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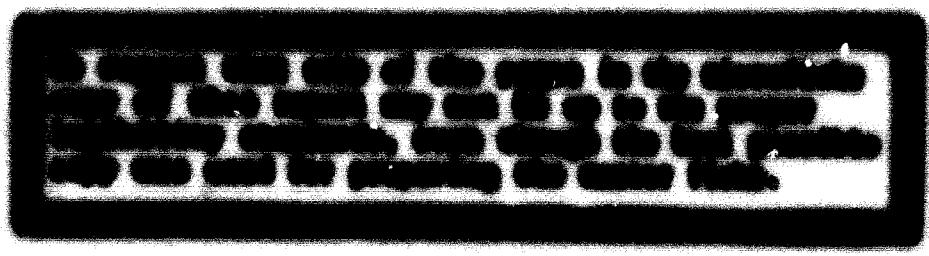
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THE CIVIL RIGHTS OF THE INDIAN PEOPLES

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The above will be submitted to the Board of Directors of the
and the Board of the City of the Commonwealth of Massachusetts.
The Board has been requested to meet at Boston.



SYNTHESIS

The paper begins with a survey of the present and future supply problem for coking coals in relation to overall resources of fossil fuels and other energy sources. This shows that optimum technology for ironmaking will change considerably during the next half-century.

In relation to the near future, consideration is given to techniques of improving coke technology with the objects of maintaining quality standards whilst extending the range of usable coals. Coal-rich coking coals can be replaced or supplemented by inferior grades with the application of sophisticated techniques of blending, and their quality and performance can be improved by charge preheating. More basic solutions involve the manufacture of artificial or formed cokes.

In the intermediate future, the injection of gaseous and liquid hydrocarbons into the blast-furnace tuyeres can be economically advanced, and other possibilities are opened up by the injection of reducing gases at the hearth or shaft.

Prospects for direct-reduction systems based on fossil fuels, constantly supplemented by the use of nuclear heat, are examined. Finally, consideration is given to the problem of iron-oxide reduction in the ultimate of all fossil fuels.

World resources of coking coals are more than enough to smelt all the classical iron-ore reserves.

At first sight this statement would appear to remove any vital necessity to change ironmaking technology to a radical degree but, of course, commercial and local considerations must have an important effect on development. For this reason it seems desirable to consider the broad pattern of availability of energy sources during the next half-century.

ENERGY SOURCES

Primary sources relevant to the manufacture of iron include coking grades of hard coal, other hard coals, fuel oil, natural gas, and nuclear energy, this last including direct use of the heat of nuclear reaction. All the fossil fuels have been used for the reduction of iron ore but the situation has hitherto been completely dominated by the blast furnace using coke as prime fuel.

Fossil Fuel Reserves

Many estimates have been given of reserves and their geographical distribution, and large discrepancies are to be found.⁽¹⁻⁴⁾ Despite this, the overall picture is reasonably clear and useful conclusions can be drawn.

Hard coal reserves may be taken as about 5×10^{12} tons, of which half is in the U.S.S.R. and China and one-third in the U.S.A. Various projected rates of consumption tend to give a lifetime in excess of 1000 years. It is, of course, more difficult to obtain reliable figures for coking coal, if only on account of the problem of accurately defining coking grades; differences in this respect could introduce a factor of 2. It is probably sufficient to follow Bellanc⁽⁴⁾ and to consider a world reserve figure of 10^{12} tons. Three-quarters of this tonnage lies in U.S.A., U.S.S.R. and China and large areas of the world will have to depend on imports.

Estimates of oil reserves have varied widely and been subject to repeated reappraisal. In recent years, however, a better appreciation of the characteristics of the earth's crust has led to estimates which are more likely

to remain static. Improved technique and reserves has been slow. Inadequate demand has led to low rates but a working force can be taken as a basis for estimate. In developing countries, experts do not agree that consumption will increase in potential extraction lifetime, despite the lifetime of known reserves being complicated by changes in potential extraction rates. The real equivalent may be taken as the tonnage of this being located in the United States. Authorities differ but the effective relative prices and consequent consumption rates are likely to be similar.

The position for natural gas is currently similar, with substantially lower reserves and consumption rates than coal as a convenience fuel. Serious world wide shortage is expected by 2000 A.D., certain areas having major problems in the short term.

The impact of the exhaustion of various fossil fuels on ironmaking technology will be profound. As a particular resource approaches exhaustion, its price will rise and this may lead to the abandonment of its use or its replacement by a 'synthetic' substitute. In the case of coking coal there are no grounds at the present time to meet all possible requirements of the iron industry for an indefinite period: estimates of iron-ore reserves vary considerably, the highest suggested being just over 0.5×10^{12} tons. Hence the use of coke in any particular location will be determined by one or more of the following factors:-

- (1) social-economic problems of mining the coal.
- (2) economics of replacement by liquid or gaseous hydrocarbons - this may be expected to change with time. Currently replacement is from oil田 locations, a state of affairs not likely to continue throughout the present century.
- (3) new technologies. Emerging energy sources other than fossil fuels may become commercially feasible at any time after the next few years.

SOLID FUEL FOR THE BLAST FURNACE

Despite the extensive resources of first-class anthracite coals available around the world, many countries have a real economic handicap in manufacturing good blast-furnace fuel from relatively inferior raw materials. One situation arises where coals abound of grades other than those ideal for coking. A great deal of research and development has gone into the problem and now it is possible to maintain economic operation in the face of a continually degenerating supply position.

Blending

Experience in the United Kingdom has been concerned largely with the manufacture of classical coke in normal-type coke ovens. Coke-making coals of 15-25% volatile matter (dry basis) have become increasingly scarce and also more expensive to win and it has been necessary to extend coke-making to the higher volatile ranges with varying degrees of coking power. In terms of the British National Coal Board classification, this corresponds to a move from 301 type to types 500 and 600 (say from 43h/53h to 60h/70h) on the B.N.C.B. classification⁽⁷⁾. Under these circumstances it is possible to effect improvements in physical properties of coke by incorporating various low-volatile additives in the charge.

Detailed accounts of work in this field have been given by the British Coke Research Association and the National Coal Board.^(8,9)

This work, together with a great deal of subsequent development at coke-oven plants, showed that substantial improvements can be made to the charges of coke made from the more readily available medium coking coals. Thus, a cheap and readily available additive, will increase the G.R. or stability index and raise the mean size of the product, but it has an adverse effect on the abrasion (M10) index and in consequence may need to be supplemented by other materials. Low-volatile coals of the semi-anthracitic type are found generally to be beneficial additives, the only disadvantage being usually that of cost due to regional shortage or to high transport charges in the U.K. Somewhat similar improvements can be brought about by the use of char manufactured by partially devolatilizing high-volatile coals.

and the effect of the addition of fuel oil on the combustion. The thermal energy produced by each system was measured and plotted as a function of the heat added to the burning coal to determine their strength. It was shown previously that a typical stage of combustion of coal for generating power in the furnace where the oxygen was introduced into the furnace air was reached.

Experiments have furthered our knowledge of furnace trials using different products, but it must always be remembered that the amount of fuel available was limited and the cost was a chief consideration in the furnace trials.

P.R.C. coke has been used in the B.C. Steel Corporation experimental blast furnace⁽¹³⁾ and B.P.C. briquettes in the Nippon furnace⁽¹⁴⁾.

Furnace trials involving the usage of fuelled coke as a 1000 m³ furnace for a week were successful but some slight loss in efficiency was reported. Another station complete success in trials on a 1300 m³ furnace over the twelve with a final record of a week at over 100% substitution⁽¹⁵⁾. The trials using B.P.C. briquettes are of particular interest. A furnace of 1000 m³ capacity was operated successfully on carbonised briquettes for a week but in addition a trial of 1 day duration was carried out using briquettes which had not been subjected to the final carbonising stage⁽¹⁶⁾. The need to suggest that this last operation could be omitted, a fact which if substantiated could have a marked favourable influence on the economics of the process.

More recently the British Steel Corporation has run full-scale trials on B.P.C. and P.R.C. fuels produced by a laboratory study of these together with the Japanese B.B.S. product.

In addition to chemical analysis and physical testing, the preliminary studies involved observation of behaviour in a tuyere roasting carried out in a special combustion rig. This apparatus⁽¹⁷⁾ allows fuel to be burnt in front of a tuyere using high-intensity hot blast. A roasting is formed and this region can be explored by a series of analytical probes to show the progress of the reduction reactions.

These features have been used by the author to distinguish between the two species of *Leptodora*, but it is difficult to do so with certainty.

The first thing one of things that you expect to be based on a culture of supporting and encouraging and a relationship goes nothing well. As the result, when it comes to our British culture there tends to be more of a negative response. With the exception of the United States that tends to be a culture of potentially volatile culture we provide no culture, however, that tends to allow for the expression of the negative aspects of the negative culture well. And the properties of that is that it is

The first half minute of "play" time was allocated to the men and second to the women. Clothing systems to accommodate these requirements were developed and the results were encouraging, though not without problems.

The high-pressure trials were conducted by a team of engineers and
factory workers directed by Mr. G. A. C. Johnson, who is working section
already existing in the U.S. Army, and took about 1000 hours due to absence of
raw materials. Integrating theory, the group were able to make all
weights into and out of the system during 10 special campaigns. In addition

INJECTION OF HYDROCARBONS

Injection at Blast Furnace

The injection of hydrocarbons at the blast furnace has been practised for many years, but until recently little development had been made, particularly in the U.S.A. and the injection of gas in Europe has largely been kept confidential.⁽¹⁾ The injection practices are now used in the production of over 50% of the world's iron. The quantities of injection vary widely but often the replacement ratio, the latter being apparently mainly determined by the blast temperature available or, in other words, the ability to maintain necessary temperature in spite of the absorptive effect of the blast dust. In addition, difficulties may be experienced in securing complete conversion of the hydrocarbons to reducing gas. The recent developments show much promise in overcoming this problem. In one system oil is injected into the oil sprays of the lance. This has proved successful at the Port Talbot and other plants of the British Steel Corporation. An alternative approach which is used successfully in Germany⁽²⁾ is the use of a water-in-oil emulsion with 5-10% water. Both systems appear to promote the formation of fine oil droplets by the explosive evaporation of entrained water drops.

Injection in the Blast/Cock

An interesting alternative to the injection of hydrocarbons with the blast is the technique of supplementing the reducing gases of the blast-furnace stack by injecting essentially carbon monoxide/oxygen at a level above which solution loss is not likely to occur. If the gas is preheated to the appropriate temperature, say 900 - 1000°C, and can be adequately distributed and mixed with the current stack gases, considerable improvement in gaseous reduction can be achieved with consequent savings in coke. Calculations suggest potential economic benefits, the advantages being largely additional to those of tuyere level injection. Very low requirements of solid fuel are implied, perhaps of the order of 150 kg/tone, or less.

Technical problems centre on the problem of injecting gas with minimum additional heat loss and on the control of temperature and on the effective introduction to and distribution in the furnace stack. In partial oxidation systems such controls can be serious. If this is overcome by steam addition the gas becomes too cool during unless the excess water is removed and this requires use of the sensible heat. Operation of the reformer at high temperature (1400°C) is helpful but leads to engineering problems of scaling to the available injection temperature. Catalytic reforming is an alternative but this demands extreme physical properties in the heat-exchanger material and also restricts the choice of feedstock as natural gas or light petroleum fractions.

Blow-off rate and mixing of the injected material is evidently important and it seems clear that the method of injection can have little influence on it. Theoretical studies are of a certain limited value but practical trials are necessary; a start has been made in this direction. Inevitably some of the early work was done in small experimental furnaces in which the mixing problem is unlikely to be significant.

In the U.S. Bureau of Mines furnace⁽²²⁾ stack injection was based on a mixture of natural gas reformed by oxygen with dry tap gas used as a carrier. Injection was at $900 - 1000^{\circ}\text{C}$ and the A/V ratio ($\text{O}_2 + \text{H}_2\text{O}$) ($\text{CH}_4 + \text{H}_2\text{O}$) was only 5/1 to 6 and replacement ratios were in the range 0.5/0.7 kg carbon²/natural gas.

Hippen, Balon, Balch⁽²³⁾ worked with a furnace of 0.6 m bore diameter, 3.8 m³ volume, and injected the products of partial oxidation of oil at $1000 - 1300^{\circ}\text{C}$. The A/V ratio was about 4/1 and there was 1/3 of coke. Replacement ratios of about 0.3 (coker/oil) were obtained; indirect reduction in the stack, initially 65%, went up to 95%.

At ILLC using the experimental furnace at Ridge⁽²⁴⁾ studied the use of partial oxidation natural gas-oxygen with an A/V about 5. The fact that the gas was injected at 1400°C encouraged reaction of the oxidizing constituents with the coke. The resultant replacement ratio is given as 0.45 kg coke per 1 m³ natural gas. This work also showed that stack

The first stage of the system is a gasifier which is fed with coal and air at a rate of 1.5 kg/min. The output of the gasifier is a mixture of steam, air, coal vapour and char. This mixture is passed through a water jacket at 100°C to cool it, after which it passes through a water jacket at 100°C to cool it and a separator at 100°C to remove the char. The separator is followed by a water jacket at 100°C to cool the gas and a water jacket at 100°C to remove the char.

In the second stage of the system, the gas passes through a water jacket at 100°C to remove the char. The gas then passes through a water jacket at 100°C to cool it and a separator at 100°C to remove the char. The separator is followed by a water jacket at 100°C to cool the gas and a water jacket at 100°C to remove the char.

Other work on a pilot plant scale has been conducted by the Argonne Gas and Char Company to investigate the G.A.R. and G.L. processes (1). The furnace has a hearth diameter of 4.5 m and the gas flow rate was taken from an existing reforming plant and calculated before injection. The gas was generated by steam reforming of natural gas. Heating value and calorific value of steam, which was subsequently measured, is 1000 kJ/mole with a value of 30 + 40. Thermal power traverse suggested that penetration across the coke was good and a replacement ratio of 1.5% by volume² reformed gas (0.6 m³/m³ natural gas) was obtained, this being independent of simultaneous injection of 75 kg/min of oil through the tuyeres.

Gas flow regulation

The plant furnace is an extremely efficient converter, losing very small thermal losses but it does convert a large proportion of the total energy input into a fuel gas of low calorific value. A useful proportion of this heat can be got back into the system via heat preheating, much of the extraction of fuel injection steam from the fact that it increases the amount of heat in steam which the furnace will accept. There are other possibilities of regulating temperature constant energy. In particular the oxidising conditions can be utilised in the reforming of hydrocarbons, the reduced components then provide the part of the injection stream. Analogous operations can form part of the reduction and generation in the Midrex and Amoco process (see previous) so it should eventually be possible

THE POSITION OF HYDROCARBON PROCESSING IN THE INDUSTRY

Hydrocarbon processing has generally been a minor feature of the oil industry, possibly due to the cost of gas. In the U.S.A. it is the small independent refineries which have aggressively used hydrocarbon processes and U.S. Gulf Coast refineries have developed both catalytic cracking and the 'kettle' distillation of Gasoline (10) as the technique of oxidized top cuts (11). It is likely together with the oxygen (12)(13) and the aromatic (14).

The major focus of hydrocarbon processing and relatively gas injection seems to be restricted now to the U.S.A. for thermofluid production as well as for heating coils and, at current prices, economic extraction.

SYNTHETIC FUELS

In recent years other processes designed to supplement the blast furnace have been the subject of special attention, research, and international conferences (15-17). One of the features of processes proposed has been to reach the stage of industrial operation and of these the majority show little promise of widespread application.

The consensus of opinion at present is that direct-reduction processes are applicable in situations where demand is insufficient to support economic blast-furnace operation, where by turns gas is scarce or where coke is particularly expensive. Otherwise the blast furnace may be expected to dominate the field.

Of direct-reduction plants installed in recent years, some (for example, Widnes, U.K.) depend on relatively cheap natural gas to produce a sponge iron product, and their fortunes are likely to be bound up with the future availability under conditions of world-wide demand for 'conventional fuels'.

Systems using solid fuel, particularly non-coking coal, include the G/10 process and the electric Isa-shaft furnace, the latter having the particular advantage of producing a sulfur product, the impurities being removed in a slag. With the development of major electrical energy supplies and an increasing difficulty in obtaining fossil fuels, this process could become important in the long run.

NUCLEAR ENERGY IN IRONMAKING

With the development of fusion energy plants much thought has been given to the possibilities of application to iron and steel technology. The potential availability of cheaper electrical energy from this source gives up a number of interesting prospects but in general few technical problems are involved. Of much more interest, however, is the question of the use of nuclear heat without the loss of efficiency consequent on its conversion to electricity.

High-temperature reactors exist in the U.K. (Dragon), in the U.S.A. (Peach Bottom), and in the Federal Republic of Germany (Jülich); it seems likely that this type of device can operate with coolant helium outlet temperatures up to 1000°C . Before passing to a power-generation system, the coolant can be used to provide heat to sustain endothermic reforming or reduction reactions.

Extensive studies have been carried out under sponsorship of the Commission of the European Communities^(32,33). In this co-operative work, various groups examined reduction processes based on coal or on reformed reducing gas and analysed the overall energetics of various systems⁽³⁴⁻³⁶⁾. Similar studies have been carried out by the British Steel Corporation in association with the Dragon project team⁽³⁷⁾ and by the Japanese Iron and Steel Institute⁽³⁸⁾.

Most attention has been directed to sponge-iron plants based on a reducing gas, the reactor heat being used to supply the heat of the reduction reactions and sensible heat for the incoming gas and, in some cases, the thermal requirements of a reforming process. In the present state of technology, temperature levels in the various schemes are somewhat critical and much reliance has to be placed on future improvements in performance of materials, particularly heat-exchanger elements. Processes studied in some depth are basically analogous to the existing sponge plants such as H-Iron or FIDR in that they use hydrogen or CO/H₂ mixtures which are derived from fossil fuels. This generally demands a source of heat effectively at 900°C or more. It is true that high-pressure hydrogen systems operate at much lower temperatures but the reforming units designed

to convert natural gas to hydrogen have thermal demands in the higher-temperature range. Moreover, the primary helium coolant circuit must operate at elevated pressure - say, 40 kg/cm^2 - and must be protected against cross-contamination with the reacting gases by secondary heat exchange. This means that materials must be employed capable of withstanding pressure differentials of many atmospheres at a temperature of 1000°C and in presence of CO_2 , H_2 , and He . These are formidable requirements but they will no doubt be met. The association of ore reduction reactors with atomic piles also presents problems arising from the need to bring handling facilities for ores and products into close proximity to highly sophisticated systems involving complex safety devices.

Another problem is involved in the necessary scale of operation. A reactor of 2000 M W (Thermal) is probably the smallest that can be contemplated on economic grounds and this would provide heat for iron production appropriate to an ingot capacity of 5,000,000 t.p.a. together with appreciably more electrical energy than the works could use⁽³⁷⁾. Suggestions have been that a large reactor system be used to produce hydrogen which would then be transmitted through pipe-lines to the point of use. This would mean that the reactor could not supply the sensible heat required by the iron reduction process.

Insofar as schemes currently under discussion are based on fossil fuels they could have a beneficial effect on the requirements of the iron and steel industry. In comparison with gaseous reduction processes which rely on natural gas both as chemical feedstock and source of reaction heat, a combined nuclear/fossil scheme would save 50% of the hydrocarbon demand. This in itself is unlikely to influence the date of effective exhaustion of reserves but it could maintain a favourable economic balance for a longer period. Moreover, the conversion of solid fuels to gases, including hydrogen, is likely to benefit from cheap nuclear energy also.

On the whole it seems that the direct effects of nuclear energy on iron and steel manufacture are likely to be long-term ones and, of course, the possibilities mentioned so far imply the continued availability of fossil fuels. For the 21st century in fact they probably require coal which, at least, could be used more directly via formed coke.

It is perhaps appropriate at this point to consider the prospects for ironmaking when fossil fuel supplies are no longer available. Such a state of affairs is likely to arise because of ultimate exhaustion of reserves on one of the following grounds: (a) the inability of persuading anyone to mine the coal, (b) a general prohibition of 'dirty' operations associated with coal mining and processing or (c) concern with the rising level of CO₂ in the atmosphere resulting from combustion of fossil fuels.

This essentially leaves hydrogen as reducing agent and water as the only source of hydrogen. A number of authors have studied the characteristics of an energy economy involving hydrogen as an important secondary energy carrier (39-40). Electrolytic hydrogen suffers the disadvantage of efficiency factors in the generation of electricity from nuclear heat and also in the process of electrolysis but there are possibilities of obtaining hydrogen by a sequence of chemical reactions sustained by process heat (41) and these, or other techniques of converting water into hydrogen may in the very long term provide the basis for the manufacture of iron and steel.

APPLICATION PROSPECTS

The future pattern of fuel/energy usage in ironmaking will be determined primarily by the cost and practicability of the various alternatives.

At the present time the position appears to be dominated by problems of securing adequate supplies of coking coal at reasonable cost. Cost price structures are perhaps somewhat distorted at present in that demands have risen rapidly in relation to the practicable possibilities of stepping up extraction rates by new investment. A further factor, which also has long-term implications, is the increasing attention which is having to be paid to safety in mining. This apart, running costs are likely to rise and there may be increasing difficulties, reflected in prices, in securing sufficient labour to work in this field.

The position is likely to continue that coal will be available in any quantity required for ironmaking over the next half-century at least but at prices which will encourage the use of alternative energy supplies. Extension of the range of coke which can be used in the classical blast furnace, whether by blending or more fundamental techniques such as the

manufacture of formed coke, will tend to ease the situation and no major developments may be expected.

The use of gaseous and liquid hydrocarbons in the blast furnace is economically attractive at the present time and becomes more so as the day goes by and their use will be pressed. In the case of injection at the tuyeres, relatively little capital investment is involved and the practice can easily be changed in the face of varying fuel availability. No new elaborate systems based on reforming hydrocarbons will undoubtedly require considerable investment and it would seem that the time required to pay off such schemes is of similar order to the time during which such fuels will become scarce in the face of approaching exhaustion of reserves. If such techniques are successfully applied it may be doubted whether 'second generation' schemes will equally be economically advantageous and it is possible that solid-fuel-fired blast furnaces may be built at the end of the present century without benefit of hydrocarbon injection. Top-gas recirculation schemes which have made little progress to date may be then more attractive as they consume fossil fuel.

Direct-reduction processes based on natural gas or oil seem likely to have a limited life and to be restricted to specific regions where such fuels are abnormally cheap. Solid fuel processes are in principle much more attractive and of course the most effective and reliable one is the blast furnace. The electric low-shaft furnace could well become more important as the cost of electricity declines relative to other energy sources.

In the longer term it may be expected that the iron industry will be brought to depend increasingly on nuclear energy. Present ideas for employing thermal energy from atomic reactors to support processes otherwise based on gaseous and liquid fuels are extremely difficult to evaluate. By the time they could be in a state to make a serious impact on trouncing the natural fuels could well be approaching exhaustion necessitating their replacement by substitutes from coal. The economics of such a situation are complex but it is not likely that they will be attractive via-the blast furnace.

In the really long term various factors such as the unattractive nature of the coal mining industry, atmospheric pollution by combustion and perhaps exhaustion of fossil fuel resources would be expected to lead to a technology based on reduction of iron oxide by hydrogen derived from water with the aid of nuclear power.

1. The first stage of the process is the **initialization**. This stage involves setting up the initial conditions for the simulation. It includes defining the system's parameters, such as the number of particles, their initial positions and velocities, and the interaction potential between them. The initialization stage is typically performed once at the beginning of the simulation.

2. The second stage is the **simulation loop**. This stage involves the iterative calculation of the system's state over time. At each time step, the positions and velocities of all particles are updated based on the forces calculated from the interaction potential. The simulation loop continues until a specified end time or until a certain convergence criterion is met.

3. The third stage is the **post-processing**. This stage involves analyzing the simulation results to extract meaningful information. It may involve calculating statistical quantities, such as the average energy or temperature of the system, or visualizing the particle trajectories and spatial distribution. Post-processing can also involve comparing the simulation results with experimental data or theoretical predictions.

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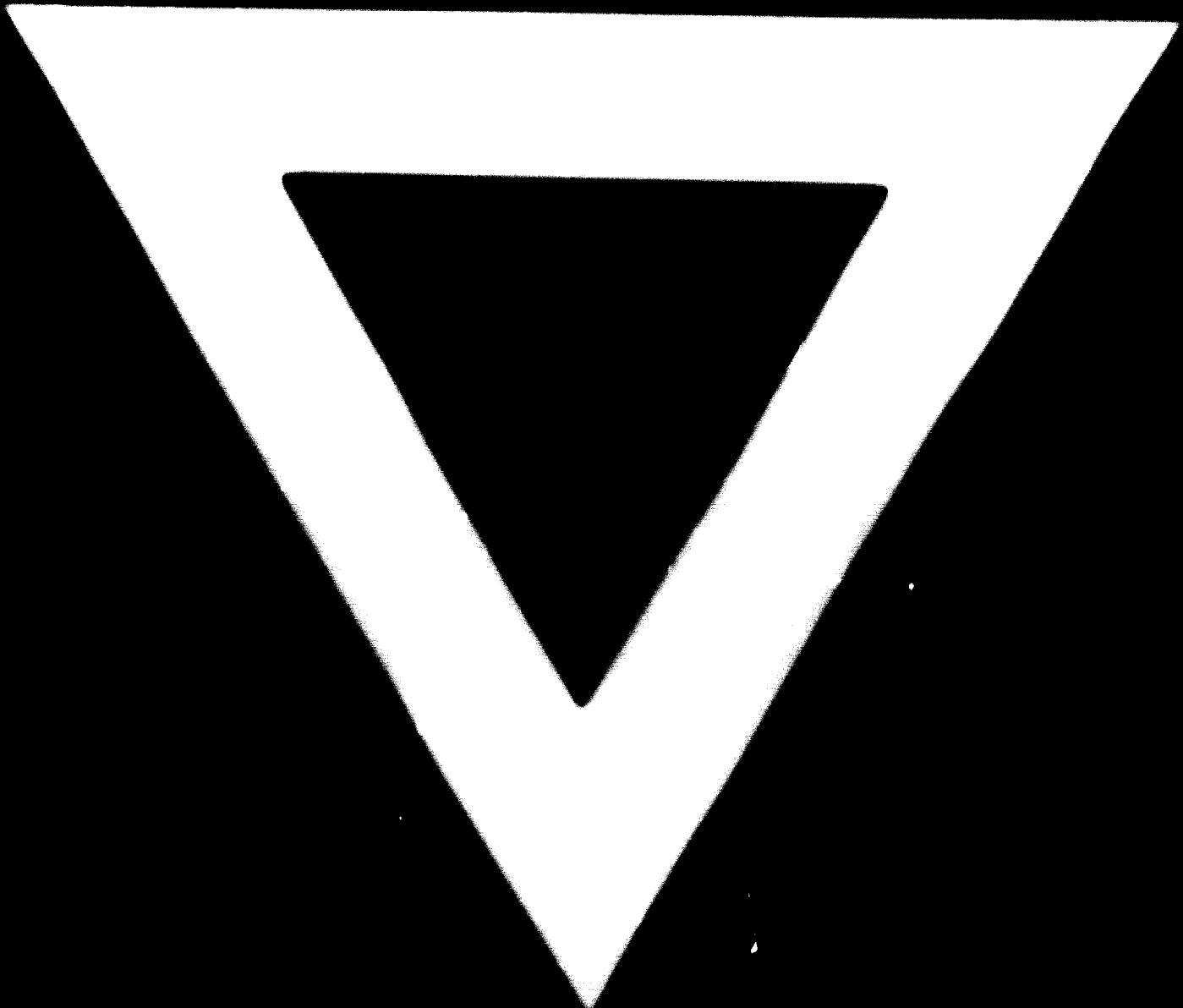
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Type of fertilizer	P.O.P.	D.D.P.	F.O.P.	R.L.S.
Control	—	—	—	—
Analysed NPK by reaction	3.0	3.0	6.7	1.1
10 day	21.3	21.2	20.9	20.3
20 "	3.6	12.1	3.8	12.6
30 "	9.1	6.0	3.9	6.5
40 "	9.9	1.0	2.7	2.5
Bulk density kg/m ³	570	607	558	570
Mean + 60	—	—	—	—
Mean + 30	—	—	—	—
Mean + 20	—	—	—	—
Mean + 10	9.9	10.9	5.1	5.6
Bottom line (see next) 1	11	2.7	0.9	0.6

TABLE II

Name	Per Cent.	On the Coal
	Allerton	Carbureted Allerton
Rank (H.C.B.)	62	60
(E.E.C.)	71	65
Molten S (as received)	16.6	7.5
Ash S (dry)	9.3	5.1
Sulphur S (dry)	1.12	1.00
Volatile Matter (dry)	38.2	35.4
(d.m.)	35.5	35.2
Rand Carbon (dry)	58.5	61.5
Calorific Value (as rec'd) cal/g.	6070	7120
Smelling Number	1.0	9.0
Proportions	755	695



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