will generate its own power using natural gas, the capital investment and fuel requirements for in-plant power generation were not available, so a power rate of \$0.02 per kilowatt hour was used which is believed t be adequate.

Steam. Water and Fuel

Normal consumption rates for each battery limit plant were used. Standard unit costs were also used.

Catalyst and Chemicals

Normal consumption rates and ASEAN aret prices were used to determine this expense.

Section TV P $-$ gc 14

Labour

Operating labour was calculated on a 4 shift basis at the rate of \$5.00 per han per shift, and supervisi in at the rate of \$75.00 per han per shift.

Overhead

Calculated to be 1% of fixed investment. \cdot

Taxes and Insurance

Calculated to be 1% of fixed investment.

Maintenance

Calculated on the basis of 5% of the investment cost of battery limit units plus 1% of offsites for all plants except phosphoric acid and granulation, where ^a rate of *7%* was used.

Depreciation

Calculated on a 12.5 year plant life, or 8% of fixed investment.

Interest on Investment

Calculated at the rate of $8/7$ of the total investment.

 $\frac{1}{2}$ $\overline{1}$

ESTILLTED INVESTMENT COST SUMMARY

 $\ddot{}$

ENDIONAL PLANT

TABLE IV-3

 $23 - 9.5$ 14.66 29.32 3.70 11.52-0 <u> 2.46</u> 3.26 6.52 $O_{\bullet}8C$ $455P_2O_5$ 32.10 16.05 1.75 20.88 0.62 $\underline{\text{AC}}$.
 $\underline{\text{AA}}$ 100% 146.652 1.10 21.93 35.26 100%Urea 11.80 23.60 0.86 82.38N 82.44 1.50 43.84 42.34 TOTAL INVESTMENT **KOTES WORKING CAPTILL** $LOALI + II$ </u>

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121.98

230.12

ESTINGTED INVEST ENT COST SUMMARY

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EEGIONAL PLAN II

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Millions of U.S. Dollars

 $\sim 10^{11}$ km $^{-1}$

TABLE IV-4

Complex JII

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REGIONAL FIELD I

 \mathcal{L}^{max}

T differ $IV - 5$

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FERILIZER PLIT COMPLEX BIL

SECTION V

NATIONAL FERTILIZER SOLUTIO. AS AUTERMATIVE TO COOPERATIVE RECIONAL FERTILIZER SOLUTION TO SO VINC 1980 FERTILIZER SHORT-FALL

A. Introduction

Due to predicted consumption patterns for fertilizers for the year 1980, the only logical national solution to providing fertilizer production facilities on a national basis, would be to provide production facilities for nitrogen and phosphorous in those countries whose consumption volume can justify an economically sized plant, and for countries whose volume is below this level, to import intermediates and convert them to a finished product, or import finished products. On this basis, the national solution would be two fertilizer complexes, each producing its own nitrogen and phosphorous fertilizers in combinations required to satisfy their market.

B. Proposed National Fertilizer Complexes

Due to consumption patterns and availability of cheap raw materials, only two countries can support a minimum economically sized fortilizer plant complex. The proposed national complexes are fully integrated, including phosphorous producing units, and are shown in Block Flow Diagram V-1. They consist of the following production units at indicated capacities:

Section V Page 2

C. Comments

With the exception of the corrents hade below, all of the information given under Process Flant, Estibite of Capital Require ents and Estimated Cost of Production in Section III is applicable to the National Fertilizer Solution, Section V.

The Estimated Investment Requirements for the National Fertilizer Solution are given in Table V-2, and the Estimated Cost of Production in Table $V-3$ & 4.

The production of ammonia in the case of Fertilizer Flant Complex BIII is based on using naptha at a cost of 22.00 pcr metric ton in storage at the plant. This seems a reasonable price to use since the estimated cost of production for straight run naptha for the area is about 17.00.

The detailed cost of production for all final and internediate products at the various rates of production is given in the Appendix Tables $A = 1-40$.

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TABLE V-2

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154,500 in For Year Prilled line (1971,400 in Per Kor Grandeted Pertiliser

FERILLIZER PLANT COOPLEX BILL

TABLE $V - 4$

34,300 ET per Year Prilled Urea

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SECTION VI

ECONOMIC APPRAISAL OF THE REGIONAL AND MATIONAL AMERICITIVES

The Alternatives Á.

 $\mathbf{1}$. We begin this Section with a brief re-state ant of the alternatives which are to be appraised.

Regional Tlan I envisages two couplexes, SI and JI both of which are based on notural gas. Both complexes produce the some two end-products: prilled urea and a compound fertilizer with a nutrient analysis of 23-23-9.5 which for the sake of brevity is called hereafter Enphosk.

Regional Plan II envisages three complexes. SII is based on natural gas, produces prilled urea as its only end-product (that is, for direct use in agriculture) but also exports two products, prilled urea and urea-arronia solution to BII. BII produces a single end-product, Enphosk, using its imports from SII; it also exports consecuently, phosphate to JII. Finally, JII, based on natural gas, produces two end-preducts: prilled urea, and Enphosk using its imports from BII. The basic structure of inter-complex imports and exports derives from the fact that only BII produces phosphoric acid and only SII and JII produce numonia.

The National Plan envisages two complexes. JIH is based in notured gos and produces prilled urea and Enphosk for consumption within the mtion. BIII is based on naphtha and produces the same end-products, again for consumption within the nation - which is assumed to be different from where JIII is located.

The three alternatives are sumed up in Table VI.1.

The LE VI.1: End-products and inter-complex imports and exports of the regional and national alternatives

Notes: 1. Full details are given in the flow-sheets of Sections IV and V.

> All complexes are based on natural gas except BII which does not $2.$ produce its own puncein supply, or teHII which uses naphtha.

3. Imports and exports only with refer nee to inter-complex movements.

B. Volume of Output

 \mathbf{l} . Volume of output will be compared in terms of end-products and of nutrient. The data are set out in Tables VI.2 and VI.3. In all three alternatives urea and Enphosk are the end-products. In Regional Plans I and II the total velume of output of end-products is identical. Nutrient production totals:

The difference is that whilst k.P.I has two complexes, R.P.IT has three with a large measure of inter-complex trading in prilled urea, urea-arranta solution and range-cumbrium phosphate.

As with R.P.I, the National Plan has enly two couplexes. Since the $2.$ Mational Plan is capible of escting the consumption requirements of enly two nations (even though these could be the two birgest consumers of the ASEME countries), its tatal sutput is markedly lower. This nutrient output is equal to 81 per cent of that of the regional plans.

		End-product in tons	
Plan	Complex	Urea	Finphosk
	SI	333,000	804,000
R.P.1	JI	154,000	804,000
	Total	427,000	1,608,000
	SII	273,000	
R.P.II	BII		730,000
	JII	214,000	878,000
	Total	487,000	1,600,000
	JIII	154,000	877,000
$N_{\bullet}P_{\bullet}$	BIII	34,000	BSL, الدارا
	Total	188,000	1,468,000

TABLE VI.2: Volume of output of end-products in the regional and national alternatives in tons

Notes: 1. Figures reunded to the nonrest 1000 tens.

TABLE VI.3: Volume of output of nutrient in the regional and national alternatives in tens

Notes: 1. Figures rounded to the notrest 1000 tons.

C. Value of Output

Service State

1. The value of output is, of course, the ultimic of the sutput volume and the solling price. During the course of a working tour of the ASEAN countries, we collected whatever data was available on present c.i.f. prices and the direction in which they are likely to move in the epurse of the next couple of years. The most obvious feature of the present market situation is the very tight position of triple superphosphate. Urem prices after raving down for some time, new look as if they will harden in the next couple of years.

2. We believe that the best estmite of the 1972-75 bulk prices, c.i.f. to ASEAN ports from outside the region are:

These prices give the following nutrient prices, equal to the end-products' prices divided by their respective percentage nutrient content:

We need two end-product prices, those of urea and Enphosk, Urea is given above. For Enphos':, with its 23-23-9.5 analysis, the price is calculated by multiplying the volume of each of its nutrients by the prices per ton quoted above. This gives a bulk Enphosk price, after rounding-up, of \$77.

Using these two prices and the sutput volume token from Toble VI.2, we can now derive the value of eutput c.1.f. at ASEAN ports in bulk. This is given in Table VI.4.

TABLE VI.4: Value of eutput c.i.f. at ASEM ports in bulk of the regional and national alternatives in millions of dellars

Mete: 1. Rounded to the nearest million dollars.

Just as with output volume, the value of output of Regional Plans I and II are the same. The sutput value of the national plan is 82 per cent of that of the regional plans.

D. Economic Criteria of Viability

In the economic evaluation of mutually exclusive projects, which $\mathbf{1}$. is the objective of this Section, we observe that the alternatives generate a flow of costs and of benefits over time and that the shape of these flows differs from project to project. Furthermore, it is a familiar result in project appraisal that for any two projects A and B, the net benefits (benefits minus costs) of A exceed those of B in some years, but fall short of those of B in other years. As we shall see, this is the case with our regional and national alternatives.

Economic evaluation therefore requires a way to compare costs and benefits accruing in different time-periods and the technique used is that of the rate of interest, otherwise referred to as the time-rate of discount.

In the last 15 years grapt progress has been each in specifying 2_{\bullet} precisely how the discount rate or rates should be used in project analyses and a vast coonomic literature on the subject has appeared. The technique the commuists how fashioned, and it is one now used extensionly in government and large companies, is known as the calculation of the present value of expected earnings or the discounted cash flow. A second technique very closely related to it, is the enleulation of the average rate of return on investment.

In order to use the present value technique one needs to know, amongst other things, the berrowing rate on all funds berrowed, the alternative rate of interest on all self-fina se, and the rate to be carned on all cash flows generated which can be lent out at interest. In the case of this ASEAN fersibility study we do not have this information available, precisely because we are at a stage when the sethod of finance of 'package deal' projects is not yet agreed.

Therefore, in this report we use the second technique referred to $3.$ above, the average rate of return. Besically this technique consists in discovering what rate of discount when applied year by year to the investment stream makes its aggregate value equal to that of the discounted stream of value of output less operating costs, i.e. the operating surplus.

Mithematically, find r, the average rate of return expressed as a percentage, such that:

where: It = investment in year t

We = value of output in year t n = total number of plant years $Ct = operating$ and transport costs from first year of design and construction to the in year t

If we define N, net benefits, as the value of output in any given year less total costs incurred in that year, then

$$
Nt = Vt - (It + Ct)
$$

last year of production

and our equation can be re-written so that r, the everage rate of return is such

that:

$$
\sum_{t = 0}^{n} \frac{m}{(1+r)} t = 0 \qquad (2)
$$

It should be noted that costs and benefits in this cortext should exclude interest charges on berrewing (and interest carned on lending) as it is this rate or these rates of berrowing with which the average rate of return is to be compared. (Reference 21 pp.122-125). Furthermore, depreciation should also be left out otherwise we are counting the cost of earterl equipment twice over.

To sum up: the technique we shall use to evaluate alternative net 4. benefit flows will be the average rate of return. After calculating the average rate of return for each project, we can say that where this exceeds the average rate of interest at which capital can be borrowed from the saurces financing the project, the project is viable on economic grounds. If a project has an average rate of return lower than the average berrowing rate, the project is not viable. Where two (or all three) of the alternatives have an average rate of return exceeding the average borrowing rate, the one with the highest discounted cash flow should be chosen and the discount rate used in this calculation should be the average berrowing rate.

E. Investment costs, operating costs and transport costs

Contract Contract Contract

1. Investment costs. On the basis of Sections IV and V we now bring together the cost data in the form necessary for appraisal of the regional and national alternatives. Table VI.5 shows the investment costs for the three alternatives.

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Cost chtegory	$R \cdot I \cdot I$	R . F . LT	N . F .
Battery limits units	107.74	110.53	90.57
Offsites	59.42	58.52	47.69
Spire Parts	11.00	11.30	8,87
Start-up expenses	-12.80	12.50	10.00
Working capital	17.69	21.13	16.77
Total 1	210.65	214.48	173.90

T.ELEVI.5: Investment cests fither regimple and metional alternatives in Sm

Note: 1. Excludes interest during construction. Sue page 7

Total investment costs of the two regional plans are very similar: R.P.II is only 1.8 per cent larger than R.P.I. At first glance this sight appear surprising. Where no economies of scale to be gained by the concentration of all production in two complexes rather than three? In fact, examination of the flow-shoets shows that this concentration is more apparent than real. There are 16 chemical plants in R.P.I and 13 in R.P.II. The anim reason why the two-complex plan has more plants then the three-complex plan is that the latter centres all phosphoric acid production in a single location whilst R.I.I splits it between the two complexes.

 $2.$ Investment costs of the National Plan are, of course, lower than either of the regional plans. A more interesting comparison is to look at the investment cost: value of sutput ratio (IVR). This shows the number of dollars of investment required to produce each dollar of annual output. The figures are:

R.P.I: 1.386 R.F.II: 1.411 $N.P.: 1.405$

The Notional Plan has an IVR only 1.4% greater than that of R.P.I and 0.4% smaller than that of R.P.II. This very small difference in capital costs per unit of output can be explained by the fact that JIII in the National Plan is actually slightly larger than JI of R.P.I. All of the increase in the National Plan's IVR, with respect to R.F.I, derives from the naphtha-based complex BIII with its relatively small ammonia unit.

3. Operating costs. These are sumarized in Table VI.6

Cost category	R . P . I	$R_{\bullet} \Gamma_{\bullet} \Pi$	$\mathbb{N}_\bullet \Gamma_\bullet$
Raw materials	46,756	46,738	1,2,475
Utilitius	8,960	9,308	7,018
Catalyst, chemicals, perating supplies	1,864	1,891	1,522
Operating labour and direct supervision	1,099	985	1,030
Maintenance labour & materials	6,600	6,599	5,381
General overheads	2,100	2,087	1,458
Insurance and taxes	2,100	2,087	1,455
Transport costs ¹		6,940	
$T \tan^2$	62,479	76,635	60, 342

TABLE VI.6: Annual operating costs of the regional and national alternatives in 8 000

This overs only the cost of inter-complex moderns see Table VI.1 i _{otes.} 1 . The costs are based on the costs of loading and unloading and freight used in Section IV and on the tonnages shown in E.P.II's flow sheet.

2. Excludes depreciation and interest. See page 7.

With the exception of R.F.II's transport cests for the inter-complex movement of intermediates, the annual operating costs of the two regional plans are negligibly different. This was to be expected since they are based on the same raw materials, produce the same end-products, have an identical nutrient output enpreity and have a very similar level of investment costs. Thair main difference, the interdependence of complexes SII, BII and JH is reflected in the transport costs of \$6.94 million for the movement of the intermediates, urea, urea-ammonia solution and MAP.

The operating costs of the Untional Plan are lower than those of the 4. Regional Plans, which was to be evocated since its output is lewer. However, the rational operating costs to value of autput is 45.7 per cent for R.F.I, but 46.7 per cent for the National Plan. This is in tune with turnspectualle preferent between the plans. The almenic plant in the BHI complex is smaller than those of the regional plans, this plus its use of naphtha rather than natural gas pushes up onerating costs, Athough the cost increase is off-set by the large, natural gas based complex JIII.

5. Transpert costs. The cost of transporting the fertilizer end-products within the ASEAN sub-region is determined by three factors: the location of production, the location of the markets and the loading charges and freight rates between ASEAN ports for the tonnages moved. We'de not deal with the colculation of transport costs after the fertilizer has arrived by ship at its port of destination. This is consistent with our use of c.i.f. prices as a basis for the calculation of the value of output.

 $6.$ This study makes no specific recommendation about the location of the couplexes in each of the three plans. This is because a regional fertilizer plan would be only one of a number of projects in an ASEAN 'package deal'. Therefore, the optimum location of any single project must be judged in terms of the agreement for the whole set of projects.

However, in this feasibility study it makes little sense to calculate transport costs for all the alternative locational decisions which, from the point of view of pure logic, could be made. This is essentially because of the theory of combinations. For example, in R.P.II the number of alternative locational out comes is about $125.$ ¹

^{1.} It is the same as the number of different ways in which one could place three balls, one black, one white and one red in 5 boxes, $\Lambda_p \beta_p C_p D$ and E_p where the number of bails in any single box can very from $0 - 3$ inclusive.

What we da, therefore, is to use as our estimate of transport costs $7.$ a single illustration of their level and to state by what proportion the maximum possible level of transport c sts would exceed our illustration. The illustration on which Table VI.7 is based assumes that in each of the regional plans the J and S plants are located in Indonesia and that in R.P.II the B plant is sited in Thailand. These are the locational solutions which, from a strictly technical point of view and disregarding all the other possible projects of a package deal, are the most efficient.

Section VI Page 12

The total transport costs of R.P.I are \$9.14 million and in the case of R.P.II they are \$3.98 millia. The difference is almet entirely accounted for by the fact that in R.P.II the transport of fortilizer from Indonesia to Theiland is reduced by almost 600,000 tons because Theiland's complex BII supplies Thai requirements. The iland, it will be recalled from Section II, is forecast to be the sub-region's largest nutrient consumer after Indonesia. This transport cost advantage is off-set, herever, by the cost of inter-complex no vertent of R.P.II's interpediates, which as we saw in the sub-section on operating costs above, totalled \$6.94 million. The net difference between the two regional plans, when we add both sets of transport costs, is enly \$1.78 million, in favour of R.F.I.

As far as the range of transport costs is concerned, our calculations 8. suggest that the most inefficient location from the point of view of transporting the end-product would give costs of \$18 million. Therefore, we can say that whatever the location of the complexes in the two regional plans, the cost of transport from the manufacturers to the ports of destination will be between \$4 million - \$10 million. In the Mational Plan there are no transport costs incurred because all of the fertilizer produced is consumed internally.

F. Economic viability of the alternatives

We have now brought together virtually all the information $\mathbf{1}$. necessary to set out the time-stream of investment costs, operating costs, transport costs, value of output and net benefits. The results are set out in Tables VI.8, 9 and 10, on page 13 of this section. They require a number of comments.

		YEAR				
Costs and bonofits (\$m)		$\overline{2}$	٩		5.	$6 - 15$
Investment costs ı.	42.13	147.45	21.07			
Operating costs 2.			29.17	57.76	63.72	69.48
Transport costs 3.	-		$\sqrt{2.74}$	7.51	3,23	7.14
Value of utput			45.6	121.6	157.7	152.0
Met benefits 5.	-42.13	-147.45	-7.38	56.33	64.85	73.39
Wites. 1. All figures are unchanged over the paried from years 6-15 inclusive Equal to $(4-(1 + 2 + 3))$ 2_{\bullet}						
TABLE VI.9:		Calculation of the flow of not benefits of Regional Plan II YEAR				
Costs and benefits $(\$m)$	$\mathbf{1}$	\overline{c}	$\overline{\mathbf{3}}$	\mathbf{l}_1	5	$6 - 15$
Investment costs ı.	42.7	150.14	21.44			
Operating costs 2.			31,22	63,66	70.15	76.64
3. Transport costs		\bullet	1.19	3.18	3.58	3.93
Value of output 4.			45.6	121,6	136.8	152
Net benefits [*] 5.	42.9	150.14	$-8,25$	54.76	63.07	71.38
Notes. 1. All figure are unchanged over the period from years 6-15 inclusive Equal to $(4 - (1 + 2 + 3))$ 2.						
TABLE VI.10: Colculation of the flow of net benefits of the Notional Plan						
Costs and benefits (\$m)		\overline{c}	YEAR 3	\mathbf{L}	5	$6 - 15$
Investment costs ı.	34.78	121.72	17.39			
Operating costs 2.			24.63	50.14	55.24	60.34
Transport costs 3.						
Value of atput 4.			-37.2	99.2	111.6	1.24
Net benefits ^{$\overline{2}$} 5.	- 34,78	$-121,72$	-4.82	49.06	56.36	63.66

TABLE VI.8: Colculation of the flow of set benefits of kegionel Plan I

Notes. 1. All figures are unchanged over the period from years $6-15$ inclusive.
2. Equal to $(4 - (1 + 2 + 3))$

 $2.$ The investment time-stream is based on Table VI.5. The gestation period is expected to last 30 uenths and therefore terminates after the first six nonths of year 3. The distribution of investment costs over years 1, 2 and 3 is set at 20 per cent, 70 per cent and 10 per cent of the total respectively. The basis for this is the table from which construction interest was calculated in Section IV.

The value of eutput figures, based on Table VI.4, is set at 30 per $3.$ cent of annual copacity in year 3, when only six conths is available for production. In years 4 and 5 we assume 80 per cent and 90 per cent of capacity is attained. From yours 6 - 15 we assume 100 per cent capacity utilization. The total number of years of production is $12\frac{1}{2}$.

4. Transport costs of the end-preducts are based on Table VI.7 multiplied by the percentage utilization of cepacity.

- Operating costs were divided into two groups: 5.
	- A. Raw materials; utilities; eatalyst, chemicals and operating inter-complex transport costs. $supplics:$
	- B. Operating labour and direct supervision; mintenance labour and interials; general overheads; insurance and taxes.

A were assumed to vary directly with capacity utilization; B were assumed to be invariant with capacity. On this basis $\lambda + B$ were calculated for the years $3 - 5$ when the complexes are assumed to run below full capacity.

We have already discussed all the constituent elements of net benefits, $6.$ but not the net benefit series itself. These figures for each of the plans are brought together in Table VI.11.

TABLE VI. 1: Net benefit stream of the regional and national alternatives in \$m.

YEAR . .							
P1m						$6 - 15$	
$R \cdot P \cdot I$	-42.13	-147.45	-7.38	56.33	64.85	73.38	
R.P. II	-42.9	-150.14	-8.25	54.76	63.07	71.38	
$N \cdot F$.	-34.78	-121.72	-4.82	49.06	56.36	63.66	

Table VI.11 gives us our first clear result. In overy year throughout the life of the project the not bonefits of Regional Plan I are greater than those of Regional Plan II. (That is, R.P.I always has smaller negative values and higher positive values for its net benefits). In purely economic terms, therefore, R.P.I is definitely preferable to R.P.II.

Comparing the National Plan with R.P.I we see that in each of the years $i - 3$ t/ $N.P.$'s net benefits have a smaller negative value, but that in every year $4-15$ the N.P.'s net benefits also have a smaller positive value. This is precisely what one would expect of two projects of broadly similar efficiency but where one is about 80 per cent of the size of the other.

In terms of economic viability alone, then, the crucial comparison is that between Regional Plan I and the National Plan and it is this which we shall examine most carefully. However, since R.P.II's net benefits differ from those of R.P.I by such small magnitudes, we shall continue to give the results for R.P.II as well.

7. We now present the average rate of return for each alternative using the data in Table VI.11 and equation (2) on page \P . The results are:

R.P.I: 24% R.P.II: 23% N.P: 25% All three rates are very similar and all are high,

^A comment is in order here on why, in terms of the average rate of return, the National Plan beats R.P.I by *ⁿ* short head. Using Tables VI, 4-7 it can be shown that whilst R.P.I has ^a value of output 22,5 per cent greater than the National Plan, its investment costs are only 21,1 per cent greater and its operating costs are only 15.2 per cent greater than N.P. In these terms, then, R.P.I is definitely the winner. However, R.P.I incurs \$9.14 million a year in transporting its end -product to ASEAN ports whilst there is no such cost in the ease of the National Plan. It is this alone which pushes the K.P. ahead.

G. Plan selection and the cost of finance

1. In sub-section D we said that once the costs of plan finance are known, the plan with the highest discounted cash flow should be selected. The reason is that the ranking of projects is not necessarily the same by the discounted cash flow as by the average rate of return and the former technique can be shown to be preferable. (Reference 21 pp. 132-135). It is possible to state quite precisely which plan ranks first as a function of different costs of finance where the costs of finance are the same for each plan. The results are given in Table VI.12.

TADLE IV.12: Plan choice in relation to cost of finance for the regional and national altemativea

Notes: 1. This rate of discount is known as the comparable rate of return at which the discounted cash flow of the two plans are Identical.

2. The lower rates of interest favour the Regional Flan even though the National Plan has the highest average rate of return. This can be explained using the symbols of equation (l) on page 6. We see that the outlays of each plan are its investment cost, It, and the receipts are its operating surplus, $(Vt - Ct)$. Aga'in'using Tables VI.4-7 it can be shown that whilst R.P.I's investment outlays are 21.1 per cent higher than N.P., its operating surplus receipts are only 15.3 per cent greater. Low interest rates give a greater weight to the operating surplus vis-a-vis investment, because of the discounting effect, and therefore makes R.P.I progressively more attractive as the interest rate diminishes.

H. Foreign exchange savings of the alternatives

In this sub-section we colculate the total foreign exchange eatily $1.$ of cach plan, the gross foreign exchange savings from import substitution and the difference between the two, squal to the net foreign exchange savings. We bogin with total foreign exchange butlays: on investment, operating costs and transport costs. Table VI.13 shows the proportion of costs which we assume will be deveted to imports.

TABLE VI.13: Proportion of costs incurred in foreign exchange

All other costs incurred are assumed to require no foreign exchange. Foreign exchange receipts from any capital inflaw which might help finance the plans, and outlays in foreign exchange on the consequent return flow of interest and profits are not included as the sources of project finance are not yet known.

Using Tables VI. 5 and 13, the total forcign exchange outlays required for investment costs, in millions of dollars, are:

> $R.F.I: 168.52$ R.F.II: 171.58 N.P: 139.12

Using the summaries of operating costs given in Sections IV and V \rightarrow and Tables VI.6 and 13, annual foreign exchange requirements for operation at full capacity are, in millions of dollars:

> R.P.II: 49.91 $N.P: 43.36$ $R.P:I: 46.29$

Using Tables VI.7 and 13, annual foreign exchange requirements for end-product transport costs at full conneity are, in millions of dollars:

> R.P.II: 1.99 $N.F: none$ $R.P.1: 4.57$

To arrive at the total foreign exchange outlay over the life of the plant we add the foreign exchange outlay on investment costs to the annual foreign exchange outley on oper ting and transport costs multiplied by the number of years of production (12¹) adjusted by the expacity utilization rate. This procedure gives the following table in millions of dollars:

> $N.F_1$ 659 R.F.II: 794 R.P.I: 779

Gross foreign exchange savings through import substitution we equate $2.$ simply to the total value of output over the 12¹ year period of production, giving for the three plans, in millions of dollars:

> R.P.II: 1824 N.P: 1488 R.P.I: 1824

Table VI.14 brings together these results and shows the net foreign $3.$ exchange savings for each plan.

TABLE VI.14: Net foreign exchange savings of the regional, and national alternatives in millions of dollars¹.

Notes: 1. Rounded to the nearest million dollars

The difference between the regional plans is very small indeed. The National Plan's savings are 79 per cent of those of R.P.I, very close to its proportionate output value, which wc saw in sub-section ^C was 82 per cent.

For every unit of foreign exchange currency spent on investment the number of units of foreign exchange saved through the total operating surplus equals:

R.. • 7.18 R.P.II: 6.98 N.P: 6.96

The difference between the alternatives are very small: the R.P.I ratio is only 3.2 per cent greater than the N.P. ratio.

I. Employment generation

1. Our final remarks concern the employment generated by the three alternatives. The number of workers required are shown in Table VI.15.

TABLE VI.15t Number of workers required for each complex in the regional and national alternatives

Using these figures and Table VI.5 it can be calculated that the size of the investment outlay per job created is:

R.P.I» \$124,000 R.P.II: \$105,000 N.P: \$102,000 Investment outlay per Job created is very high, but it is well recognized in all of the developing countries, many of which have severe problems of unemployment and under-employment,that the chemical industry is one of those industrial branches which are least capable of significant employment generation.

APPENDIX A

LETTER FROM THE BRITISH PHOSPHATE COMMISSIONERS

Twentyfour hours after completing our report we received the following letter from the British Phosphate Commissioners:

موجبه وجارت

THE BRITISH PHOSPHATE COMMISSIONERS

Managing Agents for THE CHRISTMAS ISLAND PHOSPHATE COMMISSION

 $\Delta \phi = 0.000$ and $\Delta \phi$

Dear Sir,

We refer to your letter of 10th April 1972 regarding the feasibility study you are carrying out on the production of fertilizer, particularly phosphatic fertilizer, for the region covering Indonesia, Malaysia, Philippines, Thailand and Singapore,

As the situation .stands at present all phosphate rock produced at Christmas Island and Ocean Island which is suitable for acidulation is required for use in Australia and New Zealand. However, we do currently supply Malaysia and Indonesia with Christmas Island phosphate dust for direct application.

The chemical composition and other details of the two types of material sent to these areas are:-

36.01.10

<u>I.O</u> $\|\frac{1}{2m} \rangle$ 28 **23** ŧ. 122 $\mathbf{22}$ $\sum_{\alpha,\alpha}^{\alpha,\alpha}$ 136 2.0 $\frac{1}{2}$ <u>||</u> $\frac{1.8}{1}$

<u>II.4</u> <u> 1.6</u>

MICROCOPY RESOLUTION TEST CHART NATIONAL BUREAU OF STANDARDS STANDARD REFERENCE MATERIAL 1010a (ANSI and ISO TEST CHART No. 2)

24 N E

Appendix A page 2

Citra-Phos Grade (Calcined Product)

The citrate soluble P_2O_5 in a neutral ammonium citrate solution is 20% minimum.

Substantial quantities of the above material (particularly the calcined product) would be available in the late 1970's or 1980's.

We trust the foregoing information will assist you with your study.

Comment

This rock is quoted as costing \$12.50 per ton in the World Bank Report. Even if only 50% of requirements would be met with this rock, it would result in a cost saying of about \$9.00 per ton of P_2O_5 as phosphoric acid. As a result the average rate of return on all 3 alternatives would rise, probably by a couple of percentage points.

APPENDIX B

 $\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1}{2} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \frac{1}{2} \sum_{j=1}^{n$

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COST OF PRODUCTION TABIES ACCOMPANYING SECTIONS IV AND V

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 $\mathbf{v}^{(1)}$

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 $\label{eq:2.1} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\frac{1}{\sqrt$ $\sim 10^{11}$ km s $^{-1}$ \mathcal{L}

ESTIMTED ANDONIA PRODUCTION COST

Complex S III

Plant Capacity 257,400 MT/Yr 780 MT/D 330 D/Yr Plant Investment MM\$ 32.74 Working Capital 0.93 Total 33.67

 $\mathbf{3}$

ESTIMATED AMMONIA PRODUCTION COST

Complex J III

Plant Capacity 280,500 MT/Yr 850 \ln/D 330 D/\ln Plant Investment M\$ 33.90 Working Capital 1.00 Total 34.90

ESTIMATED AMMONIA PRODUCTION COST Complexes JI & JII

Plant Capacity 313,500 MT/Yr 950 MT/D 330 D/Yr Plant Investment MM\$ 37.47 Working Capital 1.13 Total 38.60

ESTIMATED AMMONIA PRODUCTION COST

Complexes SI & S II

ESTIMATED UREN PRODUCTION COST (FRILLS) Complex B III

l.

ESTIMATED UREA PRODUCTION COST (Prills)

Complex J II

Fiant Capacity 214,500 MT/Yr 650 IfT/D 330 D/Yr Flant Investment MMt, 16.24 Cffsitcs 0.90 Total 17.14

$(PRIILS)$ Complex S I

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 $(Prills)$ Complex S II

(FRILLS) Complex S III

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 \mathcal{L}_{max}

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 $(83% SOL.)$ Complex S II

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(835? SOL.)

Complex J I

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ESTIMATED UREA PRODUCTION COST - S $(83\%$ SOL.) Complex S I

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 $(83% SOL.)$ Complex B III

Flant Copocity 330,000 MT/Yr 1000 MT/D 330 D/Yr Flant Investment MG 12.08 Working Copital 0.90 12.98 Total

ESTIMATED UREA FRODUCTION COST $(83% SOL.)$

Complex JII

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 $(83\%$ SOL) Complex J III

1190 MT/D

330 D/Yr

 \bar{z}

Plant Capacity 392,700 MT/Yr Plant Investment MA_V 12.45 Working Capital 1.00 $Tot.1$ 13.45

ESTIMATED UREA-AMMONIA SOLUTIONS FRODUCTION COST

Complex S II

 \bullet

498,300 MT/Yr 1510 MT/D 330 D/ir Plant Capacity Flant Investment NM\$ 0.232 Working Copital \bullet Total Investment 0.232

DIRECT COST

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ESTIMATED SULFURIC ACID PRODUCTION COST - S

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Complex JI & SI

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ESTIMATED SULFURIC ACID PRODUCTION COST

Complex J III

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ESTIMATED SULFURIC ACID PRODUCTION COST

Complex B II

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ESTIMATED PHOSPHORIC ACID PRODUCTION COST

 $(45\frac{2}{5}P_2 O_5)$ Complex JI & SI

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 \mathcal{A} $\ddot{}$

FIXED COST

 \mathcal{I}

ESTIMATED PHOSPHORIC ACID PRODUCTION COST

 $(45\% \text{ P}_2\text{O}_5)$

Complex JIII

 $\Delta \sim 10^5$

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ESTIMATED MONOAMMONIUM PHOSPHATE (POWDERED) PRODUCTION COST

 $(11 - 52 - 0)$ Complex B III

 $\sim 10^{11}$

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ESTIMATED NONOAMMONIUM PHOSPHATE (POWDERED) PRODUCTION COST

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 $\mathbf{v} = \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} 0 & \mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^d, \ \$

 $\label{eq:2.1} \frac{1}{2} \int_{0}^{2\pi} \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} \int_{0}^{2\pi} \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} \int_{0}^{2\pi} \frac{1}{2} \right) \frac{1}{2} \right) \, d\mu$

ESTIMATED MONOOMMONIUM HOSPHATE (FOWDERED) PRODUCTION COST

 $47,817.8$ 67.09

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ESTIMATED GRANUL R FERILIZER PRODUCTION COST

 $(23 - 23 - 915)$ Complex B II

> $\sim 10^{-10}$ $\mathcal{L}_{\mathrm{max}}$

> > $\mathcal{A}^{\mathcal{A}}$

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ESTIMATED GRANULAR FERTILIZER PRODUCTION COST

TOTAL COST OF PRODUCTION

 $43,329.8$ 53.82

ESTINATED GRANULAR FERTILIZER PRODUCTION COST

$(23 - 23 - 9.5)$ Complex S I

805,200 MT/Yr 2440 MT/D 330 D/Yr Plant Capacity Plant Investment MM\$ 10.96 Working Capital 3.70 Total 14.66

ESTIMTED GRANULLR FERTILIZER FRODUCTION COST

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ESTIMATED COST OF TRANSPORTED FERTILIZER MATERIALS

Complex ^B II & ^J II

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ESTIMATED TRIPLE SUPERPHOSPHATE (RUN OF PILE) PRODUCTION COST $(0 - 46 - 0)$

Plant Capacity 297,000 KT/Yr 900 HT/D 330 D/Yr Plant Investment MM\$ 1,752 Working Capital 3,200 Total $4,952$

ESTIMATED GRANULAR FERTILIZER PRODUCTION COST

 $(20 - 20 - 8, 5)$

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36.01.10