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MINI-FERTILIZER PLANT PROJECTS,

Sectoral Studies Series No.7, Volume I

SECTORAL STUDIES BRANCH DIVISION FOR INDUSTRIAL STUDIES

 1454

Main results of the study work on industrial sectors are presented in the Sectoral Studies Series. In addition a series of Sectoral Working Papers is issued.

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> This document presents major results of work under the element Studies on Fertil' Ler Industries in UNIDO's programme of Industrial Studies 1982/83.

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Preface

This study has been prepared in response to the recommendation of the Third Consultation Meeting on the Fertilizer Industry held in Sao Paulo, Brazil, 29 September \sim 2 October 1980. It will be presented to the Fourth Consultation, to be held in New Delhi in January, 1984 .

Its preparation has been possible through a special contribution to UNIDO from the People's Republic of Hungary in the form of assistance extended by the Hungarian Chemical Industries Engineering Centre $(VEGYTERV)$. VEGYTERV has implemented this study in co-operation with the Division for Industrial Studies, Sectoral Studies Branch.

Extensive use was made of the documentation and material presented at the mini-fertilizer seminar organized in November, 1982 in Lahore, Pakistan by the UNIIO secretariat and the Pakistan National Fertilizer Company. Special questionnaires, direct contacts and personal visits were made to contractors, plant owners and equipment manufacturers of fertilizer plants in both the industrialized and the developing countries in order to collect material for the study. The Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) and the World Bank also supplied valuable information and material for this study. The main contribution comes, however, from the Hungarian Chemical Industries Engineering Centre (VEGYTEPV) who ha5 prepared the study for printing, based on its own knowledge and experience, contributions from UNIDO as well as the above-mentioned material.

UNIDO expresses its gratitude for the work done by VEGYTERV.

The details of the work executed and the contributions received from different information sources are reviewed in Appendix 1/1 which together with other statistical material is being issued separately as an addendum to this document.

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1. SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

1.1 Summary of the methodology adopted

Based on conceptual deliberations - given in detail in the Appendix $3/1$ - the total investment costs for a fertilizer plant located in a developed country was established, as well as for an identical plant in a developing country, at two selected locations, one in sea-side location and one in a remote location. The total investment cost as well as the operating cost of small-size plants for various fertilizers were calculated for plants located in these selected sites. Different feedstacks were considered in the case of nitrogen fertilizers, namely, naturai yus, coal and fuel oil.

The economics, with regard to investment, operating, and farm gate costs were compared for the various fertilizer plants located at the selected locations in order to compare the competitiveness of each plant within the same location as well as the competitiveness between the various locations.

It should be noted that, in calculating the operating costs rather conservative on-stream factors were considered for the developing country locations (i.e. 75 per cent for large plants and 90 per cent for small plants). If these factors are elevated the competitive position of plants in the developing region will register an obvious improvement.

1.2 Summarv of the findings and conclusions

The information material collected, their processing the technical and economic evaluation executed led to findings and conclusions discussed in detail in the relevant chapters. These conclusions can be summarized in the following:

General

1. In spite of the actual world economic situation and the depressed fertilizer market situation the forecast made by the different international organizations (FAO, World Bank, IFDC, Fertilizer Institute, UNIDO, etc.) and the individual experts - although they may-differ in actual

figures, show the same trend. The food problem, the agricultural development needs, the continuous technological innovations, together with the availability of the necessary raw materials will lead to substantial consumption and production increases. From the evaluation of the different forecasts, this study came to the conclusion, that the following demand/supply balance of nitrogen fertilizers can be expected in million tons nitrogen:

Demand/Supply balance of nitrogen

fertilizers

(million tons N/year)

July, 1983

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2. More new aamonia plants is expected to be built in the countries and locations where natural gas, at low cost, is available (Mexico, Trinidad, Algeria, Nigeria, Libya, the Near East countries, Bangladesh, Thailand, Malaysia, Indonesia, USSR). The Near East countries will become an important supplier of ammonia and nitrogen products.

3. The world demand which was $30,91$ million tons P_2 O₆ in 1981/92 is expected to increase to 38,2 million tons in 1987/88.

Phosphoric acid capacities will reach 37,7 million tons P , O_5 in 1987/68 compared to 29, L6 million tons in 1981/82.

4. The share of the developing countries in phosphoric acid capacity which is about 19 per cent in 1981/82 is estimated to be in 1987/88 about 29 per cent.

5. The export availability of phosphate fertilizers is expected to grow as these new capacities are located near phosphate rock supplies. World trade in phosphoric fertilizers will increase from 4 million tens in 1979 to 10 million tons in 1990. North America will continue to be the leading exporter but Africa will increase its share of the total.

6. The world potash fertilizer demand will increase from $23,9$ million tons K_2O in 1981/82 to 29,67 million tons K_2 O in 1987/88 and the annual growth rate is expected to be about 3,6 per cent up to 1987/88.

7. It is evident that there will be a need to establish new fertilizer capacity in order to meet the expected increase in demand. It should be noted, however, that the size of demand in many countries will be too small to justify the erection of currently known large plants. Therefore, a considerable market pressure will be exerted to the development of up to date versions of more convenient capacity sizes to meet such limited demand. The general conclusions selected to each type of fertilizer are summarized **as** follows:

Ammonia plants

a. The oil price adjustments, the economic slump, the general shortage of foreign exchange, high transport costs together with the problems encountered with the "jumbo" plants created a completely new world market situation both in fertilizer

products and fertilizer plants.

In this new situation, new tendencies have emerged in the nitrogen fertilizer industry and first of all in the manufacturing of ammonia leading to

- development of new, energy saving solutions by simpler, less sophisticated processes and equipment, more suitable for developing countries
- return to the old methods of synthesis gas production using other feedstocks, like coal or electrolytic hydrogen
- attention focused on the mini-plant concept.

9. As a result, several new process schemes have been worked out. All of themsare well suited for implementation in the developing countries and particularly for mini-fectilizer plants.

 $10.$ worldwide scale the nearly monopolistic On a position of the natural gas as the most economic raw material for ammonia production seems to be assured at least for this decade but probably even for the next one. But in given local conditions, especially in developing countries, and for mini-plants, alternative feedstocks can present a real alternative or even the only feasible route for ammonia production.

All coal processing methods are in reality yet in the development stage, even if several of them can be referred to as realized and operative commercial plants. All processes are heavily dependent on the quality of coal. Therefore, a general assessment of the individual merits and disadvantages of the different processes would be futile.

Water electrolysis as a basis for ammonia production can be competitive only where abundant electric power is available at 3-14 Dollar/MWh.

11. The general situation of world economy, the currency problems, transport costs, experience in developing countries with either jumbo or mini-plants, the recent developments etc., justify serious consideration of the mini-plants as a viable alternative for the developing countries entering in the fertilizer production field.

It is possible now to devise new flowsheets for minihaving specific parameters competitive with big plants plants. These f. wsheets will be worked out in detail and proven commercially only if the interested contractors will

be persuaded that an adequate market justifies the expenses invoived. Nevertheless even now with the information gathered it was possible to present two alternatives. The first is for a 150 tpd ammonia plant, the other for a 250 tpd plant. This flowsheet promises better performance than the majority of 1000 tpd plants operating at the moment with total energy requirement of around 8,3 Gcal/t NH₅, in spite of simplified desian.

Although, neither the Beijing Conference (1) , nor the set also $\sim 10^{-1}$ km $^{-1}$ Lahore Meeting (2) recommend the consideration and evaluation of ammonia plant around 50 tpd capacity, this study devoted due attention to this alternative. The preliminary findings of the Lahore meeting have been confirmed: it would be possible to design such ammonia plants with not much worse characteristics as the 150 tpd one presented here, but the processing of ammonia to ready-made fertilizer would be too expensive. So for this size, the solution adopted by the People s Republic of China, producing ammonium bicarbonate directly in the ammonia plant remained as the technically and economically appropriate alternative. As the applicability of this kind of fertilizer product outside of China has to be confirmed by actual experiment - according to the recommendations of the Lahore Conference this size and process flowsheet had to be left out of consideration in this study.

12. With regard to specific investment the advantage in favour of the big plants is still observable at the developed sites, although not really significant. In all other cases the differences can be safely considered to fall within the accuracy limits. For developing countries mini--plants will not involve bigger capital costs as the same capacity realised in tig units.

At remote locations, the most probable sites for mini--plants, these can be realised with less specific investment as for big units at the same site, but will still cost nearly

1.) Technical Conference on Ammonia Fertilizer Technology for Procotion of Economic Co-operation among Developing Countries

Beijing, People s Republic of China, 13-28 March, 1982 2.) Seminar on Mini-Fertilizer Plants, Lahore, Pakistan,

15-20 November 1982

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two times the specific investment of a big plant in a developed site.

13. Feedstock has a strong influence on the investment cost, with roughly the same effect on all sites and capacities.

14. The production ccsts of the mini-plants at remote site are competitive with the big plants at the same site and the advartage in favour of the big plunt in developed countries is less than the transport costs, so the mini ammonia plarts are competitive even at the factory gate.

Feedstock price has *a* strong effect on the production costs. But capital costs are decisive: coal based processes can te competitive only with one tenth of feedstock price (on heating value basis).

Nitrogen fertilizer products

15. The costs of all the products from mini-plants (farm-gate basis) are competitive with the imported nutrient. when based on natural gas.

16. Ammonia from other feedstocks gives fertilizer products with higher farm-gate costs as the imported ones (which are based evidently on natural gas) but are still less expensive from local mini-plants as from big central plants.

17. Ammonium nitrate production needs higher investment and therefore, has higher production and farm-gate prices than urea in every case investigated, but the differences tend to become smaller with decreasing capacity.

18. The above results demonstrate unequivocally that mini-fertilizer plants are competitive both with imported products and with big plants erected in the country when farm-gate prices are compared.

Pho5obate fertilizers

19. For the purpose of mini-plant study, only sulphuric acid route can be considered.

20. Only two selected capacities for H_1 SO₄ and one size for all other products were examined. Since scale-up has no effect on the process, specific consumption figures remain essentially the same for all capacities in the mini-plant range and battery limit investment figures can be extrapolated by the usual formula with a $0,8$ as exponent. Therefore the figures computed for the sizes selected will only be improve1, when bigger mini-plants will be considered.

21. The farm-gate price of the mini-plant product will be in every case by far the most advantageous.

 $22.$ The very big differences between SSP and TSP product• en underline the conclusion that far mini-plants the rioht product is SSP.

23. The more sophisticated MAP and DAP involves even higher invastment costs and seem not very appropriate for mini-plants in developing countries.

24. NPK plants can form a viable alternative only if ammonia, nitric acid and phosphate processing facilities are on the same site c case seldum encountered.

Potential markets for mini-plants

25. In order to evaluate the market possibilities for mini-plants, this study considered the fertilizer demand both in quantity and type of product, the availability of raw materials, and other necessary factors (energy, infrastructure, skill, etc.) for the implementation of manufacturing units with the aim to assess how many countries are pctential builders of mini-plant, how many of them can be considered for the erection of both mini- and big plants for the different fertilizers.

Product consumpttgn

26. More than one third of the 91 countries examined consumed less than 10000 tpy N and 60 per cent of them could not reach the level of 40000 tpy N that refers to as a mini-scale unit capacity (150 tpd) for ammonia. On the other side a large number of them consumed more: than 100000 tpy N even 14 countries consumed over 200000 tpy N including China, India, Mexico of which consumption rose above milliun tpy N.

27. As for the phosphate fertilizer, half of the countries were below a consumption level of 10000 t P_2 O₆ and at the same time 13 of them consumed more than 100000 Lpy $P_2 O_6$. It is clear that there is a strong degree of polarization in the consumption of nitrogen and phosphale fertilizers. This manifestation is, however, not evident in

the consumption of potassic fertilizer.

28. Comparing the recent share in Table 4.1-2 with the forecasts in Tables $4.2-4$ and $4.2-5$ in case of nitrogen, it can be seen that even in the year 2000 the number of countries, 25 or 27,S per cent, will not reach the level of 10000 tpy N. On the other hand, the number of countries ~.1nsuming more than 200000 tpy will rise from 14 in 1931!82 to 26 in 2000, presenting a further polarization in consumption pattern of the developing countries.

2<mark>9. The main ranges in nitrogen consumpti</mark>an in 2000. will be the consumption above 200000 tpy N with $29,6$ per cent and the consumption level 1000 - 10000 tpy N with $24,2$ per cent.

30. Similar changes can be-forecast for the P_2 O₅ consumption. There will be a difference-in case-of $\mathbb{K}_\mathbf{Z}^{}$ O consumption because the main ranges will be the consumption levels from 1000 to 10000 and from 10000 to 40000 amounting about 32 per cent and 27.5 per cent, respectively. This is corresponding to the forecast philosophy that in this period the developing countries will not reach the N:P:K ratio than that observed with the developed economies.

Raw material

31. The raw material potential of developing countries was studied by regions. Almost half of the countries studied have natural gas reserves and 48 of them can or will be able to produce crude oil. 40 developing countries have coal/lignite deposits. Since in the developing countries very large areas have not been surveyed at all it is reasonable to suppose, that most developing countries will discover adequate coal deposits.

 $32.$ The reserves of phosphate rock are wide-spread. Some 34 countries of the world are producers, and 23 of the developing countries belong to 91 countries studied. Among them Morocco is the most important having about 70 % of total identified resources. Including Morocco, 41 developing countries surveyed have phosphate rock deposits.

 $33.$ In $1981/92$ there were 12 potash producing countries two of them, China and Chile, were developing countries and their production reached 51.000 tons $K₁$ O $amounting$ almost to $0,2$ per cent of world production. Another 14 countries have potash deposits, including Congo which

plans to develop its closed mine. Other developing countries will begin the potash production. The most important would be Jordania with a total capacity of 1,2 million tpy by 1985.

Mini-plants

34. 85 mini NH₃ plants are forecast for 1990 with a total capacity of 18850 tpd NH_a. The majority of them, almost three quarters are based on natural gas at the same time inly ³of these are expected to be based on hydropower potential.

 ${\bf 35.}$ In the last decade of this century 130 mini NH $_{\bf 5}$ plants are forecasted amounting to a total capacity of 29400 tpd. The majority of which (about 67 per cent) will be based on natural gas but coal as raw material will assume increasing importance with its share increasing to 19 per cent in 1990 and 28 per cent in the last decade of the century.

Majority of the plants considered both in Points 34 and 35 will be erected in countries where no big plants exist or will be built in the same period, but about 25 % can be forecast in countries where big plants also exist or will be erected.

36. For phosphate fertilizers 42 units are to be established up to 1990. In the last decade of the century 68 units' are forecasted, amounting total new capacities of 3780 tpd $P_2 O_5$ and 6120 tpd $P_2 O_5$, respectively.

General Conclusions

37. Mini-fertilizer plants present an advantagecus option for most developing countries for solving their fertilizer supply problems (wholly or partially). The actual technical level and the development work under way gives tha possibility to erect mini-plants situated near to the markets, which can be implemented with conpetitive capital and operation costs when compared beth to th imported products and those coming from big units realised in the country - when the whole supply line ta the farm gate is considered.

38. Process technology for all fertili~er production steps is available for mini-plants and no further action is needed with the exception of the ammonia process. Engineering firms are actively pursuing development work in this field but need further encouragement.

 $39.$ The realisation of $~$ κ ini-plant opens incomparably wider possibilities for the local participation in the equipment manufacture, erection and building works, but presents an excellent opportunity for the development of local works and skills for the maintenance, spare part production and other services an important contribution to the general industrialization of the country as well as, cooperation among developing countries in all above activities.

40. In order to establish a true agricultural government policy and work out the measures to be undertaken the most important task for a developing country is to work out or let work out a study on the national fertilizer supply system, taking into account:

- agricultural production with its development perspectives, needs and economic possibilities
- $-$ raw material situation
- the geographic situation and the transport system
- the infrastructural situation
- capital and financing resources
- man power (skilled) situation
- other relevant factors

and work out all reasonable supply alternatives from the and word over the contribution of all fertilizer products to a total self reliance or even export, including the different product mix alternatives for an adequately chosen period $(10-25 \text{ years})$ and by optimisation select the most suitable combination and define the tasks uf the authorities for supporting the goals identified. This will identify the right place for the mini- -plants in this supply scheme.

1.3 Recommendations

Based Jn the findings and conclusions, this study puts forward the following recommendations:

1.> It is strongly recommended that UNIDO place special emphasis on continuing its activities in promoting the development and use of mini-fertilizer plants in the developing countries through the convening of seminars on regional levels and a wider dissimination of studies on , and the developing countries in order to increase the awareness of the developing countries on the advantages of the mini-fertilizer plant alternative.

2.) NUNIDO, together with other international organizations, should encourage by all means available to them the development and commercialization of processes related to the mini- -fertilizer plants.

This should be done, a long others, through:

- the elaboration of organization arrangements whereby developed and dev£loping countries co·Jld initiate steps to support research activities related to the development of mini-fertilizer plants compatible with the needs of developing countries, to be undertaken by various institutions and firms;
- establishing a joint programme for the development of process designs, pilot plants and commercial scale of mini-fertilizer plants;
- $-$ organizing a seminar to which major engineering companies, research and development institutions and financial and planning organs from the developed and developing countries would be invited to participate and promote the idea and application possibilities of mini-fertilizer plants.
- 3.) To undertake special activities promoting co-operation among developing countries for the development of mini- -fertilizer. plant5, with particular emphasis on joint R and D for the development and adaptation of mini- -fertilizer plant technologies.
- 4.) To undertake an in-depth study on "fertilizer supply planning system" in which all technical, economic, legal and other developmental aspects are considered. The study should aim at helping decision-makers in the developing countries at national and regional levels to take decisions on the choice of type of fertilizer, capacity, process technology and procedure in building a fertilizer plant.

2. AN OVERVIEW OF THE FERTILIZER INDUSTRY IN THE

$1980'$ s

2.1 Development during the period 1975-1981

2.1.1 Demand/supply situation

The food deficit in the world is increasing at an alarming rate. At the same time, as a result of growing world population, the amount of arable land per person continues to decline in general, especially in the develop:ng countries. The growth in fertilizer use is therefore one of the essential factors, warranting the growth cf world food production.

Prior to 1974 fertilizer demand developed at a relatively stable rate. In 1975 world consumption declined for the first time in recent history. In 1979/80 and 1980/81 declines occured again in some major areas, including Norch America, Western and Eastern Europe. As can be seen from Table 2-1, the fertilizer market became characterized by periods of oversupply, followed by brief periods of shortages.

Table $2-1$

World demand/supply balance

(million tons of nutrients)

Source: Based on FAQ paper FERT/83/2, September 1982 and on the paper of the UNIDO/FAO/World Bank Working Group on Fertilizers, Juiy 1983

Demand.for fertilizer continues to increase annually at a rate of 4-8 million tons of which 3-4 million tons is in nitrogenous and the balance in phosphate and putash fertilizers. The largest portion of this increased demand can be attributed to the developing countries such as the subcontinent of Asia and Central and South America.In Africa, where the food deficit is equally great, the demand for fertilizer remains at the lowest level.

This inequality between the various regions in fertilizer use indicates the existence of large potential demand and the possibility for further development of the fertilizer industry.

The development of world production of fertilizers is presented in Table $2-2$. The production of nitrogen, Phosphorous and Potash compounds was in $1980/81$ in order of 125 million tons in pure nutrients and has increased by 32 per cent towards $1975/76$ (Table $2-2$ and $2-3$). However, the effective fertilizer supply was about 6 per cent less each year, since several million tons have been used for technical purposes, further processing and were lost by transport, storage and handling.

Table 2-2 World production of fertilizer nutrients

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Source: FAO Fertilizer Yearbook 1979,1980, 1981.

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The production of the three nutrients grew much faster in the developing than in the developed countries. During the last five years the total production increased in developing countries by 90.8 per cent, and in the developed countries only by 21.6 per cent (Table 2-3).

$Table 2-3$

Production of fertilizer nutrients

in developed and developing countries

(million tons)

1975/76 1976/77 1977/78 1978/79 1979/80 1980/81 All developed countries, million 80.2 84.6 88.1 92.7 94.9 97.5 tons growth, 100 105.5 109.8 115.6 118.3 121.6 $\boldsymbol{\%}$ $AA1$ developing $\mathcal{L}^{\text{max}}(\mathcal{L}^{\text{max}})$, where countries, ~ 200 million a 16.2 19.1 21.6 24.1 27.1 14.2 tons growth, 114.1 134.5 152.1 169.7 190.8 100 $\boldsymbol{\mathsf{z}}$ \sim Total world $m111$ 94.3 100.8 107.3 114.3 119.0 124.6 tcns growth, 126.2 126.2 132.1 106.9 113.8 100 $\boldsymbol{\gamma}$

Source: FAO Fertilizer Yearbook, 1981

2.1.2 Development of capacity and capacity utilization

To supply the growing demand between 1975-1981, additional capacities were built all over the world, however, much more extensively in the developing countries, where several new fertilizer production centres have emerged. Parallelly, a number of old and less efficient plants in the developed world have been closed or idled. Except for potash this transformation has changed the pattern of capacity share between the developed and developing countries (Table 2-4 and $2-5$) (1) .

$Table 2-4$

Share of developed and developing countries

in fertilizer capacity development (per cent)

Source: Based on paper of FAO/UNIDO/World Bank Working Group on Fertilizers, June 1982

1.) All the capacity data are based on paper of FAQ/UMIDO/ /World Bank Working Group on Fertilizers, June, 1982.

Table 2-5. CAPACITY CHANGE, BY REGIONS

Source: Based on paper of FAO/UNIDO/World Bank Working Group on Fertilizers, June 1982.

 $a/$ Idled plants are those which are mothballed until economic conditions are such as to bring them into production. Closed plants are those permanently closed and will not be brought into operation regardless of economi

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 $\hat{ }$ Around 47 per cent of new ammonia and 52 per cent of new phosphate capacities were established in developing countries. At the same time most of the closed or idled capacities were located in the developed countries; i.e. 93 *1.* of ammonia and 70 Y. of the phosphate.

2.1.2.1 World ammonia capacity

Almost all nitrogenous fertilizers are derived from ammonia. Its capacity in mid 1"75 was 67.6 million tons N and increased to 91.4 million tons N in the mid 1981. During this period new ammonia plants have brought 31.8 million tons additional capacity, however, around 8 million tons of existing capacity were closed or idled, mainly in No~th America, Europe and Japan.

New important ammonia capacity has been established in Mexico, Trinidad, Brazil, Egypt, Qatar, Turkey, India, Indonesia, South Korea, Pakistan as well as in the USSR, Romania, China, North Korea, U.S.A. and Canada.

Assuming that the whole nitrogenous production derives from ammonia, its capacity utilization was 62 per cent in 1975/76 and 68.6 per. cent in 1980/81.

2.1.2.2 World phosphoric: acid capacity

Similar to ammonia, phosphoric acid is the essential intermediate in phosphate fertilizer production. Its capacity increased from 25.5 million tons P , $0₅$ in 1978/79 to 29.66 million tons in 1981/82. Phosphoric acid plants were closed in the U.S.A., France, United Kingdom and Japan and new ·capacities were im)lemented in the U.S.A., Yugoslavia, Australia, Israel, Morocco, Tunis, Brazil, Syria, Turkey and the USSR.

Although the development of new capacities in "the developing countries, mainly in Africa, **was** impressiva, the share of the developed world in phosphoric acid capacity remains relatively high <Table 2-4>.

2.1.2.3 World potash capacity

Potash is obtained from underground deposits situated mainly in North America, Western and Eastern Europe. These regions are the main producer centres in the world. The total capacity of potash $(K₂0)$ increased from 29.5 million

tons in 1975/76 to 33.4 million tons in 1981/82. Altegether two of the developing countries, China and Chile, produce potash and their share in the world production is less than 0.2 Y..

Capacity were closed in the U.S.A., France and the German Federal Republic as well as in Congo, where the mine was flooded. However, new mines have been opened in the USSR, German Democratic Republic, United Kingdom, Spain, France, German Federal Republic and Canada.

2.1.3 Develgoment of fertilizer consumption

2.1.3.1 World consumption

According to FAO statistics world consumption of three main nutrients: nitrogen (N) , phosphate $(P_2 O_6)$ and potash $(K_2 0)$ grew in 1980/81 to 116 million tons or 28.4 per cent over the year 1975/76. The average annual growth rate for the last five years was 5.7 per cent, but the rates of increase to the previous year slowed down from 9.3 per cent in 1975/76 to 3.3 per cent in 1979/80 and 3.3 per cent in 1980/81.

The primary cause for this performance was the situation in the developed countries where consumption of fertilizers, especially in the last three years was practically stagnant $(Table 2-6)$.

The developing countries' consumption increased in 1980/81 almost *Bb* per cent over the year 1975/76 and the average rate of growth was 17.2 per cent. Nevertheless two thirds of fertilizers were as hitherto consumed in the developed countries (Table 2-6).

Table 2-6 World Consumption of Fertilizers

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Source: FAO Fertilizer Yearbook, 1981

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Paper of the UNIDO/FAO/World Bank Working Group on fertilizers, July 1983

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Among the various factors responsible for the lower growth of consumption of chemical fertilizers in the world the more significant were the following:

- (a) high real cost of fertilizer to the farmer, due to the increased cost of production (raw materials, energy, labour, etc.) and distribution;
- (b) less favourable crop/fertilizer relationship because of unfavourable crop prices and high interest rates on borrowed funds in developed countries as well as due to the bad weather in some years and in some regions of the world, e.g. in the United States and in the USSR in 1977/78 and 79/80;
- (c) lack or insufficiency of local fertilizer production in the majority of the developing countries, where real consumption is law, though the potential fer their use is great. The existence of local fertilizer production usually leads to al. accelerated growth in the indigenous demand;
- (d) foreign exchange restrictions limiting importation of fertilizers, as well as lack of governmental support such as rural credits, agronomic service, training, subsidies, price policy, etc.;
- <e> lack of marketinQ and agronomic infrastructure and a technical incapacity to deliver and distribute fertilizers to farmers.

2.1.3.2 Regional development of consumption

According to FAO Statistics North America, Western and Eastern Europe had slow growth rate that nearly approached a stagnant condition.

In Africa the consumption grew in five years by 5o per cent, but the absolute figure of consumed fertilizer nutrients in 1980/81 amounted to only 1.5 million ton5, which constituted 1.3 per cent of total world consumption.

Latin America had a low performance rate in 1978/79 influenced mainly by a market slow-down in Brazil and Mexico.

The Near East's growth rate was 50 per cent over the five year period. The Far East (including China and Morean Democratic Republic) experienced more than three times the

world's average growth rate. The main countries that contributed to this region's performance were China, India, Pakistan and Indoresia.

2.1.3.3 Development of fertilizer consumption

The development of fertilizer consumption by main nutrients is given in the Appendix 211, in Table l and 2. It is shown that in 1980/81 world nitrogenous fertilizer consumption increased by 39.9 per cent to 60.3 million tons of N. The growth rate in developing countries was 105 per cent while in the developed world it was only 15.6 per cent.

The consumption of phosphate fertilizer in the same period of time increased by 25 per cent to 31.5 million tons. Also here the gain of developing countries appears impressive <79 per cent for five years).

Potash fertilizer consumption increased by 13 per cent <81.8 per cent in developing and 5.2 per cent in developed. countries>.

The share of developing countries in nitrogen consumption increased from 28.2 per cent to 41.1 per cent, in phosphate consumption from 21.4 tp 30.0 per cent and in potash consumption from 10.3 to 16.5 per cent.

· Although the developed countries dropped their share in world fertilizer consumption from 77.9 per cent in 1975/76 to 67 per cent in 1980/81, the developing countries consumption still lags for behind that of the developed world both in total and per hectare.

In developed countries total fertilizer consumption was 115.8 kgs per hectare arable land and permanent crops in 1980, ho 1ever, in the German Federal Republic the total consumption of the three nutrients was 471.5 kgs, while.in the German Democratic Republic it was 325.2 kgs and in $France$ 300.8 k c $3.$

At the same time it was 46 kgs and 37.6 kgs and 9.7 kgs in Latin America, Far East and in Africa, respectively. Many of them, such as Nigeria, Cameroon, Tanzania, Ethiopia, Argentina, Afghanistan, etc., used only a few kilograms of nutrients per hectare.

The fertilizer application in some countries was mure or iess constant and a growing factor of the economy. However, in many others it remained accidental and irregular.

2.1.3.4 Development of international trade

International trade in fertilizers increased considerably between 1976/77 and 1980/81 (Table 2-7). As world consumption increased 21 per cent in this period, so did international trade by nearly 40 per cent, of which the growth rates were; nearly 80 per cent of phosphate, 53 per cent of nitrogenous and nearly 20 per cent of potash fertilizers. Potash fertilizers remain, however, the biggest nutrient item of international trade. In 1980/81 a bulk of 16.7 million tons K_2O was traded, while 13.1 million tons N and 7.5 million tons P, Os.

Imports have accounted in 1976/77 for about 27 per cent of world consumption and 31.4 per cent in 1980/81. This increase was mainly in the developing countries, where in 1980/81 almost 42 per cent of totally consumed nutrients arrived from abroad, compared with 37 per cent in 1976/77. This fact took place in spite of a considerable increase in local production in some developing countries though mainly in intermediates such as ammonia and phosphoric acid and not in finished fertilizers.

Table 2-7. WORLD TRADE IN FERTILIZERS, BY REGIONS

/million tons of nutrients/

Source: FAO Fertilizer Yearbook, 1980.

FAO Monthly Bulletin of Statistics, March 1982.

 $\underline{\mathbf{a}}$ Less than 50,000 tons.

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Traditional exporters of fertilizers have been the developed markets economies. However, the share in world export of the USSR and some other centrally planned economics have grown. For the first time some developing countries, par ticularly in the Near and Far East regions, have demonstrated visible export activity. The most notable are the Republic of Korea, Indonesia, Kuwait and Saudi Arabia.

That new trend is still more apparent when considering the international trade of some essential fertilizer materials as ammonia and phosphoric acid. New important international exporters have emerged in the last years: USSR, Lybia, Mexico, Trinidad and Tobago, Kuwait and Datar of ammonia trade and Morocco and Tunisia of phosphoric acid. These countries have the potential to become important exporters of finished fertilizer in the future, tao.

2.1.3.5 Price movement

The peak off in nitrogen and phosphate prices in 1973/74 in connection with the quadrupling at petroleum and phosphate rock prices, as well as potash fertilizers in 1975 has lead to a reduction in the purchase of buying fertilizers by farmers. This, in turn, resulted in a rapid decline in prices of all fertilizers on international markets during 1975 and 1976.

Since 1976 prices have fluctuated•and about levelled off until mid 1978. However, starting the second half of 1978 $international$ export spot prices in current dollars have increased steadily, peaking off again in 1979 and evening out at the new, but higher level. In 1981 and 1982 a slight price decline of almost all types of fertilizers again took place.

Table 2-8 shows the development of fertilizer expert spot prices in current dollars during the years 1~75-1981;

The price of bagged urea for example, being in 1974 around US Dollar 385 per ton f.o.h., had fallen in 1975 to US Dollar 160 and in 1976 to US Dollar 115. In December 1977 and 1978 the average export price was US Dollar 126 and US Dollar 145, respectively. During 1979, hcwever, the price of bagged urea increased sharply to US Dollar 200 and in 1980 to US Dollar 235. At the end of 1982 the price has again bottomed as far as US Dollar 145.

A similar trend was followed by ammonium sulphate, its price, however was US DOllar 55 at the end of 1982.

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The increase in triple superphosphate price had a slightly different development. The bottom was in 1976 (US Dollar 110), then the increase was to US Dollar 127 and 140 at the end of 1977 and 1978, respectively, and a new peak off in 1978 at US Dollar 250. After the decline to US Dollar 195 in 1980, the price of TFS felt down to US Dollar 140 at the end of 1982.

Table 2-8. AVERAGE EXPORT PRICES OF SELECTED FERTILIZER

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/US $\cancel{5}/\text{ton}/$

Source: Based on "Fertilizer International": International Price Trends.

Potassium chloride export spot prices have been steady for 1976-78, have increased in 1979 and 1980 and fallen again at the end of 1982.

Although as indicated before, there is an adequate supply capability to meet the demand for the three nutrients, these price movements reflect general inflationary increases in cost as well as periodical stronger demand $(e, g, in 1973/$ /79). Such cost of reasonable market force based increases are apparently tolerated by importers. It is, however, to be hoped that an artificial shortage and the acrompanying high prices of 1973-75 caused by panic buying does not occur again. If it does, then prices could escalate quickly to a very high level giving a disfavourable cast/benefit ratio for the farmers and again having an adverse effect on crop production in developing countries and sustaining the boambust cyclical nature of the world fertilizer industry.

2.1.4 Structural changes in the fertilizer industry

2.1.4.1 Impact of cost on closure of fertilizer plants in developed countries

Increasing raw material and energy co3ts, inflation and a poor market are the most important factors causing the structure changes within the fertilizer industry in the world, particularly in the developed countries.

In the U.S.A., for example, a total of 4.7 million tons of annual ammonia capacity has been shut down from 1977 to 1981. There are many plants that are operating at reduced production rates. The United States, once a major nitrogen producer in the world and a net exporter are losing their position by the rising price of domestic natural gas.

In Japan the nitrogen industry closed a total of 1.2 million tons annual ammonia capacity. Over 40 per cent of the Japanese urea capacity will be closed as part of a restructuring plan.

Phosphoric acid producers in Japan are also closing about 20 per cent of the capacity in the older and smaller plants. They find an advantage in importing phosphoric acid and ammonia from the countries having raw materials. Also in Europe the markets and sources of supply are changing.

2.1.4.2 Shift of new capacities towards sources of raw materials

During the 1970' ; a new trend in the development of the world fertilizer industry has been initiated, which is expected to continue for the foreseeable future. With the increase of energy and raw material costs the locations of the new plants are moving toward_ the places adjacent to the cheap and abundant feedstock.

In latest times the following new projects have been announced in the countries having natural resources:

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For ammonia/nitrogen production:

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New or substantially extended potash capacities will be established in:

> Israel, Jordan, China. Mexico, Brazil,

2.2 Major technological developments and tendencies

The production of three nutrients in fertilizers was in 1980/81 in the order of 125 million tons and is expected ta increase to 173 miilion tons in 1990/91. A considerable part of the new capacity will be installed in the developing countries, particularly where local raw materials are available.

On analysing the evolution of the fertilizer industry, it is noted that there have been no major breakthroughs in the chemical technology during the past decades.

Basically, the fertilizer industry continues to be a dirivate of ammonia, sulphuric acid, phosphate rock and potash salts. The change, which has taken place in the meantime has mainly been of a physical nature. For example, the unit capacity of all manufacturing plants has grown considerably. Thus, whereas an ammonia plant of 200 t/d or a sulpt.ur acid unit of 100 t/d was not considered small three or four decades ago, a 1000 t/d unit would not be considered exceptionally large in the seventies.

There have been also considerable changes in downstream conversion of basic chemical raw materials inte more concentrated final products. The conversion into high analysis fertilizers like urea, triple superphosphate, ammonium phosphates have reduced the share of low analysis products such as ammonium sulphate, single superphosphate, ammonium nitrate etc., in the total production and consumption of fertilizers. For example the fertilizer production in the developing countries is almost entirely based on urea, becau'se it can be delivered to farmers at less cost per unit N than in any other form. Other development is the granulation of fertilizers, which has substituted pulverous products from the past.

The development of the fertilizer industry can be attributed to the accelerated expansion of the fertilizer market in developed countries. In general, when the market expanded it has been found more economical to build large tonnage plants instead of multiplying the number of small units. This way, the industry benefited from the economy of

scale and a general incrase in efficiency.

 \hat{C} On the other hand, this situation does not necessary apply to the developing countries, where the fertilizer market size is comparatively limited. This fact and high investment which is ·necessary for large units and for the infrastructure have in many cases hampered the development of the fertilizer industry in these countries.

The present fertilizer industry has been developed under conditions of low-cost energy, which encourage equipment-intensive and energy-intensive manufacture and long distance transport. The rise of energy prices directly caused a rise in fertilizer prices. Consequently it gives a strong incentive to develop processes that have higher energy efficiency.

The general trend in technological development in fertilizer industry could be summarized as those directed towards:

- a.) energy saving technologies
- b.) improvement in the input/ /output coefficients, i.e. higher yield from some raw materials,
- c.> improved application of fertilizer i.e. decrease the amount of work
- d.) diversification of raw materials i.e. new sources of raw materials and improved method of the utilization of minerals of low concentration
- e.) long-term re5earch in direct pl ant fixing and r.ew biological varieties (genetic engineering).

2.2.1 Ammonia

In exponia plants the cost of energy is by far the biggest jntribution to the cost of the product, accounting for about 70 per cent of the total cost. The technology, when based on natural gas (75 per cent-of-world production) rrquires about 8.5 - 9.0 Gcal/ton liquid ammonia produced.

Overall energy efficiency of current production systems is still below 50 per cent.

In many of the plants that are currently being designed, changes are being made tu improve overall efficiency. Of these more important are:

- combustion air preheat and process air preheat are being installed. The feed is also being preheated to higher temperatures;
- [~]catalysts of shift conversion are improving to keep down CO and reducing inerts;
- heat requirement for CO regeneration is eliminated;
- $-$ inerts $(H, 0, CO, N)$ are removed by criogenic purification, lowering the energy requirements for recirculation and in the purga gas loss;
- newer reactors and some changes in catalytic temperature in synthesis convertor.

All these improvements are expected to reduce energy requirements to around 7.2 - 7.3 Gcal/ton ammonia.

$2.2.2$ Sulphuric acid

Sulphuric acid is the major cost element in producing wet phosphoric acid. Thus, the new sulphuric acid plants are getting more beginning electricity). energy efficient and some producers are to be net exporters of energy (steam or

The changes in the sulphuric acid technology are aimed at minimizing internal energy consumption and maximizing energy recovery. The savings are tied to the highly exothermic production process. The heating value of a ton of sulphur is equivalent to that of 2 bbl of oil, and each ton of sulphur can generate three tons of steam, the production of which otherwise would cost Dollar 40. "The sulphuric acid plant is really a power plant, that just happens to make sulphuric acid, too" (1). Rising prices of electricity justify the installation of a turbogenerator to put the steam to work generating electricity.

The new plants can make the steam pay off because they produce the steam at 900 psi (about 60 bar) instead of 300 psi (about 20 bar) in the old units. They also make more steam. A typical 1970's plant could generate 1.14 tons of steam per ton of acid while the 1980's plant gets more about 1.3 tons of steam for the same amount of acid produced.

Another energy saver is lowering the pressure drop in the catalytic converter, using new catalysts. The lowering of pressure saves electric power or high-pressure steam.

2.2.3 Phospho~ic acid

In the past few years phosphoric acid has been the source of more than 90 per cent of the new-phosphate fertilizer production and this trend is expected to continue in the foreseeable future.

The overall energy requirement ta produce phosphoric acid is not very high, since energy component is associated with phosphate rock and sulphur mining and storage. Nevertheless the methods of minimizing the energy input are of importance for the fertilizer industry.

For saving energy the following manufacture steps are improving:

- wet-grinding of phosphate rock has found wide $acceptance.$ By wet-grinding the mill size is reduced and grinding efficiency is higher. The electric power consumption is reduced by 30 per cent;
- the hemihydrate process of phosphoric acid is extended, since it does not need heat energy in comparison with the conventional dihydrate process which requires steam at about 1.9 Gcal per ton of $P_1 Q_6$ (as 54 per cent acid).

2.3 Prospect of fertilizer cevelopment in the 1980's

2.3.1 Development of demand and supply (capacities)

Forecasts of expected demand and supply capability for the three nutrients up to 1987/88 were prepared by the FAO/UNIDO/World Bank Working Group on Fertilizers in papers dated June/July 1983. Similar exercises were undertaken by the International Fertilizer Development Centre and TVA National Fertilizer Development Centre taking into account trends and events which took place during in last two years. Based on the figures and assumptions of these exercises the following expected development of demand/supply has been designed.

2.3.l.1 Nitrogen fertilizer

The demand for nitrogenous fertilizers is expected to grow on average at 3.5 per cent annually, during the years from 1981/82 up to 1987/88. Consequently the total world demand in $1987/88$ will be around 74.2 million tons N, 22.8 per cent more than 1931/82 (Table 2-9).

The share of developing countries will remain in this period almost constant, arcund 43-44 per cent.

The increase of supply capabilities of nitrogenous fertilizers can be illustrated by the expected anhydrous ammonia capacity development, which is the basic for nearly 100 per cent of nitrogenous fertilizers. It is expected to reach 120 million tons nitrogen in 1987/88.

Estimates of capacity are based on existing capacities plus information on new projects under construction or firmly committed. Closures have been taken out of capacity only when known to be permanently closed; idle plants have been retained since they could resume production when conditions are judged suitable for them to do so, by their owners.

Table 2-9 Demand forecast for N fertilizer

 $/$ million tons of N $/$

Fource: Based on paper of the UNIDO, FAO, World Bank Working Group

on Fertilizers July 1983

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The extensio<mark>n of the ammonia capacity is</mark> under way in Africa, Latin A<mark>merica, Near a</mark>nd Far Ea<mark>st, as well</mark> as in the USSR and in Eastern Europe. For example, Algeria is making large investments for the expansion of their ammonia capacity, which in 1985/86 wlll be 815 thousand tans N. New plants, each with a capacity of 1000 tons/day ammonia are constructed or planned in Morocco, Nigeria, Tanzania and Tunesia. They are supposed to come into operation after 1986.

A large expansion of ammonia capacity is carried out in Mexico, Brazil and in Bahrain, Kuwait, Libya, Saudi Arabia, Turkey, India, Indonesia, Pakistan and Malaysia. Large scale ammonia units of 1000 tons/day capacity are being built in all these countries, basing on captive low cost feedstock (natural gas).

In the USSR new ammonia plants will add over 5 million and in China over 2 million tons of nitrogen in the years 1981-86.

On a world scale, about 56 million tons of ammonia capacity has been added in the period 1975-86.

At the same time some ammonia capacities in the United States, in Western Europe and in Japan are closed down or idled. Nevertheless, the nitrogen production in these countries is not declining, because of the substitution in ammonia imports.

As already mentioned, there is a grcwing trade in ammonia for fertilizers, with ammonia being shipped from where it is produced to other locations where it is processed. The closure of some ammonia capacities linked ta the rationalizing the nitrogen industry. Ammonia and urea plants are closed because of increasing prices for feedstock (naphta), erosion of the competitive position and the loss of 2xpart markets.

With all these changes, ammonia capacity, which at the beginning of the 1980's was around 90-91 million tons nitrogen, will increase up to the year 1987/88 to 120 million tens. Althcugh, there is no information available about ammonia capacity development for the beginning of the next decade, it is evident that to satisfy the demand in ammonia evaluated at 90-92 million tons of nitrogen at the beginning of the 1990's about 20-25 million tons N capacity of ammonia 0 ¹ .1ght to be built between 19A6-1991.

The Table 2-10 shows the demand/supply balance of nitrogen fertilizers can be expected during the 1980's.

Table 2-10 World N fertilizer capacity, supply capability, demand and balance 1981/82-1987/88

/million tons of $M/$

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Source: Based on paper of the UNIDO /FAO/ World Bank Working Group on Fertilizers July 1983

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It can be seen from Table 2-5 how little additional ammonia capacity is introduced by developed market economies. This trend is supposed to continue and to become even more expressed in the future. It can be expected that the increase in demand i.n North America, Western Europe and Japan will exceed the increase in supply capability.

More new ammonia plants will be built in countries and locations where natural gas, at low cost, is available. This is the case in such countries as Mexico, Trinidad, Algeria, Nigeria, Libya, the Near East countries, Bangladesh, Thailand, Malaysia and Indonesia. The USSR will also become increasingly important as a source of ammonia and nitrogen supply. Part of the USSR production has been already contracted to the United States and to Western Europe on buy-back basis deals in exchange arrangements for plants provided by contractors. The Near East countries where a great amount of natural gas is being flared, and where the investment in infrastructure has been considerably advanced, will also become an important supplier of ammonia and nitrogen products.

Ammonia trade, however, remains restricted by the fact that ammonia import is not useful to those countries which have downstream capacity for urea, since urea C3nnot be made from. purchased ammonia without carbon dioxide a 'sy-product of ammonia production.

A lot of new ammonia/nitrogen plants will be built in large scale capacity units (1000 tpd or morel. However, at least 20 per cent of needed additional capacity, between 1986-1991, i.e. around 5 million tons of nitrogen in ammonia, might be established as mini-fertilizer plants, taking technical, economic or other advantaqes reviewed in Chapter 3.2.

2.3.1.2 Phosphate fertilizer

The average growth rate of phosphate fertilizer demand is expected to be 3.6 per cent annually up to the year 1987/88.

The world demand which was 30.9 million tons $P_2 O_5$ in 1981/82 is expected to increase to 38.2 million tons in 1987/88 (Table 2-11).

Table 2-11 Demand forecast for P_2O_5 fertilizer

/million tons of $P_2O_5/$

Source: Based on paper of the UNIDO, FAO, World Bank Working Group

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According to the FAO/UNIDO/World Bank Working Group on Fertilizers, phosphoric acid capacities will develop substantially in the 1990's. The capacity of this product in $1987/88$ will reach 37.7 million tons F, O_5 compared to 29.66 million tons in 1981/82.

Phosphoric acid is the intermediate for all types of high analysis phosphate fertilizers, such as triple superphosphate (TSP) and ammonium phosphates (DAP and MAP). Production of single superphosphate <SSPI and some marginal product (e.g. ground phosphate rock, basic slag, <mark>etc.</mark>) $\arctan{$ for $\arctan{10-12}$ per cent of the total phosphate fertilizer is complementary to phosphoric acid based fertilizers. The production of phosphate fertilizers, the use of phosphoric acid and other high analysis fertilizers increase because of their cost advantage. In 1977 approximately 60 per cent of all P , $0₅$ was applied in high analysis fertilizers, by 1990 this will increase to 70 per cent, particularly if pbosphoric acid and its derivatives are taking momentum in several developing countries. New large scale capacities are being erected or planned in Morocco, Tunisia, Senegal, Togo, Jordan, Peru, Iraq, Indonesia, etc. Assuming favourable economic conditions they will be sufficient to cover the world demand up to the year 1988/89.

The share of the developing countries in phosphoric acid capacity which is about 19 per cent in 1981/82 will be in 1987/88 about 29 per cent.

The export availablity of phosphate fertilizers is expected to grow as these new capacities are located near phosphate rock supplies. World trade in phosphoric fertilizers will be expected to increase from 4 million tons in 1979 to 10 million tons in 1990. North America will centinue to be the leading exporter but Africa will increase its share of the total.

2.3.1.3 Potash fertilizer

The world potash fertilizer demand will increase from 23.9 million tons actual consumption in 1981/82 to 29.7 m illica tons K_2O in 1987/88 (Table 2-12) and the annual growth rate is expected to be 3.7 per cent up to 1,987/88.

The development of production will be continued in countries with rich natural deposits such Canada, U.S.A., USSR, Spain, Israel, and the German Democratic Republic. Also Jordan and Brazil, with investments being underway, will join the producer list.

ln some countries, e.g. France, Germany FR, U.S.A. some old potash mines will be closed and the total capacity of the country diminished.

Table 2-12 Demand forecast for K_2 0 fertilizer

/million tons of $P_2O_5/$

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Source: Based on paper of the UNIDO, FAO, World Bank Working Group on

Fertilizers, July 1983

2.3.2 Major technological development in the future

There is a steady process of improvements in fertilizer chemicals and final fertilizer technologies and this is likely to continue as energy costs rise.

The details of the improvement trends are described in Chapter_{3.}

2.3.3 Structural development

Energy $cost,$ inflation and raw material prices will be the major pressures faced-by world fertilizer producers, primarily in the U.S.A., West Europe and Japan. In this connection the advantage has been moving to fertilizer plants lor.ated adjacent to cheap feedstock, although some of this advantage is being lost due to higher capital/operating costs and escalating freight costs. The natural resource availability is becoming the prime determinant in project determination.

Many of the traditional fertilizer producers in the developed countries, most of all those processing imported raw materials, are losing their leading position in the fertilizer trade. Increased ammonia output in Mexico and Trinidad will penetrate the U.S. market, where local production will no longer be competitive with imported products.

Important ammonia/nitrogen production centres, many of them export oriented, are appearing in Africa, the Near East and Asia. The production, based on domestic natural gas of Algeria, Libya, Nigeria, Tanzania, Kuwait, Bahrain, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, Bangladesh, Thailand, Malaysia, Indonesia, etc., will sunoly not only the nearby markets but al5o developed countries in Europe and/or Asia.

A similar role will be played by the development of the phosphoric acid and phosphate fertilizer industry in Morocco, Tunesia, Senegal and Togo, although the U.S.A. will continue to maintain a competitive cost position in the world phosphate trade due to its abundant inatural phosphate resources.

As for potash, the U.S.A. has long lost its self--sufficiency and is dependent on Canada and other countries for about three-fourths of its agricultural requirement3.

Substantial structural changes will take place within the production structure of the fertilizer industry in

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developed countries. Present plants, particularly ammonia units, will be further modified and old-plants that cannot be modified will close.

A new generation of thermally efficient plants will start to appear in the 1980's, due to the need of conserving energy, hence, to produce ammonia at a more economically attractive level. With the increasing imports of phosphoric acid or phosphate fertilizers many sulphuric acid plants are expected to shut down, although the by--product capacity is expected to continue to grow, because of restrictions on 502 emissions.

3. DEFINITION AND MAIN CHARACTERISTIC OF THE MINI-FERTILIZER PLANTS

3.1 Introduction

The siz<mark>e of ca</mark>pacity has been steadily going-up over the last few decades. The main reason for this has been the economy of scale, but in case of ammonia a breakthrough in technology has played an important role, too.

Many of the modern fertilizer plants have very large size. These sizes have been reached gradually, thanks to continuous improvements in technology allowing increasing scale economies due to the fact that investments increase less than proportionally to capacities. A large size unit is chosen particularly for export oriented plants. However, problems during the distribution phase arise particularly in the developing countries due to the lack of infrastructure in agricultural areas where fertilizers are consumed. These problems are bound to increase in the future, considering the increasing amcunt of fertilizer.

Recently a new_philosophy has been introduced concerning the possibility to locate several small plants up (e.g. 100-200 tpd ammonia) near the various centres of consumption regions rather than a large unit installed centrally. This can be important for the countries that have sources of raw ~aterials such as small fields of natural gas, oil or coal spread throughout the countrv.

In this connection it is suitable to think to set of siall size fertilizer plant located near to the source and, possibly, in the middle of an agriculture region instead of very large plants located in an industrial area.

As for the <u>ammonia capacity</u>, in the last 15 years the processes have been developed and gradually improved by steam reforming _of natural gas and naphta in plants using centrifugal compressors. Standard designs have evolved for three capacities: 550-600, 1000 and 1350 tpd. The great majority of new plants built in the last ten years have been designed for one of these three units. The large size unit is sometimes used in locations where site development costs are high.

For constructing of smaller ammonia plants, China has a wide-range experience. For more than two decades over 1200 small scale nitrogenous fertilizer plants have been built, each producing 5000-20000 tpy of ammonia, and in most cases

using anthracite as raw materiai. There were more than i300 such plants in operation in 1980 and they have supplied about 55 % of the total ammonia production in China in that year. Besides, China has imported thirteen 1000 tpd units from abroad since the beginning of the seventies.

An engineering firm's data can be also cited by ray of illustration. Ammonia Casale SA (Switzerland) has built more than 200 ammonia units during the course of its sixty years' activity in this field, varying in caµacity between 10-1000 tpd, for a total of more than 20000 tpd. During the last fifteen years the firm has been established 18 ammonia units in developed and developing areas. Ten of them can be classified into the small-scale category (not more than 250 tpd of ammonia) and three of them are large tonnage units. each has a capacity of 1000 tpd ammonia.

In pursuance with the next list, according ta data of Snamprogetti (Italy) having wide experiences in urea technology, the firm has built some small-scale urea plants with capacities ranging from 100 tpd to 300 tpd.

As shown from this list the locations are not concentrated in a typical area, but spread over several regions of the world. This means that trend is generalized and not only the result of particular and local conditions.

In the Table 3.1-1 the ammonia capacities of the world by main regions is shown dividing them into three ranges: small, medium and large-scaie units.

Table 3.1-1

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Number of ammonia plants

(1977)

Source: "Market Study of Mini-fertilizer Plants for Developing Countries". $\mathcal{L}^{(1)}$ \sim $Prepared$ for UNIDO by Shu Lin Pe ng, Sept. 1982

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From the data in Table 3.1-1 it can be seen that an overwhelming number fall5 under the small-scale category. This is a result of the special development tendency in China. Excluding the plants located in China, it can be seen that a lot of small-scale units are in operation but they were built in the 1950's. Since the beginning of the 1960's the capacity sizes have been increasing. As for the highest capacities, many of them have been established in developed areas, many times explicitly for export purposes.

In the phosphate fertilizer industry prior to the decade of 1950's the single superphosphate was the principal phosphate fertilizer all over the world. Later the more concentrated phosphate fertilizers became attractive. .They requires phosphoric acid and therefore, the phosphoric acid becomes the principal intermediate raw material of phosphate fertilizer production, playing almcst such a role in this field (industry) as the ammonia in the nitrogen fertilizer production.

It makes a good case for that in the past few years phosphoric acid has been the source of perhaps 90 % of the phosphate fertilizer production from new capacities and this trend is expected to continue in the foreseeable future.

The history of the phosphoric acid production by wet--process shows a rapid increase in plant size. Plants built in the United States in the period 1915-1930 had capacities ranging from 7 to 35 tpd. In the 1930's with the introduction of slurry-recirculation system and continuous filtration, the unit-capacity increased to over 90 tpd $P_2 O_5$. In 1960 s the capacity size has reached 600 tpd P, Q_5 and later, by the beginning of 1980's, 1000 tpd P₂ O₅ in a single stream.

In Japan where many small phosphoric acid plants a~e still in operation there are 23 phosphoric acid plants. 17 of them have capacities less than 100 tpd and eight of them are under 60 tpd Γ_{x} O₅.

According to a reference list of Nissan Chemical Industries Ltd., the firm licensed about 33 of its own process all over the world. Half of them can be classified into the small-scale category (not more than 200 tpd P_{, 0s}) and ten of them are under or equal to 100 tpd P $Q_{\rm g}$.

Table 3.1-2 shows the existing phosphoric acid capacity in major regions of the wcrld.

The large scale units tend to be-located near the phcsphate rock mines, but in some cases near to source of

sulphuric acid. The majority of phosphoric acid plants are integrated into downstream fertilizer complexes and there are instances where phosphoric acid plants are bui't exclusively for international trade. $\sim 10^{11}$ km

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Table $3.1-2$

Number of existing phosphoric acid plants (1982)

Source: "Market Study of Mini-fertilizer Plants for Developing Countries" Prepared for UNIDO by Shu Lid Peng, Sept. 1982.

Buth large-scale and mini units will be established in the foreseeable future, depending on the local circumstances, not only in global dimensions but in a number of countries where the production both on mini-scale and large tonnage

will be effective.

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Some constraints that is to bu considered in decisions prior to setting up mini-plants are:

- a local narket that would be difficult to supply from a larger but at longer distant plant,
- a limited supply of raw material (s) at a favourable cost and, possibly, not far from an agricultural area,
- severe local conditions e.g. for transporting large, heavy equipment,
- $a a$ small unit can be conceived with simplified and standard process flowsheet, therefore, it is better suited to a region not duly industrialized.

3.2 Nitrogen fertilizers

Ammonia - being by itself an applicable nitrogen fertilizer - is the basic material for all commercial nitrogen fertilizers. However, in the agriculture of developing countries only solid products can be considered. The main types are:

The principal solid nitrogen fertiliiers are ammonium sulphate, ammonium nitrate, urea. Ammonium sulphate is the easiest of the above three to store and handle, and it has the advantage cf containing sulphur which is also a plant nutrinnt. But it has disadvantage5: its low nitrogen content and high acidifying effects. However, because of its acid reaction in the soil, together with its sulphur content, it is still preferred in some alkaline soils and for some crops e.g. tea.

Ammonium nitrate requires strict attention to safety precautions in its manufacture, handling and storage, because it supports combustion and there is, therefore, a fire risk, and under extreme conditions it can act as an explosive. Partly for this reasons it is often sold with limestone as a mixture, so called "calcium ammonium nitrate" 26-28 per cent N. It is well suited e.g. for wheat and it is preferred in colder climates of Europe and Nor·th America.

Urea is free from these hazards. It has some tendency to cake in storage but this can be overcome by suitable treatment and by control of storage conditions. Although agronomically it is a little bit less suitable than AN because of its volatilisation characteristics that highly varies depending on soil conditions, urea has neverthleness become the predominant nitrogen fertilizer. The reason is very simple. The main factor determining the share of the market obtained by each product would be the cost per ton of nitrogen applied to the soil.

Ammonium bicarbonate is very volatile hygroscopic and caking, can be stored only in double-walled bags. Nitrogen loss in application can be high. It is used as fertilizer in the, People's Republic of China only and no experience is available on its applicability in other countries.

3.2.l Ammonia

Manufacturing of ammonia needs large investments and the energy consumption is also very high. The productions cost of ammonia is a decisive factor in the production of all nitrogen fertilizers.

The economy of the ammonia synthesis of the early 1960 [']s was possible due to the reasonable selection of the raw material used for ammonia synthesis gas production and the technology applied as well as the increasing the unitcapacity of the production lina. I '

By the beginning of the 1970's ammonia production with small unit-capacity based on coal (coke) as raw mata ia! and atmospherical gasification, gave way to plants of high capacity, based on steam reforming of natural gas or higher hydrocarbons under pressure all over the world. The lower capacity limit was set by the minimum capacity of the

centrifugal compressors for synthe5is gas *CbOO* tpd ammonia unit at that timei.

The new process based on hydrocarbon steam reforming is characterized by catalytic gas purification (except for CO_2) removal> and high energy recovery, generating high pressure steam for the process and the turbines of centrifugal machines. Ammonia plants of 1000--1500 tpd capacity were built in developed countries using inexpensive natural gas or straight-run naphta. The ammonia or ready made fertilizer were in great part shipped to markets situated usually far away. Low cost feed-stack, booming fertilizer market, rapidly expdnding industrial and economic growth, low cost credits and investment - all contributed to the world-wide concentration of the ammonia production in big units and a highly developed wo~ld market. Process technology was adopted to the technical level of the industrialized countries and gradually became more sophisticated. Highest possible temperatures, pressures and severity were aimed at in the reforming, higher possible capacities in the whole line. No wonder that when developing count~ies having the necessary raw materials followed suite, they ran into troubles. Serious deley and cost overruns in project implementation, low on-stream factors, operational troubles defeated the economic advantages hoped for.

Developing countries having had smaller ammonia plants before and thus possessing enough experienced technical staff and expertise fared much better: when the big units followed the smaller plants more satisfactory records were achieved.

3.2.1.1 The "classic" process of the 1970's

 $\label{eq:2} \mathcal{L}^{\frac{1}{2}}\left(\frac{1}{2}\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1}{\lambda_{i}}\right) \leq \mathcal{L}^{\frac{1}{2}}\left(\frac{1}{2}\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1}{\lambda_{i}}\right) \leq \mathcal{L}^{\frac{1}{2}}\left(\frac{1}{2}\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1}{\lambda_{i}}\right) \leq \mathcal{L}^{\frac{1}{2}}\left(\frac{1}{2}\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1}{\lambda_{i}}\right) \leq \mathcal{L}^{\frac{1}{2}}\left(\frac{1}{$ At the end of 1970's and the beginning of the 1980's the basic technology worked with hydrocarbon feedstock, mainly natural gas. For syn gas production the steam reforming became the must widely used technology. The overall reaction in this process is:

> CH₄ + 0.3035 O₂ + 1.131 N₂ + 1.393 E_2 O = CO_1 + 2.262 NH₃

So the minimum stoichiometric consumption of CH_4 is 583 Nm³ /t NH₃ (4.99 Gcal/t NH₃) and assuming that the totality of the reaction heat can be recovered, the theoretical consumption is 4,45 Gcal/t NH₃ production.

The process is based on pressure steam reforming of natural gas or light hydrocarbons and consists of the following steps:

- Sulphur removal (if necessary)

- steam reforming
- $-$ shift conversion
- $-$ CO₂ removal
- $-$ methanation
- compression
- NH3 synthesis

In the sulphur removal section the natural gas at medium pressure is treated for removal of sulphur and light molecular weight hydrocarbons by activated carbon and/or catalytic hydrogenation with adsorption on ZnO.

The natural gas mixed with steam is heated and passed through a bed of nickel catalyst in the primary reformer. Here the natural gas is reacted at temperatures of approximately 780-800° C with steam.

The heat necessary to this endothermal reactvions is supplied by external heating. The high temperature flue gases pass through a sophisticated heat recovery system.

In the secondary reforming compressed air is added to provide for the necessary nitrogen in a 3:1 volume ratio and to cover the necessary energy to the completion of reforming reactions by the partial oxidation of the combustable components. The exit hot gases enter a high pressure steam boiler and from it pass to the shift conversion section.

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- low temperature shift conversion in order to arrive at a low $(0.1 - 0.3 \%)$ final CO content.

For the CO_2 removal there are numbers of processes available. The three most used systems are based on absorption in water, monoethanolamin or hot potassium carbcnate solution.

The final stage is syngas preparation is to remove CO and CO₂ traces. This is accomplished in a methanation unit.

The gas mixture is compressed and enters to the ammonia synthesis sections where ammonia is synthetized.

The product NH_3 is removed from the system by refrigeration. The non converted gas is returned to the synthesis (synthesis loop). Minor part of the gas is continuously purged to remove the inert content of syngas (Ar, CH_A).

The specific energy consumption is 8.5 – 9 Gcal/t $NH_3.$ The simplified flowsheet can be seen in Fig. 3.2.1/1.

3.2.1.2 New tendencies in ammonia production

The oil crisis, the economic slump, the general shortage of foreign exchange, high transport costs together with the problems encountered with the jumbo plants created a completely new world market situation both in fertilizer products and fertilizer plants (see Chapter 2.2 .)

In this new situation, at the beginning of the 1980's, new tendencies have emerged in the nitrogen fertilizer industry and first of all in the manufacturing of ammonia:

- the price of energy increased dramatically, therefore the process owners had to develop new, energy saving processes, but, now this technical innovation has been directed towards simpler, less sophisticatad processes and equipment, easier to implement and less expensive to operate, therefore more suitable f for developing countries
- $-$ beside natural gas, remaining still the most suitable feedstock for ammonia production, long range perspectivity as well as local conditions imposed a return to the old methods of synthesis gas production using other feedstocks, like coal or electrolytic hydrogen, where intensive R and D work is under way
- the experiences of several developing countries and the above factors focussed the attention on the mini--plant concept.

Process developments

All the process owners are engaged in ar intensive development activity aimed at the reduction of both the investment costs and energy consumption. The indiv \tilde{d} dual situations may differ but the general tendency is simplification and some well known old methods are renewed.

The main features of the new developments (few-of them passed the drawing board stage) are:

> - Reformer: low steam to carbon ratio, mild reforming conditions reduce considerably the heat load, energy requirements, simplify construction, reduce investment. On the other hand, less waste heat is available and a-higher methane leakage results. New energy recovery systems enter, e.g. the new version of the old saturator $-$ dehumidifier loop.

- Gas purification: the higher methane content of the primary reformer exit gas open two different routes: one of them separates the hydrogen in pure form (by PSA e.g.) and the other components are used as fuel gas in the primary reformer. Several purification steps are eliminated but pure nitrogen is needed. The second route uses excess air in the secondary reformer and after the normal purification cryogenic separation of the excess nitrogen either before or in the synthesis loop. For $CO₂$ removal low-energy processes (mainly physical absorption) are used.

- Synthesis: New catalysts, converter constructions led to lower operating temperature, pressure and pressure drop, higher yield. Purge gas recovery systems are used to improve energy efficiency. Serious consideration is given to ammonia separation by absorption in water.

- Energy conservation: ·Gas turbine, absorption re nservation: Gas turbine, absorption-re-
frigeration, Rankine cycle are the most frequently encountered methods to make the process more efficient.

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As a result of the above general tendencies, sevcral new process schemes have been worked out. All of them are well suited in principle for implementation in the developing countries and particularly for mini-fertilizer plants, but only after having been proven on a commercial scale.

A few typical examples of the proposed flow-sheets are summarized here.

A. Excess air - cryogenic separation - gas turbine

In this process, due to the mild prisary reforming, excess air is used in the secondary reformer.·This allows the reformer fue) being considerably reduced and the front-end pressure increased.

Further energy saving is achieved by installing a gas turbine driven process air compressor. The oxygen rich exhaust gases are used as combustion air to reformer burners. Nitrogen exceeding the stoichiometric value is extracted in a cryogenic . ur.it downstream of the methanation section. This gives an additional advantage cf inert-free syngas <Fig. 3.2.1/2).

B. PSA - Rankine cvcle

An other typical process is well suited for use in small ammonia plants and at the same time has an energy requirement comparable with the most efficient large plants. One stage (high temperature) shift conversion, PSA purification and Rankine cycle energy recovery to generate electricity characterize this process, which can be coupled with any synthesis loop.

The total energy requirement of this process is 7.3 Gcal/t NH_3 . Since no CO₂ separation is included, the process cannot be used in cases where the ammonia should be processed to urea.

Only primary refcrmer is used and the usual secondary refcrmer - low temperature shift converter - CO_2 removal and methanation drain is completely missing. After the primary reformer - HT shift converter the product gas is cooled from 400° C to 64° C in a Rankine Cycle with two stages, supplying about 43 % the total electric power re quirements of the process. After cooling, the raw syngas is purified in a pressure swing adsorption unit. The technology uses nitrogen produced on site coming from an air liquefaction unit.

. Ammonia synthesis needs no cold gas exchanger, refrigerated secondary condenser and secondary ammonia separator.

C. Low pressure ammonia loop.

A newly developed highly active ammonia catalyst is the basic feature of the process. Here, the higher methane leakage from the primary reformer and excess air in the secondary reformer giving a non-stoichiometric syngas composition is used to operate at the front end at a pressure considerably higher than usual. Hydrogen recovery from the purge gas, in a cryogenic system at the synthesis loop pressure (80-100 bar) makes possible to ioperate with low inert content in the loop and a higher efficiency per pass. The energy consumption is between $7.2-7.5$ Gcal/t NH₃. (See $Fig. 3.2.1/2.$

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Alternative feedstocks .

On a world-wide scale the nearly monopolistic position of the natural gas as the most economic raw material for ammonia production seems to be assured at least for· this decade but probably even for the next one. Even the high natural gas price rises coupled with a depressed ammonia market are not able to tilt the balance in favor of coal or other alternative fuels. Substantially higher investment and processing costG more than offset the lower fuel costs. But in given local conditions, especially in developing countries, these feedstocks can present a real alternative or even the only feasible route for ammonia production.

Competitive, up to date well proven processes are not commercially available in the developed countries, governments and interested companies in view of the not so distant future where hydrocarbon will not be available or only at high costs deploy considerable R and D activity in the processing of different fuels for syngas, SNG and synthetic fuel production.

This situation can create favourable conditions for the developing countries: it is reasonable to expect that the processes now in pilot plant or demonstration plant stage will reach commercial maturity in the next few years and will be available as proven methods for the mini-plants on sites where natural gas is not accessible.

From the point of view of the mini-plant concept only two alternative feedstocks have to be considered: coal (and heavy residues) and electrolytic hydrogen.

Coal as raw material for NH₃ production is not a new idea. Pricr to the Second World War nearly all synthetic ammonia production was based on coal (or coke). Most of the mini-plants realised in the People's Republic of China in the last twenty years rely also on coke or anthracite. Leaving out of consideration the old, less efficient. processes, like the blue water gas method, several gasification processes have been used commercially. All of them use oxygen and can be classified according to three different parametars:

- pressure

- $-$ temperature and
- reactor type.

Pressure. All old processes, except the Lurgi one worked under atmospheric pressure. The necessary compression work up to around 30-40 bar, the usual starting point in natural gas based plants adds another serious economic disadvantage to the aiready heavy burden of the coal based ammonic production. Texaco and Shell have commercial processes for the qasification under pressure of heavy fluids (residues) but for solid matter, like coal, even in experimental stage, only slurry (coal suspended in water) can be considered. Nevertheless, intensive research work is going on to adapt other technics like the Winkler and Koppers-Totzek to medium pressure operation. However, no commercial plant exist

Temperature. Among the processes, low temperature and Wigh temperature ones can be found. Low temperature gasification is easier, naeds simpler equipment, but the gas produced contains many inconvenient impurities also a high proportion of methane. Expensive and often corrosive purification steps must be used. The "ash" leaving the reactor contains endugh combustible matter for making mandatory its utilization in some boiler facility.

High temperature gasification can produce a raw syngas free of tar and similar products with acceptable methan content, but poses serious equipment, construction material, dosage (burner) and ash problems. Solid ash removal (under the melting point of the ash) and slayging processes are equally used. Even at the highest temperatures (1500° C) good gasification efficiency can be expected only with reactive coal types.

Reactor. Conventionally there are three basic categories:

- fluid bed reactor (Winkler process)
- fixed or slowly moving bed reactor (Lurgi process)
- entrained bed reactor (Koppers--Totzek and Texaco processes).

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All processes are heavily dependent on the coal quality. Therefore a general assessement of the individual merits and disadvantages cf the different processes would be futile, all the more that all processes are in reality yet in the development stage, even if several of them can refer to realised and operative commercial plants. Therefore in this study no individual description of the different processes will be given. Instead one high temperature entrained fed coal gasification and a heavy oil gasification process will be presented telow for illustration only.

High temperature entrained bed coal gasification <under pressure)

Coal slurry is qasified under pressure (20-100 bar). Typical gas composition from the process:

The flow diagram of the process is in Fig. 3.2.1/4.

Heavy ojl gasification

The flow scheme of the process appears in Fi9.3.2.1/5. The preheated oil, oxidant (oxygen or enriched air) and steam are mixed in the combustion chamber and fed inta reactor. In the autothermal reactor the partial oxydation of the relevant part of the fuel provides the necessary heat for the raforming and cracking reactions at temperatures 1000° C - 1600° C. The product gas leaving the raactor carries a great amount of sensible heat. Where gasification is performed with oxygen, about 2.8 t of steam are produced in the waste heat boiler for every ton of oil gasified. The carbon content of the crude gas leaving the boiler is eliminated by a special water wash system yielding pumpable carbon slurry and virtually carbon free gas. For further purification tc male ammonia syngas the usual adopted process will be adopted.

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New possibilities of coal gasification

for mini-plants

Autothermal partial combustion was always performed with either pure oxygen <95-98 %) or enriched air (around 50 % O_{1}), although the reaction could have been carried out with normal air also. In this case, however, the nitrogen introduced with the necessary quantity of air could be far in excess of the 3:1 hydrogen-nitrogen ratio needed in the final syngas. The new ideas described above (working with excess air in the secondary reformer and eliminate the surplus of nitrogen by partial condensation) could be applied also to the partial oxidation of coal, relieving this process from the necessity to build and operate an air separation plant, a heavy burden for mini-plants in developing countries. This process has not yet been tested, but economic appraisal is promising. The flowsheet is very simple: (Fig. 3.2.1/6) entrained bed non-catalytic partial oxydation under pressure with preheated air and steam, heat recovery, removal, shift conversion, desulphurisation, CO_2 removal (eventually in one step), drying (molecular sieve) and condensation of the excess nitrogen could deliver a pure syngas to the ammoni? synthesis. The cold produced by the expansion of the condensed nitrogen to atmospheric pressure could cover the cooling energy needed for this condensation. The process could be applied for other feedstocks, too.

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Ammonia from electrolytic hydrogen

Water electrolysis as a basis for ammonia production can be compatitive only where abundant and cheap electric power is available. $\mathcal{F}_{\rm{max}}$

The n itrogen requined is produced by air separation. Although the hydrogen is very pure, its very small content has to be removed by means of catalytic combustion.

Comparing to the production of ammonia from hydrocarbon feedstock this route is much simpler and does not contain any complicated process steps operating at high temperatures and pressures - apart from the ammonia synthesis unit, which is the same for all processes. Nevertheless, the investment costs are high. Recent development works on new electrolytic cell types (membrane) are promising: it seems reasonable to expect competitive investment costs in a few years time. On the other hand the very high energy consumption: 10 MWh/t NH₅ will remain in the same region: more than $20-30$ % saving seem not possible to achieve. This, calculated with a factor of 2700 kcal/kWh means 27 Gcal/t NH₃, roughly three times more than the value of 8-9 Gcal/t NH3 usual for nowadays plants.

,Electrolysis under pressure, another field of R And D activity would save the energy needed for the compression of hydrogen.

In any case, this process will never be competitive if power is produced in a thermal power plant. Where hydroelectric power ls available at low cost due consideration should be given to this alternative. The calculations showed, that only if electric power is avaiiable far 3-14 dollar/MWh can this method be competitive.

In this connection, it is necessary to emphasize that an ammonia plant must be built for several decades of operation. In some cases at a remote location a hydroelectric power plant is built and at the beginning no industrial user is there and electrification of the country seems rather remote. In this situation e.g. an ammonia plant is built on chean electrolytic hydrogen. In a few years time accelerat.d industrialisation and electrification takes place and a shortage of power results. The newcomers can afford to pay substantially higher prices for the power than the ammonia plant, so this latter either must follow suite and

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become uncompetitive or bear the cost and inconvenience to convert the plant to some other feedstocks. Several de veloping countries (e. g. Egypt) had experienced this situation.

Mini ammonia plants

The general situation of world economy, the currency problems, transport costs, exoerience in developing countries with either jumbo or mini-plants, the recent developments etc., justify to seriously considere the mini-plants as a viable alternative for the developing countries entering in the fertilizer production field.

The concept of mini-plant in the case of ammonia pro duction means today a plant capacity of 100 to 250 tpd, in spite of the fact that these capacities were considered as big units in the 1950's.

The new develcoments described above are favourable for the mini-plants: higher specific costs would occur if the same flowsheet was used. Simplifications Clower steam pressure, less. demanding BFW specifications etc.) can more than offset these higher costs. Reciprocating compressors are more expensive, but have better efficiency. So it became possible to devise new flowsheets for mini-plants having competitive specific parameters with the big plants. These flowsheets will be worked out in detail and proven commercially only if the interested contractors will be persuaded that an adequate market justifies the expenses involved. Nevertheless even now, on the basis of the information gathered it was possible to present two alternatives. The first is presented for a 150 tpd plant, the other for a 250 tpd one. The capacities serve only as examples, since around these values the economics will change only slightly. It must be emphasized, that these are not "chosen" or "recommended" fix capacities, but serve only as examples for the economic calculation. Any other capacity around this values, say between 100 and ~50 tpd can be realised. It seems tha' the first, less efficient (higher energy consumption) flowsheet (the classic one without sophisticated heat recovery system) is more justified for smaller units, while the second, represented on Fig. $3.2.1/7$, using many of the new ideas would be more easily adapted to the higher half of the capacity range of mini-plants.

This flowsheet promises better performance than the majority of 1000 tpd plants operating at the moment, in spite of simplified design with saving on erected costs and with all electricity generated internally. The water system is similarly simplified so that water treatment is confined to few grams per day of une::pensive chemicals.

The ammonia plant is designed to use dry natural gas which is heated and desulphurized over zinc oxid catalyst system. Then steam is added to give a molar steam: carbon ratio of about 2.75:1 before entering at 490• C the reformer. Process air without preheating is then added to save heating cost in secondary reformer which is followed by two stages CO shift. The heat available after secondary reformer is used to raise 45 bar steam. For acid gas removal the MEA washing is chosen for excellent performance and for column of moderate dimensions. After compressicn the methanation of the remaining CO is performed and after cooling the gas is dried befcre mixing with unconverted loop gas at the entry to the circulator. The ammonia loop is very simple. The converter feed is heated to 255° C pefore entering a single bed converter.

Heat is recovered as 45 bar steam for hot gases leaving the converter. The cooling, respectively chilling is in two stages to condense out the product ammonia.

The total energy requirement of this process is The total
8.3 Gcal/t NH₃.

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Technical and econgmic evaluation

In order to assess the competitiveness of the mini- -plants, battery limit investment and specific consumption figures were computed, based on the available information for

> - three capacities 150 tpd 250 tpd 1000 tpd ammonia

three feedstocks natural gas fuel oil coal

These values, summarized in the Table 3.2.1-1 ser *1ed* for the economic appraisals. $\sim 10^{-1}$

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Using the process data of Table 3.2.1-1 and the method descrited under Chapter 1.1, the following results were obtained for the ammonia production (Details and calculations
can be found in Arnex 3/1).

[~]Total investment costs including offsites and the derived total specific investment costs are summarized in Fig. ~ 2.118 and 3.2.1/9.

Factory gate costs (including 15 % ROI) of ammonia production per ton of NH₃ are presented for the different alternatives in function of the feedstock prices (calculated in Dollar/Gcal) in Fig. 3.2.1/10.

Ammonia cannot be considered as a fertilizer in the developing countries, therefore no price was computed.

Table 3.2.1-1

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Evaluation General

1) Taking into account the generalized approach based in factors and not on actual conditions the results should be considered as tendencies and approximations and relative values not as exact figures. This is valable through all this study.

Specific investment

2) The advantage in favour of the big plants is still at the developed site, although not really observable significant. In all other cases the differences can be safely considered to fall within the accuracy limits. For developing countries mini-plants will not involve bigger capital costs as the same capacity realized in big units.

At remote locations, the most probable sites for mini--plants, these can be realised with less specific investment as big units at the same site, but will still cost nearly two times the specific investment of a big plant in a developed site.

3) Feedstock has a strong influence on the investment roughly the same effect on all sites and cost. with capacities.

Production costs

4) Preduction costs of the mini-plants at remota site is competitive with the big plants at the same site and the advantage in favour of the big plant in developed countries is less than the transport costs.

5) Feedstock price has a strong effect on the production costs, but capital costs are decisive: coal based processes can be competitive only with one tenth of feadstock price (on heating value basis).

150 and 250 MTPC $6)$ The big differences between capacity plants reflect not the effect of the capacity factor but that of the flowsheet. Many improvements and development introduced into the bigger capacity flowsheet are not considered in the smaller one. It can be supposed, that the smaller plants - if chough demand will justify it $-$ will undergo similar technical improvements and will arrive at nearly the same-level of competitiveness as the 250 MPD plants.

3.2.2 Urea

The industrial-scale manufacture of urea from ammonia and carbon dioxid involves two separate reactions. Initially the two reactants combine to form ammonium carbamate, from which a molecule of water is then eliminated to give urea.

> $CO₂$ + 2NH₃ $\frac{1}{2}$ NH₂ COONH₄ NH1 COONH"t---- CO <NHi. >J.. + Hl. 0

The reaction is carried out in a reactor operated under p ressure $-$ at least 100 bar $-$ and at an elevated temperature in excess of 160° C.

In a typical reactor only about $60-70$ % of the stoichiometric mixture of ammonia and carbon dioxid will be converted to urea. It is necessary to separate product urea from unreacted carbamat in the solution leaving the reactor. This is done by decomposing ammonium carbamate to carbon dioxid and ammonia. The main differences between the different processes lies in the method used for this decomposition. The old once- -through and partial recycling processes are practically not used any more, only different versions of the total recycle process and mainly the stripping methods can be considered ·for 1 new plants.

 $\overline{}$ In the total recycle stripping processes $\overline{}$ NH $_{\bf 3}$ or CO $_{\bf 2}$ or both can be used as stripping agent.

Stripping at synthesis pressure reduces considerably the onerous ± 1 uid pumping operations and greatly improves the heat recovery. Stripping with $CO₂$ was first used, followed by ammonia and two steps, ammonia and $CO₂$ stripping methods.

Practical plant capacity are between 300-1700 tpd and the technological processes are in this capacity range assentially the same.

The Fig. 3.2.2/1 shows a typical total recycling etripping process. At the synthesis condition ($T = 180^{\circ}$ C, f : 150 bar) the carbamate producing reaction occurs rapidly and does to completion. The urea reaction occurs slowly.

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From the reactor the mixture flows to the steam heated stripper, where, as stripping medium CO, is introduced to decompose the unreacted carbamate and the gases are fed ta the carbamate condensers, while the solution flows to the rectification tower and a heater where at 3-4 bar pressure the remainder of the carbamate is decomposed. The gases condensed will be recycled, while the urea solution.will be evaporated and the water free melt prilled in the prilling tower.

The urea plants have to be located at the same site as a corresponding sized or larger ammonia plant since the ammonia plant supplies not only ammonia but also the high purity carbon dioxyde.

Based on this new idea, complex ammonia-urea flowsheets were developed and tested in pilot plants, where the CO_2 removal is realised using an ammonia solution in water and the resulting liquor is introduced directly in the urea production. Since it does not seem advisablg to propose far developing countries commercially not proven processes, this method was left out of consideration.

Based. on a typical urea process, far this study, three plant sizes were considered, corresponding to the ammonia plant sizes selected in Chapter 3.2.1; 260 tpd, 440 tpd and 1700 tpd urea respectively. The main battery limit investment and consumption figures computed are summarized in Table 3.2.2-1, while the total and specific investment ~osts and factory. gate prices in Fig. 3.2.2/2 and respectively Fig. 3.2.2/3. The detailed calculation can be found in Annex 3/1.

Taken into account the approximative nature of the data and methods used, it can be concluded, that the differences between the capacities are within the accuracy limits. Neither for specific investment costs, nor for factory gate prices, no economic disadvantage can be deduced for the mini-plants against the big units on the same sites.

The much more marked differences caused by the raw material used and its price reflect only the ammonia price movements.

For the nitrogenous fertilizers it seemed advisable to consider the economic conclusions together for all of them. Therefore farm gate prices and evaluation wi'l be found at the end of chapter 5.2 $(3.2.7)$.

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3.2.3 Nitric acid

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

: Nitric acid is produced from ammonia in three steps: - combustion of NH• with air on catalyst, according tn the **following equation to nitric oxide**

 $4 \text{ NH}_3 + 50_1 = 4 \text{ N}$ + $6 H_2 = 216 \text{ kcal}$

 \sim oxidation of nitric oxide to nitrogen dioxide

 $2 \text{ NQ} + 0_1 \longrightarrow 2\text{NQ}_2 + 27 \text{ kcal}$

:absorpt1on of the nitrogen dioxide in water to make nitric acid, usually 50-68 % strength according to the reaction:

$$
4 \text{ NO}_2 + D_2 + 2H_2 + D_3 + 4 \text{ HNO}_3 + 0.9 \text{ kcal}
$$

Low pressure is advantageous for combustion of ammonia because of.low catalyst consumption but it is unfavourable for the absorption because of the low concentration of the product. acid, the low efficiency of absorption and high NO content in the tail gas.

The available processes fall in two main groups:

- single pressure processes and

- dual pressure processes.

· . . ,· *1.i.* • In the single pressure processes, combustion, oxidation and absorption all take place under the same pressure. According to the pressure chosen, high pressure (7-15 bar) and medium pressure processes (2.5-5 bar) are available.

In the dual pressure processes the oxidation pressure of NH_4 is held between 2.5 - 4.5 bar. At this pressure the burner dimensions are appreciably reduced compared with atmospheric pressure operation but the conversion of NH_3 is nevertheless high, of the order of 97 7..· Consumption of platinum remains as low as at 100 mg/t HNO3. The oxidation and absorption of nitrous gases are carried out at a pressure between $7-15$ bar. It is possible to achieve yields of 99.5 % in the absorption stage within the economic limits on absorption column size. This yields corresponds to a residual nitrogen oxide content in the tail gas of 500 ppm by volume, but it is possible to design plant for tail gas concentrations as low as 200 ppm without catalitic tail gas treatment, by extending the absorption system.

We give here a typical flow sheet $(Fig. 3.2.3/1)$ for a dual pressure nitric acid plant.

The specific consumption data are practically independent of the capacity.of the plant.

There is no .general rule for the choice of process conditions careful consideration of local conditions will decide. Small capacities as well as the very big ones give soma. preferences to the single pressure processes.

Table 3.2.3-1 summarizes the average values for three different sizes (always corresponding to the ammonia plant sizes) for battery limit costs and specific consumptions. Fig. $3.2.3/2$ summarizes the total and specific investmant costs for the same sizes. Here also can be seen that the advantage of the big plants exists only at developed sites: for sites lacking the neressary infrastructure even the specific capital costs are on the same level for both big and small plants.

Nitric acid being an intermediate product, evaluation will be given for the product fertilizer only.

Table 3.2.3-1

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3.2.4 Ammonium nitrate and CAN

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Although the latest ten or twenty years showed a net tendency toward urea, the renewed interest in small scale plants put ammonium nitrate in the fore front.

The particular features which can effect this tilt in favour of AN, especially for small capacity are:

- $-$ the process is completely independent of NH $_{\rm g}$ production (the urea production needs $CO₂$ too).
- The scale factor of the investment and operational cost of both nitric acid and AN plants are more close to the linear relationship as e.g. that of urea, therefore fer the AN process route the scale down is more advantageous <mark>– or at least less</mark> disadvantageous.
	- Both nitric acid and AN process allow for wide flexibility: instead of pure AN, CAN (calcium ammonium nitrate) NP and NPK fertilizers can be manufactured in the same plant.
	- Transport ceels which are 35 % higher for AN than urea have lzss weight with small plants serving local market, than with large export oriented plants.
	- Storage and bagging problems are less marked with mini-plants.

Industrial AN production includes two subsequent steps. Weak nitric acid is first reacted with NH₃ and by partial or complete utilization of the heat of reaction, the water content of the weak acid is evaporated to produce a melt.

This melt is in the second step solidified and granulated either by prilling or by some other granulation. technique.

In the first step the individual industrial processes differ in the choice of reaction conditions (temperature, pressure, heat utilization) and construction details. The aim .
is to achieve max. heat utilization and/or-assure safe operating conditions.

The second step is identical with any other granulation technique. Prill1ng, pan or drum granulation can be equally used.

Large capacities give preference to the prilling methods, the medium ones to the drum granulations while the small ones usually tend to use the pan technique.

The ammonium nitrate melt as it leaves the previous section can be mixed with calcium carbonate to give calcium- -ammonium nitrate (CAN), a product with variable N content, less prone to caking, less acidifying to the soil and considered in some countries to be less hazardous.

Fig. 3.2.4/1 represents a typical AN production process.

For small scale plants important capital cost savings can be achieved by simplified flowsheets since the extensive heat recovery systems are not justified and even small material .losses can be tolerated without any pollution problems.

The battery limit investment costs and specific consumption figures are summarized in Table 3.2.4-1, while Fig. 3.2.412, while Fig. 3.2.4/3 give the total and specific investment costs, factory gate prices all for the usual three capacity cases. Detai\s can be found in Annex 311.

Report Follows

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3.2.5 Ammonium-bicarbonate

China has built many small-size ammonia plants producing ammonium bicarbonate as fertilizer. The integrated ammonium bicarbonate process is used where the removal of carbon dioxide from synthesis gas and processing ammonia is integrated into a single step. So it is possible to obtain a solid nitrogenous fertilizer - ammcnium bicarbonate directly from ammonia without further manufacturing process.

While ammoniu. bicarbonate may be regarded less favourable than other nitrogen fertilizers, this production requires less equipment, less investment costs. The technical expertise and training required by operating personal need not be as great either as the plant is substantially less complex and easier to operate.

In the first process step the anthracite is gasified with air and steam above 1000° C and after heat recovery, cooling and dust removal the gas produced is fed to a desulphurization section in which hydrogen sulphide is removed using aqueous ammonia. The gas leaving the desulphurization section is scrubbed with water and compressed to -7 bar before the CO is converted to CO₁ and H₂ at 400° C in a high temperature shift converter.

 $\texttt{CO}_{\textbf{\textit{1}}}$ is removed from the gas next in a carbonation $\,$ tcwer $\,$ by reaction with concentrated aqueous ammonia. This produces a suspension of ammonium bicarbonate crystals which are 5ubsequently separated and recovered as product.

The carbonation process is comparatively simple and the equipment required is easy to manufacture.

The Chinese experiences demonstrated that these ad vantages are more than offset by the storage, handling and packaging difficulties over 25000 tpy ammonia capacity which they consider as the upper limit for the economic implemention of this process.

This small size (less than half of the lowest capacity considered in this study) and the fact, that ammonium bicarbonate was not yet used as fertilizer outside the PRC, and according to the recommendation of the Lahore.conference (1), extensive agricultural testing is necessary before any definitive apinion could be formed over the applicability of this product in other countries, this study do not attempt to asses its economic advantages over the other products.

3.2.6 Ammonium sulphate

Synthetic ammonium sulphate is produced from ammonia and sulphuric acid. The reaction is very exothermic and therefore the heat recovery is a decisive factor in the process economics.

A process problem is the control of the ammonium sulphate crystal size. Regulating the water evaporation and the slury circulation rate give the necessary combination of cooling/evaporation effect and slurry parameters for optimum crystal size formation.

Ammonium sulphate is also produced from coke oven gas as a by-product. Many of the bituminous coal used in coke production contain 1-2 % nitrogen and appromimately 15-20 % of this quantity is recovered as ammonium sulphate. Another source of by-product ammonium sulphate is the production of caprolactame, basic material for nylon fibres.

In the past years ammonium sulphate, once a prefr fertilizer has lost much of its attractiveness. A \mathbf{I} sulphate production for the developing countries c. be economic only when local sources for sulphur are availuale.

(1) Seainar on aimi fertilizer plant. Lahors, Pakistan. 15-20 November 1932, organized by UNIDC.

3.2.7 General assessment

Figures $3.2.7/1-2$ sum up in a more complex way the data for the two most important fertilizer products: urea and ammonium $nitrate$, giving the compounded investment and production costs.

Figures 3.2.7/3 and 3.2.7/4 represent the farm-gate prices in the developing countries for each-case-investi gated.

These prices include, above the value at factory gata <calculated with 15 per cent R.O.I.>, also the distribution costs from the factory gate to the farmer, with the cost factors and values indicated in Appendix 3/1. Here, however, it was necessary to consider also the possible dimensions of the distribution area (which depend on the plant capacity) and also the level of fertilizer application, i.e., the amount of fertilizer used per 1 ha.

It has been supposed that a small plant has a distribution area of 100 km in didmeter and the big plant, 300 km in diameter. The graph shows also the farm gate prices for imported fertilizer in a region of 100 km, and 300 lm dia.respectively; these prices have been deducted from the costs of a European natural gas based big plant (natural gas price 50 and 100 US Dollar/10³ m^5) respectively, increased by the costs for sea freight, plus in the case of remote location, road transport costs finally distribution costs characteristic for a supply region of identical dimensions.

Thus, it may be read from the graph whather the fertilizer costs at farm-gate are similar, better *or* less advantageous than those of imported fertilizers.

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Total /T.i./ and specific /Sp.i./ investment costs for various Pig. 3.2.7/2 assonic -nitric asid- assonive mitrute complexes

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Conclusions

1> It can be seen that the costs of the products from mini-plants <farm-gate basis> are competitive with the imported goods, when based on natural gas.

2) Ammonia from other feedstocks gives fertilizer products with higher farm-gate costs as the imported ones (which are based evidently on natural gas) but are still less expensive from local mini-plants as from big central plants.

3) Ammonium nitrate production needs higher investment and therefore has higher production and farm-gate prices than urea in every case investigated, but the differances tand to become smaller with decreasing capacity.

4) Although a generalised, average based calculation cannot produce exact figures for given actual cases, the above results demonstrate unequivoca'ly that mini-fertilizer plants can be competitive both witn imported products and with big plants erected in the country.

3.3 Phosphate Fertilizers

Introduction

Phosphate rock can be processed by different routes: by physical methods or by chemical treatment. Sulphuric acid or nitric acid are used for this purpose.

Physical. methods (e.g. thermo-phosphates), will be successful only with a small category of phosphate rocks. Most ores require chemical treatment.

The nitric acid route is not convenient for the mini- -plant concept: the necessary investment is higher, the saphisticated process poses the highest challenge on the operating personal and the product is unfavourably limited in the N:P ratio to minimum 1:1; higher phosphorus content is not possible. Water solubility - although a much discussed propriety - is also limited.

Sulphuric acid based processes are simple, easy tc install and run. Therefore, for the purpose of mini-plant study, only sulphuric acid route will be considered.

The two important basic-products are sulphuric and phosphoric acid. The sulphuric acid is needed in phosphate processing plants either for phosphate processing plants or for phosphoric acid production or a basic raw material for normal superphosphate production. On the other hand, phosphoric acid is the basic raw material for all the other processes.

Three different process lines are discussed in the study.

.
The first consists of sulphuric acid and normal (single) superphosphate (SSP) processes. superphosphate (SSN) processes.
sulphuric acid plant with a capacity of 200 tpd (66000 tpy). onsists of surphuric acre when he can
(SSP) processes. The basic unit is the surpheric acto plant with a capacity of the finance of the capacity of normal superphosphate (SSP) plant is defined inc expactly of normal consumption: 500 tpd (160000 tpy), $single$ superphosphate. $\begin{array}{ccc} \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \end{array}$

The second . process line involves sulphuric acid. The second process line involves surphum it assets
phosphoric acid and triple superphosphate (TSP) processes; and in this case the phosphoric acid plant is the basic unit.

The third process line includes the sulphuric $acid$, phosphcric acid and ammonium phosphates processes; phosphoric acid plant is the basic unit in this case, to .

According to the process lines described above, the main

types of phosphate fertilizers are the following:

The capacity considered for the phosphoric acid plant is 200 tpd (66000 tpy), defining the capacity of the other plants; sulphuric acid (600 tpd), TSP (500 tpd), MAP (375 tpd), DAP (425 tpd). Consequently, the plants with the above mentioned capacities will be considered in this study as mini-plants.

In contrast with the nitrogen industry in the whole phosphate industry mini-, small, medium and big plants operate all over the world and new projects are implemented continuously with every possible capacity. The process flowsheet and equipment used are similar; only a few simplifications can be observed with the smaller sizes. It is only the phosphoric α cid plant where with the modern up-to-date technics require a minimum size (although this is also flexible) for competitiveness. In SSP and TSP production the process equipment represents only a fraction of the battery limit capital costs: material handling and storage are the main factor. Therefore the scale factor is very close lo the linear.

The capacities considered are thus typical examples only and any capacity justified by local conditions can be adopted. The economics influencing the 3 decision will be dealt with at the end of the relevant chapter.

3.3.1 Sulphuric Acid

This is the basic product for any phosphate fertilizer production. While rock and ween the raw material for this acid production can be imported, acid itself must be locally produced.

As it was mentioned earlier, a mini-plant with a capacity of 200 tpd (66000 tpy) is considered for the normal superphosphate line and another with a capacity of 600 tpd (200000 tpy) to supply the phosphoric acid plant. Raw materials may be:

- Elementar Sulphur or
	- Pyrites or
	- Non-ferrous metal ore processing.

The last case can be excluded from the mini-plant concept, since the capacity of the sulphuric acid plant will be set by the quantity of the by-product gases of the ore processing unit.

3.3.1.1 Elementar Sulphur Based Sulphuric Acid Process

The molten sulphur and dried air are introduced into the sulphur furnace (Fig. 3.3.1/1), where the sulphur burns with the oxygon to form gaseous sulphur dioxide, with the liberation of considerable heat. The hot gases leaving the furnace pass directly into a waste heat boiler, which generates high pressure steam and thereby cools the gases.

The cooled gases pass in the converter, where sulphur dioxide in the presence of air is converted to sulphur trioxide. The gases leaving the converter are cooled and introduced into the absorption system, where the sulpnur trioxide is absorted in sulphuric acid. Water is added to the circulating acid to control the concentration of the acid.

Product acid is withdrawn from the circulating system and will be available for further use.

Since similar techniques are used for the production of various sulphide ores, and for mini-plants, acid from practically only pyrite can be taken into account. This study will discuss a process typical for use of pyrite (Fig. $3.3.1/2$.

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3.3.1.2 Sulphuric Asid from Sulphide Ores

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The pyrite is roasted to form the sulphur dioxide, and the gases must be cooled down for further treatment. Then follows dedusting of the gases, hereafter the gases pass wet scrubbing and cooling. Further steps are drying, conversion and absorption of the gas.

The solid raw material containing several impurities and giving a gas charged with solids imposes a purification system which is much more complicated, difficult and expensive as the very simple one used with brimstone feedstock. This and the ore and roasted calcine handling and storage equipment involved raise the battery limit capital costs for a pyrite based process to two and a half times cf that of an elementar sulphur based plant.

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Table 3.3.1-1

Battery limit costs and consumption figures for

sulphuric acid production based on sulphur

(developed site>

Product: Sulphuric Aci¹ (100 % H_2 SO₄)

 \mathbf{L}

$Table 3, 3.1-2$

Battery limit costs and consumption figures for

sulphuric acid production based on pyrite

(developed site)

Product: Sulphuric acid (100 %, H_2 SO₄)

l,

Economic evaluation

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Table 3.3.1-1 and 3.3.1-2 summarizes the specific con sumptiun and battery limit capital costs for the two
capacities envisaned respectively the two feedstocks. capacities envisaged respectively the two Fig $3.3.1/3$ represents the total and the specific investment costs. Detailed data and calculation can be found as usual in Appendix 3/1.

It seems to be reasonable to suppose that the supply of sulphuric acid needed for the production of phosphate fertilizers can be ensured only by a local plant, in order to avoid the heavy freight costs for the transport of the sulphuric acid.

Sulphur itself has been, however, not unconditionally considered to be a local basic material <under this aspect, the occurrence of raw phosphate is decisive); therefore, it has been considered in the calculations with its price (and not at the extraction costs). The definition of sites and the mode of calculation is the same as with the ammonia plants.

Since none of the two calculated capacities can be qualified as a big plant and their operating technology is identical, the specific investment cost for the tigger plant shews on every site a decreasing trend, although the absolute value will of course be higher in a developing country. than in an industrially developed one. .

Since the production of sulphuric acid from pyrite always involves substantially higher capital and operating costs which can be compensated only by lower feedstock prices, this study considers that the choice of the feedstock must be made in the first steps and pyrite can be selected only when, due to the inexpensive raw material, sulphuric acid can be produced at lower, or at least at the same price as from elementary sulphur. It seemed therefore better to avoid unnecessary complications, that is why different phosphate fertilizers will use sulphuric acid plants based on elementar sulphur.

Fig. 3.3.1/3 Total (T.i) and specific (Sp.i.) investment costs

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3.3.2 Normal (Single) Superphosphate (SSP) Process

Normal superphosphate (SSP) was, for many years by far the most popular phosphate fertilizer. Since the mid- -fifties, however, this popularity has been in a sharp decline and only in the past few years this rate began to slow-down.

Normal superphosphate can be manufactured in small irexpensl~e plants with low production costs. The process is simple and easy to operate requiring less sulphur per ton of $F_4 G_5$ than the production of phosphoric acid. The combination of low investment and simplicity together with recognition of the deficiency of sulphur in many soils assures that SSP production will remain competitive, especially for mini-plants, where the small distribution area reduces considerably the difference in transport cost5.

The two raw materials used in the production of SSF are 65 to 75 % sulphuric acid and ground phosphate rock. Tha basic chemical reaction is shown by the following equation:

> Ca_{5} (FO₄)₂ + 2 H₂SO₄ + 5 H₂O = = 2 CaSO₄ . 2H₂O + Ca $(H_1$ PO₄ $)_2$. H₂O

The interval of fluidity before the two reactants solidify is very brief and the mixture is quickly transferred to an enclosed space referred to as a den. This den may be either an essentially stationary structure or a continuous slow moving conveyor. In the den the matarial becomes relatively quickly plastic. During this phase there is a copious evolution of obnoxious gas as the crystallization process progress.

Retertion time in the den can range from 1 to 4 hours depending on the overall process conditions. At the end of this time. the material becomes a porous mass resembling a honeycomb and is removed from the den to storage. A storage period of 3 to 8 weeks is required for curing tefore the SSP is an acceptable product for snipment. The curing time serves to allow completion of the chemical reaction between the rock and acid with the subsequent decrease in free acid and citrate insoluble P_2 Og-content.

Fig. 3.3.2/1 gives a typical flowsheet for an SSP plant. Table 3.3.2-1 contains the battery limit costs and specific consumptions for the capacity case chosen <500 tpd SSPl. Economic evaluation will be found in paragraph 3.3.4 together with the other phosphate fertilizer products.

Table 3.3.2-1

Battery limit cost and consumption figures

for run of pile SSP production

(developed site)

 SSP (18 % P_1 Q_2)

3.3.3 Phosphoric Acid and Derivatives

Phosphoric acid is the basic intermediate from which the most important phosphate fertilizers are made. Consequently, the capacity of phosphoric acid plant will define the proof all derivatives. Besides that its duction capacity sulphuric acid consumption will define the capacity of sulphuric acid plant which will supply the phosphoric acid plant. As it was mentioned earlier, the capacity set for this study was 200 tpd (66000 tpy) calculated in P₂D₅.

As it will be seen in the economic evaluation, although it is not considered as appropriate to introduce the concept of minimum economic size, it seems to be a lower limit for the phosphoric acid route, below which the SSP will be definitely more economic. This limit depends, as usual, to a great extent, on local conditions, but for the purposes of this study it seems reasonable to set it at 200 tpd.

3.3.3.1 Wet-process Phosphoric Acid Manufacture

Phosphoric acid is the basic building block from which all concentrated phosphate fertilizer is made. The overwhelming majority of this acid is manufactured by the wet process method. The process solubilizes the phosphate rock with a strong acid. Sulphuric acid is being by far the most commonly used acid.

Besides the "classic" di-hydrate process, the newer hemihydrate and the modified hemihydrate processes are offered in slightly different proprietary versions by contractor and process owners.

Di-hydrate Process

Phosphate rock is mixed with sulphuric acid to 50-70 % H₁SO₄ concentration in an attack vessel of sufficient size to retain the raw material mixture for several hours. The simplified overall chemical reaction is represented by the following equation:

> 3 Ca₅(FO₄) + 9 H₂ SO₄ + 18 H₂O = = 6 H₃FO₄ + 9 CaSO₄ . 2 H₂O

Following the reaction in the digester, the mixture of

phosphoric acid and gypsum is pumped to a filter which mechanically separates the gypsum crystals from the phosphoric acid solution (approximately 30 % P_2 Osconcentration). For each kg of P_1 O₅ as phosphoric acid approximately 5 kg of gypsum ·is produced. Normally the gypsum must be disposed of.

Phosphoric acid produced with a concentration of 26-30 'l. fi. *0\$* is concentrated to 54 7. *Pt_05* by evoporatian in a shell and tube heat exchanger and a flash chamber under vacuum with high rate internal circulation.

In Fig. 3.3.3/1 the flowsheet of the dyhidrate process can be seen.

Phosphoric Acid Clarification

Phosphoric acid concentrated to a 52-54 *i.* Pz. *⁰ ⁵*level becomes a supersaturated solution to a variety of minor acid impurities, namely iron and aluminium phosphates, soluble gypsum and fluosilicates.

The process, which involves only physical treatment of the acid for removal of precipitated solids from 54 % P_2 O₅ phosphoric. acid is cheaper, than the more complicated and expensive solvent extraction processes. The precipitated impurities are physically separated from the acid by settling and/or centrifugation.

In our case, when the acid is used at the same site for further processing to fertilizer products, the clarification step is usually omitted without diverse effect in the further processing.

Hemi-hydrate Process

The conventional hemi-hydrate process produces 30 % P ¹ 0s acid in a reaction system in which the by-product calcium-sulphate is precipitated first as hemi-hydrate $(CaSO_4$. 0,5 H₁ O) and is then re-crystallized to di-hydrate $(CASO₄$. 2 H₂O) before filtration.

The main advantages of this process! high recovery of P_2 O_5 from the phosphate rock; good quality of by-product gypsum, suitable far gypsum wall board, plaster and cement; many types of phosphate rock can be used.

Modified Hemi-hydrate Process

This process is developed from the hemi-hydrate process. In this case the hemi-hydrate is separated from the product acid by filtration before re-crystallization to di-hydrate. The main advantages are that it produces a high strength $(45-50$ % $P_1 O_5$) acid without concentration, and has a higher efficiency of conversion of phosphate rock.

Evaluation

Table 3.3.3-1 gives the battery limit capital costs and the specific: consumption figures for the dihydrate process. The higher recovery of the $P_2 O_S$ in the rock and the better quality of the by-product gypsum of the two other processes must be paid for with higher investment costs, and more severe corrosion problems, but only a few plants were realised, and therefore no exact data are available.

In the following calculations only the classic: process will be considered.

For the capacity chosen (200 tpd f_k O_s) the following total investment costs were calculated for the different cases:

The production costs for 1 t of $P_1 \square_5$, including also 15 % of R.O.I., will be discussed in the paragraph dealing with final fertilizer products.

Table 3,3,3-1

Battery limit cost and consumption figures

for phosphoric acid production

<developed site>

Product: Phosphoric Acid (100 % P_1 0₅)

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3.3.3.2 Triple Superphosphate (TSP) Manufacture

Triple superphosphate (TSP) , with its 46.0 to 48.5 % P_5 Content, is a high analysis phosphate fertilizer. As such. it provides transportation economy which can be instrumental in enlarging its share of the phosphatic fertilizer market.

This product has taken over much of the market lost by SSP and accounts for approximately 24 % of the total phosphatic fertilizer market TSP⁹s share of the market for the near future is expected to remain relatively constant primarily because of the tremendous growth of the ammonium phosphates. TSP production unlike SSP, can be most economically produced close to the phosphate rock source. The basic chemical reaction is shown by the following equation:

$$
Ca_{3} (PO_{4})_{L} + 4 H_{3} PO_{4} + 3 H_{2} O = 3 Ca (H_{2} PO_{4})_{2} \dots H_{2} O
$$

The ROP process is essentially identical to the SSP process with the exception that phosphoric rather than sulphuric .acid is used as the acidulating acid. Mixing of the 46 to 54 % P₂ O₅ phosphoric acid and phosphate rock normally is done in a cone mixer. On discharge from the mixer the slurry quickly (15 to 30 seconds) becomes plastic and begins to solidify. Solidification together with evolution of much obnoxious gas takes place on a slow moving conveyor <den> enroute to the curing area.

At the point of discharge from the den, the material passes through a rotary mechanical cutter which breaks up the honeycombed ROP . before it discharges onto the storage (curing) pile. Curing occurs in the storage pile and takes 2 to 4 weeks before the ROP is ready to be reclaimed from storage, sized and shipped (Fig. 3.3.3/2).

This product can be brought to granular form in a separate granulation plant, where usually ammoniation or even compound fertilizer production takes place, too.

Direct granulation of Triple Superphosphate

When granular TSP is the desired end product or only low concentration acid is available it is usually preferable
to p.oduce it directly. Two general types of direct directly. Two general types of direct granulation processes are available: ex-den and slurry granulation.

In the ex-den process after acidulation and denning (similar to the previously described process) drum granulation, drying, screening follows <Fig. 3.3.3/3).

In the slurry process (Fig. 3.3.3/4) forty per cent $P_2 O_5$ acid and ground phosphate rock are mixed together in an agitated tank. The lower strength acid maintains the resultant slurry in a fluid state and allows the chemical reaction to proceed appreciably further toward completion before it solidifies.

After .a mixing period of 1 to 2 hours, the slurry is distributed onto recycled dry GTSP material. This distribution and mixing witn the dry GTSP takes place in either a pug-mill or rotating drum. Slurry wetted TSP granules then discharge into a rotary drier where the chemical reaction ls accelerated and essentially completed by the drier heat while excess water is being evaporated. Dried granules are sized on vibrating screens. Over- and $~\text{uncirc}$ rsize granules are separated for use as recycle material. Product size granules.are cooled and conveyed to storage er shipped directly.

Fig. 3.3.3.13 Direct Granulation of Triple Superphosphate

Evaluation

Granulated fertilizers have higher production cost due to the higher investment costs but they also have their advantages in long distance shipping and application in mechanised farming.

Mini-plants are meant for less developed agricultural regions, where the advantages of the granulated product can hardly prevail. The disadvantages of the direct granulation process: higher investment and operation costs restricted choice of raw materials (unreactive rocks cannot be used) higher $P_1 O_5$ loss do not allow this process to be taken into account for mini-fertilizer plant purposes.

In the following therefore only ROP TSP production will be considered.

Table 3.3.3-2 summarizes the main technological data. while the total investment costs and factory-gate production costs are represented in Fig. 3.3.4/1 and 3.3.4/3.

Economic evaluation will be dealt with together for all phosphate fertilizers in Par. 3.3.4.

Battery limit cost and consumption figures

<u>for ROP TSP</u>

(developed site)

TSP (46 % R 02)

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3.3.3.3 Ammonium Phosphates

The ammonium phosphate fertilizers are highly con centrated sources of watersoluble plant food which have had a spectacular agricultural acceptance in the past twenty years. Froduction capacity of di-ammonium phosphate (DAP) has increased at a compound rate of $19,8$ % annually over the last ten years. The popularity of the ammonium phosphates results from a combination of factors.

These include the ready adaptability of the production processes to even increasing single-plant capacities with their associated lower production costs; favourable physical characteristics which facilitate storage, handling, shipping and soil application; compatibility with all common fertilizer materials; transportation economies effected by the shipment of high nitrogen (18 %) and phosphate (46 % P_r O_c) nutrient ccntcnt. Such impressive number of plus factcrs insure that ammonium phosphate processing will continua to be an important segment of the fertilizer industry.

Ammonium phosphate fertilizers include a variety of different formulations which vary only in the amounts of n itrogen and phosphate present. The most important ammonium phosphate fertilizers in use are:

Diammonium phosphate formulations are produced in the largest tonnages with OAP (18-46-0) being the most dominant.

The two primary raw materials used to produce ammonium phosphates are ammonia and wet process phosphoric acid.

As mentioned above, the various grades vary only in the amounts of nitrogen and phosphate present. It is primarily the nitrogen that varies and this is accomplished by $controlling$ the degree of ammoniation during neutralization of the phosphoric azid. The chemical reactions involved are indicated by the following equation:

 $H_4PO_4 + NH_3 = NH_4H_2PO_4$

The processing steps are essentially identical to those ~escribed in the triple superphosphate GTSP process <FIG. 3.:.3/5). Ammonia~ either gaseous or liquij, is reacted with 30 to 40 % $P_2 O_5$ phosphoric acid in a vertical cylindrical vcs5el which may or may not have mechanical agitation. The resultant slurry is then pumped to a mixer where it is distributed onto dry recycled material.

Distribution and mixing takes place in either a pugmill or rotating drum. Wetted granules are discharged into a rotary drier where the excess water is evaporated. Dried granules are separated for use as recycle material. Product size granules are cooled and conveyed to storage or shipped direct!y.

There are several new processes, using either the TVA pipe cross reactor, a pressure lreactor or a two-fluid nozzle for the reaction between phosphoric acid and ammonia. These p rocesses need no drier and cooler and are $-$ usually connected to a prilling tower for granulation. (See one example in Fig. 3.3.3/6l. They.are however, less flexible: in contrast ta the previously described one in that they cannot be used for TSP production.

The advantages of MAP and DAP are less marked or even without any use far the mini fertilizer plant concept: low transport costs are of minor importance, high analysis product is disadvantageous in applications with low nutriant dosage.

Table 3.3.3-3 and 3.3.3-4 summarize the specific consumption and battery_ limit capital costs for these two products. Evaluation will be found in Par. 3.3.4.

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Battery limit cost and consumption figures

for MAP production

(developed site)

Mono-ammonium-phosphate MAP (1/2 % N + 52 % $P_1 Q_3$)

Battery limit cost and consumption figures

for DAP production

(developed site)

Di-ammonium-phosphate, DAP (18 % N + 46 % P₁ O₅)

 $\sim 10^{-1}$

3.3.3.4 Superphosphoric Acid and Ammonium Polyphosphates

Superphosphoric: acid is produced by concentrating merchant-grade ortophosphoric acid (54 % P , Q_c) in a vacuum or atmospheric concentrator. The superphosphoric acid usually contains about 68 % to 70 % total P, O_S , of which 20 % to 35 % is present as polyphosphate. Essentially all of the polyphosphori<mark>c acid content of w</mark>et-process su<mark>perphos</mark>phoric acid is in the form of pyrophosphate; the remaining phosphate is present as ortophosphoric acid.

Conversion to superphosphoric: acid increases the cost. but with long shipping distances generates freight savings that reduce or eliminate this disadvantage. This acid is very viscous when cold and must-be kept-constantly at a temperature of 60° C at all times during transport and storage so as to keep it sufficiently Fluid.

The superphosphoric acid is used first of all for the production of ammonium polyphosphate. Nowadays, a number of plants use the pipe reactor process <developed by TVA) to manufacture this product.

The superphosphoric acid is weighed upon $arrival$, i \in s temperature is adjusted and then is sent to the unit store,
which is also kept at a constant temperature of about 60° C. The superphosphoric acid pumped at a metered rate from storage to neutralization.

One kind of pipe reactor processes uses a separate mix tank and an evaporative cooler. The mix tank is used for mixing the hot melt from the pipe reactor with the recirculating liquid. By having a separate mix tank it is possible to maintain a high liquid temperature of $B2^{\circ}$ C, which enhances mixing of the melt in a liquid form and also provides excellent means of evaporating and superheating the anhydrous ammonia used in the proe reactor.

The plants with the separate mix tank usually produce an ammonium polyphosphate liquid of slightly higher $poly$ phosphate content than the other methods. Probably one reason this occurs is because of the high temperature of the ammonia used in the pipe reactor.

Ammonia that is not added to the pipe reactor is usually added as liquid ammonia to the mix tank. Usually about 60 % of the ammonia is added to the pipe reactor and 40 % to the mix tank. This tank is equipped with a s small scrubber in which cooled ammonium polyphosphate is used to scrub the extra gases from the mix tank.

A considerable amount of 10-34-0 is used fer direct application, but most of the ammonium polyphosphate liquids (10-34-0 or 11-37-0) are used in small mix plants to produce NPK mi::tures. The ammonium polyphosphate can be applicated in solid form, too.

Equipment used to apply liquid fertilizers are rather expensive, require a highly sophisticated agricultural background, therefore, the application of this kind of fertilizers in the developing countries, for the moment, is not a real possibility. Therefore no economic evaluation was attempted.

3.3.4 Economic evaluation of phosphate fertilizers

Capacity

According to the 3.3 Introduction section, only two selected capacities for H , SO_4 and one size for all other products were examined. Since scale-up has no effect on the proce3s, specific consumption figures remain essentially the same for all capacities in the mini-plant range and battery limit investment figures can be extrapolated by the usual formula with $a = 0$, e as exponent. Therefore the figures computed for the sizes selected will only be improved, when bigger mini-plants will be considered.

For the sizes selected Figs. $3.3.4/1$ and $3.3.4/2$ summarize the total and specific investment costs for different locations. Fig. 3.3.4/3 give the production cests for the same alternatives in function of the phosphate rock price. Fig. 3.3.4/4 shows the farm gate prices for the same cases compared to the imported products. Calculation methods ere identical with those mentioned for ammonia. Details can be found in Annex 3/1.

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From the diagrams it is obvious that the farm-gate price of the mini-plant product will be in every case by far the most advantageous.

Although investment and factory gate production costs were not calculated for big size plants, the import prices used as reference level for farm-gate price comparison reflect the cost level of the big production units, since exported good come mainly from these plants.

The very big differences between SSP and TSP production underline the conclusion that for mini-plants the right prc duct is SSP. $\omega=2$

The more sophisticated MAP and DAP involves even higher investment costs and seem not very appropriate for m!ni- -plants in developing countries.

NPK plants can form a viable alternative only if ammonia, nitric acid and phosphate processing facilities are on the same site - a case seldom encountered.

3.4 Granulation, Bulk blending and Bagging

3.4.l Granulation

As we have seen, the chemical process used for the $p \sim o$ duction of nitrogenous fertilizers deliver a melt (sometimus with suspended solids) and therefore an adequate finishing step is necessary to arrive at a solid product needed in most agricultural uses. The phosphate fertilizers on the contrary can be produced in powder or in slurry form. The slurry must be processed to arrive at a solid product, which will be granules and the powder can also be transformed to this form. For that reason, since the 1950's the solidification and cooling of the melts produced in the nitrogen industry was considered as an integral part of the processes involved and prilling gained nearly universal acceptance for this purpose.

The word, granulation, was reserved ta the phcsphate field where drying was the basic operation involved, to eliminate the water content carried in the slurry or added in powder granulation.

Pan-, drum- and pug-mill type granulators were used for this purposes.

In the last few years drum and pan granulation technics gained more and more acceptance in the nitrogen industry both for urea and ammonium nitrate and several new methods were developed which are equally suitable for both type of products. NPK fertilizers $-$ equally new products $-$ can be made in similar equipment from some phosphate, ammonia and $nitric$ acid. All this seemed to justify a common treatment of all granulation technics in a single chapter.

3.4.1.1 Prillinq

The wide use of priling is due to the advantages of this 5ystem, in particular the great daily producticn capacity of the equipment, low labour and exploitation costs.

Prilling is the production of a \hat{q} anular solid by allowing molten droplets to fall through a gaseous cooling medium. Non-viscous homogeneous materials with well-defined melting points, such as pure ammonium nitrate or urea, ara very ea§ily prilled.

To obtain hard and non-porous prills, the water content must be reduced below 0,5% as otherwise a porcus. low-density product results which is troublesome in storage. Jets af free-falling molten materials are broken up ta droplets by the air. The droplets begin to solidify as they fall through the cooling medium. The crystallization starts at the surface and prngress gradually to the inside.

The prilling device and melt temperature must be carefully controlled. The retention time in the prilling towur is also important factor. The proper design of the tower height and cooling air flow are essential to obtain completely hard prills at the bottom. The still hot prills arriving at the bottom must be collected and transported to the finishing, and cooling may alsc be needed.

The prilling tower itself is a structure supporting the prilling equipment placed on the top, together with fans providing the necessary air stream. The main characteristics of the tower are the height determining the ratention time. the cross-section fixing the capacity and the air stream.

The not completely satisfactory granulometric composition is the drawback of this system. Prills are relatively small; in practice most are around 1 mm and only a small proportion arrive near to 2 mm.

Prilling is very advantageous for big capacities. At the lower end specific investment cost begin to rise to such an extent that other granulation technics become more advantageous.

3.4.1.2 Pan Granulator

This principle, which had been widely used in the pharmaceutical industry was developed for superphosphate granulation and was extensively used in the phosphate industry~

Number of companies made considerable improvements, and the process lends itself for making granular ammonium nitrate and urea. Granulation is accomplished by spraying hot concentrated melt of fertilizer salts onto a cascading bed of recycle material in a pan granulator.

The granulated product is cooled and is sized in conventional equipment. The oversize fraction from the screen is crushed and returned with the undersize fraction for use as recycle material. The correct size product is treated with an appropriate conditioning agent and sent to store. Critical features of the pan granulator for best operation include slope, rotational speed, location of spray. concentration, and the amount, particle size and temperature of the recycle material.

3.4.1.3 Drum Granulator

The classic drum granulator consists of a slightly inclined rotary cylinder with retaining rings at each end and with appropriate matarial structures.

The basic materials must be well mixed before entering the drum, which serves only to form the granules; these are rounded at the bottom of the drum by their contact with each other. The speed of rotation of a drum granulator must be slow enough for the granules not to be carried around by centrifugal force since the principle of this system is that the granules should move relative to the drum.

Depending on the residence time required, drum granulators may be mounted with a downward slope up to 3°.

Drying and cooling are both needed after granulation, so a typical granulator train consists of a drum with two sections, the first serving for mixing and chemical reaction, the second for granulation, followed by a drier and cooler both of drum type.

A basic feature of the drum granulator system is the great amount of recycle material. Not only over- and undersize material, but a given part of the product must be recycled depending on the water content of the input materials for optimum granulation drying conditions.

This process can be combined with ammoniation of phosphates (SSP or TSP), NPK fertilizer manufacture etc., as well as for granulation of SSP or TSP powder. Fig 3.4/1-3 represents the respective flowsheets for TSP granulation, ammoniation and NPK manufacturing.

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 $\mathbf{I}% _{0}\left(\mathbf{I}_{1}\right)$ 146.

3.4.1.4 Spheredizer

Hot Spherodizer Progess

The process was conceived in an effort to simplify the processes in use for the granulation of complex fertilizers and to improve product quality. The major innovation of the spherodizer process consisted of combining granulation and drying into a single processing operation.

By this process, the conversion of liquid slurry to uniform granules is accomplished by spraying the slurry under pressure through nozzles onto a dense curtain of recycled material cascading from lifters in a rotating cylindrical drum. A stream of heated air flows through the drum co-currently with the solid recycle and the sprayed slurry, coming into intimate contact with the particles to be dried. As droplets of slurry hit the recycled granules, water is flashed off, resulting in new onion skin-like layers of material around each of the solid particles every time they are cascaded.

The remainder. of the flowsheet is conventional, with screens to separate the product size, crushers to reduce oversize, and elevators and conveyors to transfer the solid materials.

This process was identified as the "Hot Spheradizer Process" to distinguish it from the one using only cooling air for the granulation of melts, which came to be known as the "Cold Spherodizer Process".

Cold Spherodizer Process

The cold spherodizer process is used in the granulation of ammonium nitrate and urea. A substantially anhydrous melt of either ammonium nitrate or urea is sprayed-inside-a rotating drum onto a rolling bed of solid particles. As the particles roll, they are repeatedly coated with thin layers of liquid melt, which solidify to give the granule an onion-skin structure.

Air flows through the granulation drum in countercurrent to the granules, removing part of the heat of crystallization of the melt, as well as the fine dust. From the drum it is drawn by an exhauster into a wet scrubber-before-being discharged to the atmosphere.

3.4.1.5 Pugmill

Mixing and granulation in the same equipment is achieved with a double-shaft granulating screw, called pugmill or blunger. The pugmill is followed by a drier, a cooler and screening.

The crushed oversize product is combined with the undersize product and the mixture is recirculated in a controlled ratio in the cold and dry state to the pugmill. The hot fresh slurry mixed with the recycle product gives soft balls with a moisture content of 3-6 %, depending on the recycle ratio and the amount of water in the slurry.

Only partial crystallization and no moisture elimination takes place in the pugmill and therefore the suft balls must be dried in a rotary drum by hot air, cooled in a cooling drum and then screened.

Evaluation

For the mini-plant concept, due to the conditions prevailing in the regions favourable for the small size, the pan, respectively drum granulation seems more appropriate for nitrogenous fertilizers, due to the relatively high investment cost of the prilling power. For phosphate fertilizers it seems appropriate to start with non-granulated material (powder) and switch over only at a given degree of agricultural mechanisation to the granulated form.

3.4.2 Bulk Blending

General

Where granulated fertilizers should be blended, bulk blending is very advantageous. The process is usually of the batch type, with a minimal capacity of 1 to 2 tons per batch. The mixing time is 2 to 3 minutes, consequently as much as 10 to 20 tons per hour easily can be mixed. Depending on the working days of a year (approximately 100 days) the production will be about 10000 to 20000 tons per year.

Procass Des<u>cription</u>

The material commonly used in bulk blending are ammonitim nitrate, ammonium sulphate, triple superphosphate, diammonium phosphate and potassium chloride. Other materials sometimes used are urea, ammonium phosphate nitrate (30-10-0), ammonium phosphate sulphate (16-20-C) and normal superphosphate.

The materials should be closely sized, dry enough to prevent caking in storage, and sufficiently strang to prevent fragmentation in handling.

Type of mixers and layout of storage, conveying and mixing facilities vary widely, so much that probably no two plants are alike. Since the plants are small and quite often built on a very limited budqet, they tend to be homemade.

Mixing is usually of the batch type, with materials introduced one at a time from a weight hopper. Usual capacity is 1 to 2 tons per batch and mixing time is 2 to 3 minutes. As much as 15 tons per hour can be mixed even in a one-ton mixer. In some cases the entire cycle or weighing, mixing and discharging is done automatically.

Mixers are mainly of rotating drum type, but various other types including ribbon mixers, mixing s crews, gravit; mixing towers and a volumetric metering device are used. The volumetric metering device is a continuous type in which materials are feeding by gravity through adjustable gates onto a common belt. The materials mix as they flow into the receiving hopper and in the following cut-screw conveyor.

Evaluation of Bulk Blending in the Distribution System

Until the emergence of bulk blending in the early 1960's, mainly in the USA, traditional distribution of fertilizer involved the movement of bagged fertilizers, from medium sized production plants producing between 25000 and 200000 tons per year of mixed fertilizers, to farm buyers, through general retail farm supply organizations.

However, in the early 1960's the advantage of bulk handling of fertilizers became apparent and the emergence of bulk blending developed quickly.

In bulk blending, a few basic high analysis materials containing single nutrients (or, in the case of ammonium phosphates, both nitrocen and phosphorus) are shipped in bulk form to retail bulk blending units. Here they are combined physically in mixtures suited to the particular needs of individual far<mark>mers. Thus, at no point</mark> in-the distribution chain are the materials handled in any but bulk form.

With t<mark>he availability of a wide variet</mark>y. Of blends of the three nutrients at the retailing station, the demand for basic product shifted from the chemically mixed fertilizer materials to major blending materials such as ammonium nitrate, triple superphosphate, diammonium phosphate, and muriate of potash.

As this mode of distribution developed, many of the major manufacturers developed their own organization of bulk blending stations, thus emerging as the direct seller to the farmer. A typical large fertilizer organization might develop a chain of 100 to 200 such bulk blending stations. These would typically handle from 1000 to 5000 tens cf material per year and generally sell within a radius of ¹⁵ miles.

Advantages of bulk blending can be summarized in the following: (1) bulk blending shortens the marketing channel by combining the mixer and dealer functions; (2) handling and distribution costs are less for bulk material than for bagged $product$; (3) bulk. blending reduces handling costs by eliminating. the transfer from producer to dealer; (4) shipping distance of materials such as potash is shortened because the material goes directly from primarily producer to the mixerdealer rather than detouring to a granulation plant; <5> a custom application service can be offered; and (6) the bulk blender, through his close contact with the farmer, can work with agricultural advisors in guiding the farmer's use of fertilizer. Assistance with scil testing and sampling is an important part of such a service.

Although this system is conceivable only as part of national fertilizer highly soohisticated supply and application chain and only countries with fairly developed agriculture can adopt it, it has its bearing on developing countries, too. The network initially developed in early stages of fertilizer production and distribution, composed of mini-plants and local dealers storage facilities can be easily transformed without any major change or investment. Local stores can be provided with bulk blending facilities with very little cost and the new, or expanded phosphate fertilizer production units can produce granulated products, while the nitrogen is already manufactured in granulated form. The use of drum or pan granulation in the early miniplants is advantageous, the particle size is particularly suitable for bulk blending.

3.4.3 Bagging

Although as .much as possible of fertilizer output is dispatched as bulk, sometimes provision must be made for a significant amount of bagged product as well. Since bagging is a process with extremely high labour requirements, a fully automated line has been developed for this purpose.

Another question much debated is whether to use valved or cushion type bags. The latter are less expensive, prevent spillout, and protect the material much better: but weld sealing is difficult because of the fertilizer dust. The valve bags are more expensive and are not airtight, but they require no welding. Either type is available, according to the local conditions.

As compared to bulk goods, the handling of bagged fertilizers are much more labour-consuming operations.

Bagging in the mini-plant size range should be definitely discouraged for phosphates and limited even for nitrogen fertilizers. Anyhow, bulk storage and direct shipping to the plot is one of the most attractive features of mini-plants for the agriculture.

3.5 Potash Fertilizers

Potash, a major plant nutrient, is found in significant commercial deposits, as well as in less quantities in various brine operations. The principal potash mineral being mined is murate of potash (potassium chloride), and sulphate of potash. Both can be used as mined (after some refining) directly as fertilizer materials.

A mindr amount of the potash, perhaps 10 %, is used far various non-fertilizer uses, such as in the production of potassium hydroxide, refined potassium salts, and other misc~llaneous potassium chemicals. Fertilizer potash is used either directly as a fertilizer or as a raw material far the production of mixed fertilizers.

The $principle$ potassium compound is the potassium chloride which is produced from natural brines and from sylvite ores. In the former case there are no hazardous wastes for disposal since the spant brine is returned to the well, which constitutes recycle. In the sylvite $preczz$, the ore is mined, crushed, screened, and wet-ground in brine to dissolve most of the soluble salts.

In the sylvite ore-based process the ore is separated from clay impurities in a desliming process and the clay impurities are fed to a gravity separator which removes some of the sodium chloride precipitated from the leach brine and insolubles for disposal as waste.

After desliming, the ore is chemically treated in preparation for a flotation process, where potassium chloride is separated from sodium chloride. The tailings from the flotation step are .wasted and the resulting potassium chloride slurries are centri4uged to recover potassium $children.$ The product is then dried, screened and packaged. The liquors from the centrifuge are reaycled to the flotation circuit.

The potassium sulphate is produced by the reaction in solution of potassium chloride with langbeinite ore $(K_1$ SO_A . MgSO_A). Mined langbeinite is crushed and dizzolved in water to which potassium chloride is added. Partial evaporation of the solution results in selective precipitation of potassium sulphate which is recovered by centrifugation or filtration, dried, and sold.

Generally this material is produced close to areas where it is mined.

4. IDENTIFICATION OF POTENTIAL MARKETS FOR MINI-FERTILIZER PLANTS

The world's ability to supply food depends on the following main factors:

- availability and use of natural resources including land
- weather
- water condition in the soil
- technological and biological development for raising yields
- equilibrium between crop and livestack production accomplished with increasing efficiency
- incentive ta producers.

Although the world as a whole is clearly not running out of land, there are serious problems about its availability and suitability for agricultGre, especially among some of the develpping countries. The major problem facing many of the developing countries is not the limitation of land, but the low yields. Therefore, yield increasing technclogies are to be the primary Eource of growth in focd production.

Fertilizer use is one of the key factors in yield increases. To supply the ever increasing need of fertilizer in the developing countries, there are three means available: domestic productjon, importation, and combination of the two in any ratio. The domestic pruduction can be done by setting fertilizer plants up. Taking into consideration the special circumstances in many developing countries, it can be stated that one or more mini-fertilizer plants of certain types and dimensions will better meet the requirements of those countries than one or more so called maxi--plants.

In order to be able to estimate the demand for mini--fertilizer plants, it is necessary to investigate the potential market for mini-plants.

Investigation and evaluation of the potential fortile izer markets by countries and regions were made in this chapter, surveying:

- $-$ the quantity of fertilizer consumed at present
- the forecast of the potential fertilizer consumption up to 2000
- raw materials' potential (resources)
- numbers and capacity of mini-fertilizer plants that might be built to the turn of the century in the developing countries.

The main sources for preparing this chapter were:

1. Dpportunities for establishment of mini-fertilizer plants in the deveioping countries Sectoral Working Paper Series, Sectoral Studies Branch, Division for Industrial Studies, UNIDO 1983.

2. Data collected from FAD statistics:

- "Agriculture toward 2000"

Input Requirements: production, consumption, export, import figures from 1970/71 to 81/82 by nutrients and by type of fertilizers

- [~]Fertil!zer Yearbook 1981
- Data of Jand use by countries.
- 3. Other sources reported in each case.

4.1 Identification of countries according to the quantity of fertilizer consumed

The intensive use of fertilizers as a mean to increase agricultural production has become a general practice in the world, first of all in the developed countries. As for the developing countries, their consumption of the three nutrients was about 1 million tons in 1950, amounting to"7.4 per cent of the world consumption. Their share has reached the fifth of the whole world by the fertilizer year 1971/1972 and in 1981/1982 the developing countries required more than 38 million tons fertilizer nutrients, amounting to one third of the world consumption (Table $4.1-1)$.

Table $4.1-1$

Sources: FAO Statistics collected from FAO Statistics Division;

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Market Study of Mini-Fertilizer Plants for Developing Countries prepared

September 1982 for UNIDO by Shu Lin Peng

Using FAO Statistics, the developing countries, about 123 in numbers, were classified into consumption categories, according to their annual consumption of Nitrogenous (N), Phosphate $(P_2 O_5)$ and Potassium $(K_2 O)$ fertilizer in 1976/77 and 1981/82. Seven classes were made for N and six for P_1Q_5 and K_2Q_7

. As for the data of types of fertilizers, beside the total consumption in nutrients, the main types of N and P₂ O₅ fertilizers can be found for some countries that publish them into FAO statistics.

The countries were arranged in groups by regions. AI though, all the consumption data are available in 1976/77 and 1981/82 for 123 of developing countries in Appendix 4/1, the number of countries was reduced to 91 in the further considerations. They are the developing countries that were examined in "Agriculture toward 2000" by FAQ, and China.

The regions and the developing countries studied are the following:

AFRICA

Central Cameroon, Angola. Central Africa: $\mathsf{Replace},$ Chad, African Congo, Gabon, Zaire East and Burundi, Kenya, Ethiopia, Southern Africa:

Costa Rica,

Madagascar, Malawi, Mauritius, Mozambique, Rwanda, Somalia, Zambia, Uganda, Tanzania, Zimbabwe

LATIN AMERICA Central America:

Caribbean:

South America:

Guatemala, Honduras, Mexico, Nicaragua, Panama Republic, Dominican Cuba, Haiti, Jamaica Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Colombia, Ecuador, Chile, Feru, Faraguay, Guyana, Suriname, Trinidad a. Tobago, Uruguay, Venezuela

El Salvador,

NEAR EAST

Egypt, Libya, Sudan N.E. Africa: Afghanistan, Cyprus, N.E. Asia:

FAR EAST South Asia:

East and

South-East Asia:

Iran, Iraq, Jordan, Lebanon, Saudi--Arabia, Syria, Turkey, Yemen AR, Yemen PDR

India, Nepal, Bangladesh, Pakistan, Sri Lanka

Indonesia, China, Burma, Korea DPR, Kampuchea DM, Laos, Republic, Korea Malaysia, Philippines, Thai $$ land, Viet Nam

In Tables 4.1.-2, 4.1-3 and 4.1-4 the developing countries summarized by regions concerning to the above list can be seen according to \cdot their consumption categories of N and P_6 O_5 and $K_2 O_5$ respectively. It can be stated that more than one third of the examined countries consumed less than lvOOO tpy N and 60 per cent of them could not reach the level of 40000 tpy N that refers to a mini scale unit capacity (150 tpd) for ammonia. On the other side a large number of them consumed more than 100000 tpy N even 14 countries were over 200000 tpy N including China, India, Mexico of which consumptions rose above million tpy N.

As for the phosphate fertilizer, half of the countries were below a consumption level of 10.000 t $P_2 O_5$ and at the same time 13 of them consumed more than 100000 tpy P_5 O_5 . It is clear that there is a strong degree of polarization in the consumption of nitrogen and phosphate fertilizers. This manifestation is, however, not evident in the consumption of potassic fertilizer.

In Table 4.1-5 the participation of the main regions in the consumption categories can be seen separately for the three main nutrients. Generally, the African countries can be found in the low-consumption categories, except for the case of phosphate consumption. In this case their participation are also important in the high-consumption categories due to some countries having large phosphate rock deposits and developed phosphate fertilizer industries.

In another classification including 92 develcping countries (Appendix 4/2), although, the considered countries and the category-ranges do not correspond exactly with the ones above mentioned, the conclusions are the same. Here a forecast of classification for 1986/87 and the foreseeable changes in each category are made.

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Table 4.1-2

Share of the developing countries, according to the consumption categories

Remarks: The 91 of developing countries that projection of consumption to 2000 have been made for are included

 $X - \text{countries in number}$

 $\boldsymbol{\beta}$

Share of the developing countries, according to the consumption categories of P₂05 fertilizer, by regions

Remarks: The 91 of developing countries that projection of consumption to 2000 have been made for are included.

 $X - \text{countries in number}$

Table 4.1-4

 \bullet

Share of the developing countries, according to the consumption categories
of K20 fertilizer by regions

 $/1981/82/$

Remarks: The 91 of developing countries that projection of consumption to 2000 have been made for are included.

 $X -$ countries in number

Table 4.1-5

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Regional distribution of consumption categories (1981/82) (%)

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4.2 Identification of countries according to their agricul tw-al potential

Among the most prevalent ills affecting mankind are famine and malnutrition. The latter, although harder to define and overcome than the former, afflicts a very large proportion of population in developing countries.

The existence of malnutrition is usually explained by combination of three main factors in the developing ccuntries: insufficient food, lack of some essential nutrients in the diet, genetic or environmental preventation of adequate food digestion.

The simplest food cycle is to grow plants and eat parts of them. However, as food consumption patterns differ widely from one region to the ether, the farmers have adopted their food production systems accordinqly. Farming systems are characterized by the dominant craps, that have emerged in each area as result of ecological, biological, economic and social factors in the society that gruws the crops. The most important single objective in farming is to increase crop yielq and agricultural productivity.

The .factors that determine agricultural yield are complex for the photosynthetic potential of the plants. This potential is usually limited by elements such as nutrients, moisture and climate. The major source of plant nutrients is the mineral supply of the soil. This supply varies with the type of soil and ecological conditions in the area and accounts for large differences in fertility between temperate, tropical and arid soils.

Following farming, sooner or later the organic matter content of the soil will decrease ta a level at which as much nutrient should be added as have removed by the biomasse. The use of fertilizers is a key factor for restoring and also increasing of fertility of the soil. However, fertilizers alone cannot produce substantial crop yield increases without highly efficient seeds, improved
acricultural acastices ats agricultural practices atc.

The forecast of fertilizer use, in this manner, is to be decided upon by considering numerous criterias like it has happened in the study "Agriculture toward 2000" made by FAO. The cornerstone of the production analyses in that $stay$ was the quantitative assessment of natural resources and input requirements. Based upon these, proposals were made on possibilities for resource development, land use patterns, yield increase, etc. Two alternative projections, Scenarios A and B, were made for 90 developing countries listed in the earlier chapter.

The main differences in the two scenario projections reflect the following factors:

- different economic growth rates

for Scenario A: the aggregate growth rate 7,0 per cent per year and the low income developing countries (300 Dollar GDP per capital or less in 1975) at least double their per capital incomes by 2000. for Scenario B: the growth rate less optimistic, 5,7 per cent per vear.

- different production projections

for Scenario A:

commodity by commodity are for levels which imply maximum improvements in self-sufficiency or exports subject to constraints on the production side (land/water resources and gains in land use). For each crop, production increases are specified in terms of changes in yields and harvested area for six classes of irrigated and rainful land.

for Scenario B: a more mechanical procedure was foilowed; countries are assumed to achieve production growth rates commodity by commodity that are midway between those of past trends and those of Scenario A. The increases total production in. thus obtained for "B" subsequently broken down into changes in area and yields proportionate to those of "A".

As for the manner of estimation of fertilizer requirements, it is the same in both alternatives. The projected fertilizer use, of course, will be different because the two scenarios have different levels of projected area, yields and production.

For our forecast of fertilizer use in the 91 developing countries up to 1990 and 2000, we considered the following data:

- The FAO estimations above mentioned; FAO placed all the input requirements including fertilizers at our disposal for each developing countries studied in the two Scenarios.
- Projection of fertilizer demand made by Mr. Shu Lin Peng in his "Market Study of Mini-Fertilizer Plants for Developing Countries", September 1982.
- The historical data of fertilizer use in each country.

Taking into consideration the information above-mentioned, forecasts were made for the use of the three main nutrients in 1990 and 2000. Tables 4.2-1, 4.2-2 and 4.2-3 contain the forecasts of N, $P_2 O_5$ and $K_2 O$ for each country, respectively. Data of FAO Scenario A and of Mr. Peng also are shown in the tables together with category-signs listed in the former chapter, based on our forecasts.

In Tables 4.2-4 to 4.2-9 the share of developing countries according to the consumption categories of N, P₂ O₅ and K, O fertilizers by regions are summarized, based on our forecasts for 1990 and 2000, respectively.

Comparing the recent share (Table 4.1-2) with the forecasts (Table 4.2-4 and 4.2-5) in case of nitrogen, it can be seen that even in 2000 a number of countries, 25 or expressed in percentage 27,5 per cent, will not reach the level of 10000 tpy N. On the other hand, the number of countries consuming more than 200000 tpy will increase from 14 in 1981/82 to 26 in 2000, presenting \tilde{a}^T further, even more polarization in the consumption of the developing countries.

The main ranges in nitrogen consumption in 2000 would be the category VII. (consump<mark>tion ab</mark>ove 200000 tpy N) with 2<mark>9,</mark>6 per cent and the consumption level 1000-10000 tpy N with 24,2 per cent.

Similar changes can be seen on the base of data available in Tables 4.1-3, 4.2-6 and 4.2-7 in case of P_2O_5 consumption and in Tables 4.1-4, 4.2-8 and 4.2-9 in case of $K_2 \Omega$ consumption. There will be a difference in case of K_2O consumption because the main ranges would be the consumptian levels from from 1000 to 10000 and from 10000 to 40000 amounting to about 32 per cent and 27,5 per cent, respectively. This is corresponding to the forecast philusophy that in this period the developing countries will not reach the M:P:K ratio that has evolved in the developed economies.

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Forecasts of N fertilizer consumption toward 2000 in the developing

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Table 4.2-1 /cont'd/
1000 t N

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Table 4.2-1 /cont'd/

1000 t N

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Table $4.2 \cdot 1$ /cont'd/ 1000 t N

Country		\cdot	1990		2000					
		Estimates		Cat. ^d		Estimates	$Cat.^d$			
	FAOa	UNIDO			FAOa	UNIDO				
		b	c			b	c			
Malaysia	65,4	290,0	230,0	VII.	243,9	464.0	346,0	VII.		
Philippines	288,1	384,0	350,0	VII.	774,3	610,0	600,0	VII.		
Thailand	313,3	346,0	250,0	VII.	579,5	690,0	480,0	VII.		
Viet Nam	568,9	$\qquad \qquad \blacksquare$	380,0	VII.	1376,0	$\overline{}$	720.6	VII.		
TOTAL		34007,9					54764,4			

Remarks:

- a "Agriculture toward 2000" FAO, Scenario "A" Potential Demand Forecast.
- b Market study of mini-fertilizer plants for developing countries by Shu Lin Peng Ph.D. for UNIDO, September 1982.
- c Demand forecast specially prepared by the Hungarian Chemical Industries Engineering Center /VEGYTERV/, Budapest, for this study.
- d Consumption categories:

Forecasts of P₂0₅ fertilizer consumption toward 2000 in the developing countries and classification into categories

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 $\underline{\text{Table 4.2-2}}\ \text{/cont\text{'d/}}$

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1000 t P₂0₅

		1990				2000		
		Estimates		$Cat.^d$		Estimates		$Cat.^d$
Country	FA0ª	UNID ₀			FAOa	UNIDO		
		$\mathbf b$	$\mathbf c$			b	$\mathbf c$	
Chad	5,0		2,7	II.	13,5		6, 8	11.
Congo	4,3		2,1	II.	15,7		6, 2	II.
Gabon	0, 2		0, 2	I.	0,3		0,3	I.
Zaire	2,9		2,8	II.	5,6		4, 5	II.
East and Southern Africa			217,8				459,7	
Burundi	1,1		0,9	$I.$	2,9		2,3	II.
Ethiopia	20,1	107,2	38,0	III.	93,3	214,0	71,0	٧.
Kenya	41,5	36,0	36,0	III.	129,1	72,0	90,0	٧.
Madagascar	4,4	1,9	3,0	II.	15,2	3,7	11,0	III.
Malawi	9,3	9,0	9,0	II.	35,3	18,	25,0	III.
Mauritius	14,3	4,0	7,0	II.	17,4	9,6	12,0	III.
Mozambique	4,1	6,3	15,0	III.	14,4	12,4	21,0	III.
Rwanda	0, 5	$\qquad \qquad \blacksquare$	0,3	I.	1,2	$\overline{}$	0,7	Ι.
Somalia	3,1		2,4	II.	10,1	$\overline{}$	8,0	II.
Tanzania	26,0	10,8	18,0	II.	78,8	21,6	39,0	III.
Uganda	1.9		1,2	II.	8,0		3,7	II.
Zambia	31,2	30,6	30,0	III.	119,5	61,0	61,0	IV.
Zimbabwe	73,8	57,4	57,0	IV.	164,3	86,0	115,0	VI.
2. LATIN AMERICA			2996,4				5199,5	
Central America			696,0				1284,0	
Costa Rica	47,2	21,6	27,0	III.	89,3	34,6	48,0	IV.
El Salvador	67,6	30,0	42,0	IV.	123,7	48,0	75,0	٧.
Guatemala	42, 2	45,4	42,0	IV.	80,3	72,6	71,0	${\bf V}$.
Honduras	25,4	5,2	12,0	III.	62,1	8,3	28,0	III.
Mexico	772,1	425,0	540,0	VI.	1437,7	680,0	1006,0	VI.
Nicaraqua	19,7	25,4	18,0	III.	37,6	40,7	30,0	III.
Panama	21,2	10,9	15,0	III.	45,2	17,0	26,0	III.

Table $4.2-2$ /cent'd/

 1000 t P_20_5

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 $Table 4.2-2 /cont'd'$ </u>

1000 t P205

Table 4.2-2 /cont'd/ 1000 t P_2O_5

Country			1990	2000				
	Estimates	$Cat.^d$	Estimates	Cat.d				
	FA0 ^a		UNIDO		FAOa	UNIDO		
		\cdot b	C			b	c	
Malaysia	30,5	208,0	160,0	VI.	102,7	333,0	234,0 VI.	
Philiopines	196.8	84,0	84,0	V_{\bullet}		514,6 134,0	160,0	VI.
Thailand	201,2	257,0	182,0	VI.	366,9	514,0	310,0 VI.	
Viet Nam	251,4	$\overline{}$	200,0 VI.		604,9	$\frac{1}{2}$	484,0	VI.
TOTAL		13453,2				23304.1		

Remarks:

- a "Agriculture toward 2000" FAO, Scenario "A" Potential Demand Forecast.
- b Market study of mini-fertilizer plants for developing countries by Shu Lin Peng Ph.D. for UNIDO. September 1982.
- c Demand forecast specially prepared by the Hungarian Chemical Industries Engineering Center /VEGYTERV/, Budapest, for this study.
- d Consumption categories:

Forecasts of K₂0 fertilizer consumption toward 2000 in the developing countries and classification into categories

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Table 4.2-3 /cont'd/

 1000 t K₂0

 $Table 4.2-3 /cont'd/$ </u>

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1000 t K_2 0

		1990				2000		
		Estimates		Cat.d		Estimates		Cat. ^d
Country	FA0a		UNIDO		FA0 ^a	UNID ₀		
		p	$\mathbf c$			p	$\mathbf c$	
Caribbean			225,2				327,6	
Cuba	100,3	356,0	195,0	VI.	142,9	410,0	285,0	VI.
Dominican Rep.	28,5	33,0	23,0	III.	40,0	53,0	32,0	III.
Haiti	0,6		1,1	II.	1,3		1,3	II.
Jamaica	5,4		6,1	II.	10,8		9,3	II.
South America			1450,4				2633,1	
Argentina	17,6	17,3	14,0	III.	30,0	28,0	24,0	III.
Bolivia	1, 5	1,2	1,2	II.	4,5	2,4	3,0	11.
8razil	421,6	1780,0	1230,0	VI.	991,2		2850,0 2192,0	VI.
Chile	67,1	21,7	21,7	III.	137,2	34,7	96,0	٧.
Colombia	65,3	130,4	75,0	٧.	115,1	209,0	115,0	VI.
Ecuador	16,8	34,6	22,0	III.	60,4	55,4	48,0	IV.
Guyana	3,6	\blacksquare	3,0	II.	5,2	$\ddot{}$	4, 2	11.
Paraguay	0,8	3,1	2,1	II.	1,4	6,1	3,1	11.
Peru	22,5	14,2	16,0	III.	58,2	22,7	39,0	III.
Suriname	1,7		0,8	I.	3,8		1,6	11.
Trinidad a. Tobago	2, 2		3,2	II.	4,2	-	4,2	11.
Uruguay	7,3	6,4	6,4	11.	33,8	8,3	18,0	III.
Venezuela	56,6	105,0	55,0	IV.	106,0	168,0	85,0	٧.
3. NEAR EAST			139,7				348,0	
N.E. Africa			46,7				112,0	
Egypt	136,8	13,5	39,0	III.	214,9	21,6	80,0	V.
Libya	8,1	2,3	5,7	II.	17,9	4,6	12,0	III.
Sudan	21,5		2,0	11.	79,2		20,0	iII.

Table $4.2-3$ /cunt'd/

 1000 t K_2 0

			1990		2000					
Country		Estimates		$Cat.^d$	Estimates			$Cat.^d$		
	FAOa		UNIDO		FA0a		UNID ₀			
		b	\mathbf{C}			b	\mathbf{c}			
N.E. Asia			93,0				236,0			
Afghanistan	5,0		1,1	II.	28,7		4,5	II.		
Cyprus	4,6	3,5	3,7	II.	8,1	5,6	5,6	II.		
Iran	172,3	$\overline{}$	15,0	III.	515,8		80,0	V.		
Iraq	21,3	5,3	5,3	II.	119,4	10,0	12,0	III.		
Jordan	2,8	3,2	2, 2	II.	4,8	6,4	4,8	II.		
Lebanon	13,2	12,8	10,6	III.	28,8	25,6	25,6	III.		
Saudi-Arabia	3,1	$\overline{}$	2, 5	II.	14,3	\rightarrow	11,0	III.		
Syria	14,2	5,1	8,0	II.	20,4	10, 2	16,0	III.		
Turkey	334,5	44,0	44,0	IV.	518,3	70,0	75,0	٧.		
Yemen AR	0,2		0,4	I.	1,0		0,9	Ι.		
Yemen PDR	0, 2		0,2	I.	9,7		0,6	Ι.		
4. FAR EAST			4025, 2				7459,2			
South Asia			1550,8				2926,0			
Bangladesh	50,9	50,9	88,6	٧.	199,2	102,0	118,0	VI.		
India	1948,1	889,0	1363,0	VI.	4560,2	1422,0	2620,0	VI.		
Nepal	2,8		2, 2	II.	8,7		7,0	II.		
Pakistan	811,5	13,3	45,0	IV.	1835,8	21,3	90,0	٧.		
Sri Lanka	64,8	57,0	52,0	IV.		$114,6$ 90,0	91,0	ν.		
East and South-East Asia			2474,4				4533,2			
Burma	24,0	7,0	17,0	III.	47,7	11,0	33,0	III.		
China	\bullet	182,0	1400,0	VI.	\mathbb{R}^+	363,0	2800,0	VI.		
Indonesia	370,0	186,0	186,0	VI.	608,0	370,0	370,0	VI.		
Kampuchea DM	0,4	\sim $-$	0,4	$I -$	1,1	\sim	1,1	II.		
Korea DPR	99,7	119,0	119,0	VI.	127,5	165,0	156,0	VI.		
Korea Rep.	225,6	312,0	226,0	VI.	265,4	499,0	265,0	VI.		
Laos			\blacksquare	Ι.	0,1		0,1	Ι.		

Table $4.2-3$ /cont $d/$ 1000 t K₂0

			1990					
Country		2000						
	Estimates	Cat. ^d	$Cat.^d$ Estimates					
	FAO ^a	UNIDO			FAO _a	UNIDO		
		b	C			b	C	
Malaysia	555,6	436,0	280.C VI.		1255,0	698,0	450.0 VI.	
Philippines	191,4	112,0	112,0	$V_{\rm I}$.	483,7	180,0	180,0	VI.
Thailand	76,4	59,0	59,0	IV.	128,1	118,0	118,0	VI.
Viet Nam	93,7	\rightarrow	$75,0$ V.		199,3		160,0	VI.
TOTAL			6461,0				12072,7	

Remarks:

- a "Agriculture toward 2000" FAO, Scenario "A" Potential Demand Forecast.
- b Market study of mini-fertilizer plants for developing countries by Shu Lin Peng Ph.D. for UNIDO, September 1982.
- c Demand forecast specially prepared by the Hungarian Chemical Industries Engineering Center /VEGYTERV/, Budapest, for this study.
- d Consumption categories:

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Share of the developing countries, according to the consumption categories of N fertilizer, by regions

 $11990/$

Remarks: The 91 of developing countries that projection of consumption to 2000 have been made for are included.

 $X -$ countries in number

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 $/2000/$

Remarks: The 91 of developing countries that projection of consumption to 2000 have been made for are included.

 $X - \text{countries in number}$

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Share of the developing countries, according to the consumption categories
of P₂O₅ fertilizer, by regions

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 $/1990/$

Remarks: The 91 of developing countries that projection of consumption to 2000 have been made for are included.

 $X - \text{countries in number}$

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/2000/

Remarks: The 91 of developing countries that projection of consumption to 2000 have been made for are included.

X - countries in number

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Share of the developing countries, according to the consumption categories of K20 fertilizer, by regions

 $1990/$

Remarks: The 91 of developing countries that projection of consumption to 2000 have been made for are included.

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 $X -$ countries in number

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Share of the developing countries, according to the consumption categories
of K20 fertilizer, by regions

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Remarks: The 91 of developing countries that projection of consumption to 2000 have been made for are included.

 $X -$ countries in number

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4.3 Identification of countries according to their raw material potential

The major raw materials are natural gas, naphtha, fuel oil and coal for manufacture of nitrogenous fertilizers; phosphate rock and sulphur for phosphate fertilizers; and potash ores for potash fertilizers.

Though electric power and water can not take as raw materials in a strict sense but they are very important factors and play significant rules in selection of locations of fertilizer plants.

The mined products vary significantly from place to place and contain constituents that can have important effects upon the processes which they are used in. Therefore a change in the source of supply may adversely affect the process leading to lower efficiency and/or loss of output. If a change in supply becomes necessary, careful and lengthy trials of alternative materials should be made.

The main raw materials for this industry can be found in many places of the world, but it is impossible to present more than a rough estimate of reserves of any mineral deposit, particularly in the developing countries. There are two main difficulties.

The first one comes from the lack of information. Large areas of the globe either have not been surveyed at all or have been surveyed inadequately.

The second difficulty is that there is no agreed dfinition of reserves. Some estimates include the 1 quantity existing in the deposit whereas others include that amount which can be obtained by present mining techniques. Others, furthermore count the amount that can be economically extracted. Therefore, the proportion of a deposit included in reserves varies from one to another and would also be affected by changes in mineral market prices or in extraction and mining costs.

the various fertilizer raw materials the reserve Qf estimates of phosphate rock, sulphur and coal have the greater margin of uncertainty. The estimates for crude petroleum and, to a lesser degree, natural gas are the most reliable, because of their importance, much attention has been given to these materials and to the technology required for their estimation. It may be, the one for potash is the most reliable because the number of known deposits is

relatively small.

Using various sources, in the Appendix 4/3 we show the data of raw materials (production capacities and reserves) in six tables, as follows:

- recent production of natural gas and reserves in developing countries
- recent crude oil production, reserves and refining capacities in the developing countries
- recent production of coal and reserves in the developing countries
- recent production of phosphate rock and reserves in the developing countries
- recent production of potash and reserves in the developing countries
- recent production of sulphur in all forms and reserves in the developing countries.

In Table 4.3-1 the raw material potential of developing countries studied are summarized by regions. It can be seen that almost half of the countries surveyed have natural gas reserves and 48 of them can or would be able to produce crude oil. 40 developing countries surveyed have coal/lignite deposits. However, large areas have not been surveyed because until the beginning of the energy crisis the search for coal has been relatively neglected. It is possible that much more developing countries will have coal deposits when the researches and explorations are made on a wider scale.

The reserves of phosphate rock are widespread. Some 34 countries of the world are producers, and 23 of the developing countries belong to 91 countries studied. Among them Morocco is the most important having about 70 7. of total identified reserves. Together with Morocco, 41 developing countries surveyed have phosphate rock. The estimation of reserves varies widely. According to experts, the estimated life of reserves at current production levels should last for about 600 years.
According to FAO statistics, in 1981/82 there were 12 potash producing countries of which two, China and Chile, were developing countries and their production reached 51000 tons $K, 0$, amounting almost to $0, 2$ per cent of world production. In addition another 14 countries have potash deposits, among them the former potash producer Congo that plans to develop its closed mine. A number of developing countries plan to begin the potash production, according tc their plans. The most important would be Jordan with a total capacity of 1,2 million tpy by 1985.

Sulphur in various forms is widely distributed. It constitutes about $0,1$ per cent of the earth' crust, but the value of each form differs greatly for the manufacturers. It is found as elementary sulphur, as metal sulphides in mineral ores, as sulphates, as hydrogen sulphide in natural gas, and as complex organic sulphur compounds in crude oil. All these can be used as sulphur sources but the most important are elementary sulphur, hydrogen sulphide ar.d pyrites.

Table 4.3-1

Number of developing countries surveyed having raw

materials for fertilizer production (1983)

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4.4 Identification of countries which could use both mini- and large-fertilizer plants

In any sort of discussion on the economics of small versus large fertilizer plants one advances arguments both for and against.

The supporters of the large plant philosophy emphasize the economics of scale and explain how the capital related charges per ton product are much higher on a small scale plant compared with a large one.

On the other hand, the supporters of mini-plant philosophy emphasize that small plants are easier to operate, the capital investments are less and they are more amenable to "modularisation". Therefore, some of the erection elements can be carried out in the developed location where the equipment comes from. Perhaps the most important argument in favour of the establinhment of mini fertilizer plants in developing countries is that plants would and could be located near to the areas of demand. This can be a good alternative in many of developing countries where transportation facilities and the marketing-distribution systems are poor or inadequate:

There is a number of developing countries where beth alternatives, mini-scale and large unit, can be considered. They are generally large-sized countries and/or have special circumstances and reasons favouring establishing both large and small plants. Some of them are:

- a vast, expanse of territory, a large population, or both
- topographical characteristics,i.e. a lot of islands ln Indonesia and in pt:ilippines, or long distances in countries because of their special configurations (Viet-Nam, Burma), etc.

In any case it should be evident that emphasis should be placed on minimizing delivered cost at farm gate rather than on minimum cost at the factory gate. Consequently, in a lot of countries in several regions mini-plants using local $resources,$ supplying local areas, can possibly exist not far from large tonnage units that can play important roles in the supplying of the domestic and export markets.

Table 4.4-1 lists the countries that could use both mini and large fertilizer plants. All available information as well as special considerations mentioned above were taken in compiling this list. It shows that 16 and 10 countries may use \vdash ,th plant sizes for N and $P_2^{\prime\prime}$ Os, respectively, and 9 countries would be able to establish mini and large units for both main nutrients.

Table 4.4-1

Developing countries that could use both mini and large fertilizer plants

Remarks: medium-size is included in the large one

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4.5 Identification of countries according to the types of fertilizers to be produced

During the development of the fertilizer industry a great number of fertilizers have appeared on the market, each containing one, two or three macronutrients, namely nitrogen, phosphorous and potassium. Most of the products came to the market as a result of availability in large quantities of major raw materials, such as ammon:a, phosphate rock and sulphuric acid, which could be economically processed into standard fertilizers.

There are two basic types of fertilizers: One is straight fertilizer contairing only one nutrient, the other kind ls compound fertilizer containing two or more nutrients.

Comparing the production costs of the two main sources of N fertilizer, urea and ammoniumnitrate, based on natural gas it can be demonstrated that the factory cost per ton of N in AN is about 30-40 per cent higher than for N in urea. (See Appendix $3/1$). Further, taking into consideration the fact, that a more concentrated product has lower handling and transport cost per ton of N, it can be stated that production and use of urea has an economic advantage. Scmetimes this advantage can be neglected for agriculture reasons.

Nearly all phosphate fertilizers are produced in solid forms. The single superphosphate like ammonium sulphate has disadvantage of low nutrient content, but also the advantage of the advantage of obtining sulphur which the others <TSP, DAP, MAP) do not. It cannot be economically transported over long distances hut it can compete over short distances. The agronomic d *i* fferences among \wedge the several types of phosphate fertilizers are slight, the choice among them is usually made on economic considerations.

Beside the above mentioned types of fertilizers, there are a lat of others including various kinds of compound fertilizers that arc produced in wide range by chemical way or by simple mechanical mixing. On the abther hand, there is an increasing interest of liquid fertilizers including aqueous solutions containing nitrogen and suspensions ccntaining two or three main nutrients.

It is important to mention the "secondary nutrients" such as sulphur, calcium, magnesium and "micro-nutrients" such as copper, zinc, molybdenium, etc. However, it is not the task of this study to demonstrate all the possibilities fa~ a developing countries to choose its alternatives in starting the process of domestic production of fertilizer3. For this reason in every developing countries analyses are necessary to choose the best solution, taking into consideration all the local circumstances. In this respect a general guideline may be suggested far choosing product-types in mini-fertilizer plants.

As for the straight nitrogen fertilizers, urea and ammoniumnitrate are the advisable products. Ammonium_ulphate production via sulphuric acid manufactured for this purpose is more costly; this material can be counted as industrial by-product.

For the production of phosphate fertilizers on $min-z$ scale, first of all the single superphosphate can be recommended, taking into consideration the short transport distances, its simple manufacturing process, instead of concentrated phosphate fertilizers based on phosphoric acid.

The production of potash will be limited to few developing countries but not on mini-scale.

4.6 Assessment of dema. I for fertilizers and of gotential for small scale fertilizer units in countries identified as potential users of mini-fertilizer plants

4.6.1 Fertilizer production units

There are three means of supplying a country with fertilizers: domestic production, importation and the combination of the two in any ratio. As a rule, domestic production would be advisable if the basic raw material (s) are available. It is a general tendency to try to use as much raw materials as possible locally available eve if they are of lower grade or are more expensive.

In the previous chapters surveys have been made of the raw materials' potential in developing ccuntrias and forecasts of consumption of fertilizer nutrients for 91 developing countries. Taking into consideration the existing production capacities and those under construction, theoretically, supply/demand balances can be made for each country and region. However, some of the developing countries having

large quantities of cheap raw materials have been increasing their productive capacities for export purposes. This trend, will no doubt continue in the future and for this reason surplus capacities can-be found on-regional and/or subregional scales. The number of mini-plants in the developing countries will depend on their raw material potential and on their efforts to become self-sufficient. In some countries mini-plants will have capacities exceeding demands. It is thought that local surpluses will stimulate demand in these cour.tri es.

Estimates of the number of mini-fertilizer production plants for the developing countries by regions are summarized in Tables 4.6-1; 4.6-2; 4.6-3 and 4.6-4. In Table 4.6-1 and 4.6-2 the number of NH₃ mini-plants is proposed to be built in the first and the second decade, respectively, indicating their capacities C150 tpd and 250 tpd) and raw materials (natural gas, fuel oil, coal). Accordingly, toward 1970 85 mini NH₃ plants is forecast, 84 of them for fertilizer purposes. Their combined capacity amounting to 18700 tpd NH₃. The majority, almost three-quarters are based on natural gas, and only 3 of them on hydropower potential.

In the last decade of this century 130 mini NH₃ plants are forecast with a total capacity of 29400 tpd. The majority of them (about 67 per cent) are also based on natural gas but coal as raw material would become more important increasing its share to 19 per cent in 1990 and 28 per cent in the last decade of the century.

In Table 4.6-3 urea and ammoniumnitrate capacities are summarized by regions, adjusting them to the above mentioned $NH_{\mathcal{J}}$ capacities. $\qquad \qquad \qquad$

In Table 4.6-4 the number of mini-scale P_1 Os units are summarized by regions. Each of these plants consists of a single superphosphate plant with a capacity of 500 tpd SSP $(90 \text{ tpd } P_2 O_S)$ and a sulphuric acid plant with a capacity of 200 tpd on the basis of elementary sulphur. 42 units are proposed to be established up to 1990. In the last decade of the century 68 units are forecast, amounting to a total new capacities of 3780 tpd F_2 Os and 6120 tpd F_2 Os, respectively.

In Appendix 4/4 the countries'dem~nd versus mini-plant capacities are shown for N and $P_2 O_5$ in two tables, re $spectively,$ and the balances are summarized by regions.

Estimate of number of mini NH₂ plants that could be established

Table 4.6-1

Total capacity: 18850 tpd NH₃; of which one plant with a capacity of 150 tpd NH₃ may be built in Burundi for metallurgy purpose. For fertilizer production: 18700 tpd NH3

 201

in 91 developing countries 1990-2000

Total capacity: 29400 tpd NH₃

 $50²$ \mathbf{I}

 \mathcal{X}^{\pm}

Table 4.6-2

Estimate of number of mini urea and NH₄NO₃ capacities that could
be established in 91 developing countries up to 1990 and 1990-2000 Table 4.6-3

Estimate of number of mini P205 capacities that could be established in 91 developing countries up to 1990 and 1990-2000

Nominal capacity: 500 tpd SSP /90 tpd P205 and 200 tpd sulphuric acid based on elementary sulphur

Total capacity to 1990: 21000 tpd SSP /3780 tpd P205/ 1990-2000: 34000 tpd SSP /6120 tpd P205/

4.6.2 Fertilizer processing plants and storage facilities

Since fertilizer is a seasonal commodity while its production is usually continuous the marketing, including distribution, regional and/or local storage, is a very important factor which is often given insufficient attention. Too often it is assumed if an adequate amount of fertilizer is produced it will sometimes find its way to the farms. The marketing and distribution system is as important as the production system and should receive equal attention.

The marketing system usually includes facilities for handling and storage of fertilizers in local warehouses, providing a link and a buffer between the continuous production and the seasonal use. Where existing transportation is insufficient, the marketing system also may need to include transport facilities. Of course, in case of mini-plants the transport distances arc much shorter than in C35e of a large tonnage unit.

When local warehouses are established for storage of fertilizers, the location of bulk blending units beside them does not involve high investment. In these units many formulations can be provided by mechanical mixing of straight fertilizers produced in mini-fertilizer plants. In this way two objectives can be achieved. First, there is no need to produce various kind of compound fertilizers with different NPK grades by, generally, complicated processes in mini- -plants. And. second, the .nost suitable formulations to the various cultures and soils can be fitted by blending different fertilizer materials in the warehouses.

The capacity of the storehouse and blending unit depends on the area where it is located on. It generally varies from 10000 tpy up to 100000 tpy. Taking into consideration a unit capacity of 10000 tpy and the forecast fertilizer consumption of the developing countries,, up to 1990 about 3500 such storage/blending units might be needed. They can cover cnly the 40 per cent of the total calculated demand. From 1991 to 2000 auout 6000 units might be installed. These together ~an meet requirements at a rate of 70 per cent. It must be, however, mentioned that four large countries, China, India, Brazil, Mexico are not included in the above forecast because they have differences significantly in their circumstances.

Although, these numbers are mechanically calculated it is certain that a lot of such facilities would be estab. ished in any way. No accurate estimate can not be made because:

there is no information as to how many units exist or are under construction and in all cases their sizes (capacity) would absolutely depend on the incal circumstances (regarding land, transport possibilities etc.).

The storage and distribution system is a very important part of the fertilizer supply and it is sure that a lot of them will be built in many developing countries. However, since the bulk of the investment cost for a unit containing storehouse and blending plant is inserted to the storage facilities, it would be a mistake to neglect the inclusion of blending facilities with the warehouse.

5. FERTILIZER SUPPLY SYSTEM

The question, whether the consumption needs of a developing country be covered through the erection of a local mini-plant, an export-oriented big size plant of a jumbo size serving a whole region or simply through import cannot be decided upon comparing of the technical and economic advantages or disadvantages of the mini-plant only. Long term planning demographic forecasts, food demand, agricultural development plans, raw material rEsource, foreign trade balance, manpower and technical skill availability, infrastructural development logistics, market organisation, transport, storage, distribution and application together with many other questions need all be considered in order to work out the alternative supply routes and decide upcn the right solution.

The establishment of an effective fertilizer supply system in most developing countries is not likely to succeed unless the government assigns it a high priority and adopts polices to expedite its development. This is particularly so in country facing food supply problem, or wanting to exploit fully its agricultural potential.

Estimate of fertilizer demand

It is be assumed that every country has some goals for its agriculture, including supplying enough food crops of appropriate types for its population; supplying nonfood needs such as rubber, cotton, wool, hemp, etc.; and producing cash crops for export of products for which the country has natural advantages. Some approximation of the amount and kinds of fertilizers needed to achieve these goals usually can be formulated provided sufficient agricultural information is available. It must be stressed that for qualitative, as well as for quantitative assessment, only the analytical approach is feasible, every region asks for individual examination, no summarized "national" values will help. .

In agricultural development fertilizer use is only one factor among many others: biological methods (seed), plant protection chemicals, irrigation, tillage methods, meliora \cdot tion and many other measures must be applied for optimum results, Use of local nutrient sources (manure etc.) should be also considered. Factors, like the purchasing power α f farmers, price policy and government subsidies if not properly considered, can upset the best of forecasts.

Beside the quantitative assessment of the fertilizer needs, it is necessary to determine the right relationship between the different nutrients and the kind of product to be usad.

This is a difficult problem and its implications are sometimes not fully and eciated. Usually there are data available on the response o' major crops to each of the primary nutrients and to the secondary nutrients. However, with continued fertilizer use of one or two nutrients, other nutrients may become more and more deficient. By means of soil analyses and crop requirements or if available from long-term test data, the right nutrient balance can be anticipated.

The choice of the fertilizer product forms is also a complex problem. Soil composition. crop. agricultural and application methods, as well as fertilizer product properties (compensation, hygroscopicity, particle size etc.) are the technical factors to be considered. Raw material and other resources available have also their influence on the result. the economics, where all this factors, expressed in money terms play their role together with prices, shipping and other cost, have a decisive role.

In summary, the choice of type of fertilizer should be made in cooperation with agronomists, engineers, and marketing specialists with a view to determining the most economical means for supplying all needed nutrients at the farm level while making the best use of the country's resources. The resulting decision will involve in most cases some compromise between agronomic effectiveness and cost or between production and distribution costs. Usually no clear decision is possible in favour of one type of product, but several kind of fertilizer will be needed in a given proportion.

A detailed study and its conclusions on the policy to be adopted with all the possible consequences considered will be of great help for a government siming at the fostering of an adequate fertilizer supply with its own means: loans, subsidies, levies, taxes, custom duties, etc.; in order to influence the market forces in the right direction.

Harketing and Distribution System

Plarketing, including distribution, regional and local storage, and retail outlets of fertilizers, are very important aspects which are often given insufficient attention.

Many developing countries nave very poor transportation systeas which are already overloaded. In some remote regions of large countries, the cost of transportation far outweighs the cost uf fertilizer production. Where existing transportation is inadequate, the marketing system also may need to include transport facilities such as trucks, barges or railcars. These facilities may also be used for carrying grain or other agricultural products to the market. One of the most pressing problems in many daveloping countries is improvement of the transportation facilities - railroads. highways, Naterways, harbours, etc. Such facilities are vital for marketing fertilizers as well as agricultural products. It seems futile to build large fertilizer plants when the $infr$ astructure is inadequate to distribute their production. Development of the infrastructure may well be such an enormous job that the building of numerous smaller plants
would provide a more economical and practical alternative.

The marketing system usually include physical facilities for storage of fertilizers in regional, district, and locdl warehouses.

It is of vital importance to develop a logistics system that will ensure that fertilizer of the right kind is available to farmers in the right amount at the right time. For such a system it is first necessary to estimate the requirements of each region and district in detail including kinds of fertilizers required, quantity of each and the time when each is required. When this information is at hand, a system of regional and district distribution centers can be set up with adequate storage facilities at each center and retail outlets can be identified or established. Transportation of fertilizers to the distribution centers are also ta be solved.

In the fertilizer marketing system, physical facilities for transport, storage and distribution, and the necessary skills involved in agricultural organisation and administration should be integrated to serve all identical needs of agriculture.

This studies and their implementation are usually done in the developed countries by the fertilizer manufacturers or by separate wholesale and distributor organisations or by farmer cooperatives. In the developing countries it seems advisable for the authorities to work out the plans and according to the locdl. economic conditions, leave the realisation to the private capital encouraged by government or incentives partly or wholly take in hand the realisation, tao.

Regardless of the source of the fertilizer supply the transport, storage and handling system must correspond to the fertilizer need. The quantities to be transported, the shipping distances and the location of warehouses and their capacity, however, is greatly influenced by these sources. Different supply schemes would be needed to correspond to import-based alternatives as against home produced goods in big, centralised plants or in mini-plants situated close to local markets. These differences in the marketing system will often play an important role in tilting the balance in favour of one or other solution.

Natural Resources

.A detailed inventory of a country s natural resources is helpful in planning a fertilizer industry. Unfortunately, most developing countries and many developed countries have incomplete knowledge of their mine~al resources. Since thorough exploration of mineral resources is very expensive, it is not surprising that very little is known about the mineral content of much of the earth s crust.

While short-term plans must be based on currently known resouces, each country would need to have long-range plans to gather as much information as possible about its mineral resources.

Infrastructure

Although thr. structural problems def ined by the consecutive UNIDO Cansultation Meetings on the fertilizer industry have been mentioned just now, it seems adequate to give here the full list: of the seven aspects of the infra-

1. Transportation infrastructure (roads, railways, port facilities, railway rolling stock, ships);

- 2. Utilities infrastructure (power supply, water supply, and a drainage and sewage system);
- 3. Raw materials infrastructure (critical raw material inputs, particularly feedstocks);
- 4. Marketing infrastructure (storage facilities and a distribution network that would make it possible for the product to reach the farms);
- 5. Infrastructure of agricultural extension ser-. vices and modern agronomic practices;
- 6. Human infrastructure (entrepreneurial skills, managerial skills, and maintenarse and operation skills);
- 7. Policy infrastructure (the broad framework of government planning, laws, and pricing and economic policies).

nore: To this list, this study deemed necessary to add one

8. Manufacturing infrastructure for equipment and machine replacement, spare part production and •aintenance works.

From. this $list, 1, 3$ and 4 have been discussed. The others also must be examined carefully when setting up a national (or regional) fertilizer supply plan. The numerous well. known examples . of plants built without adequate infrastructure demonstrate well enough how the best and most ·expensive production facilities can be doomed to inefficiency for lack of the necessary infrastructure. Different types of fertilizer plants have widely differing infrastructural requirements. A 1000 tpd ammonia plant is very demanding both in quantity and quality in water supply, agricultural services, marketing, maintenance and operation skills and uninterrupted power supply, etc. The problems posed by a mini-ammonia plant are at least one magnitude lower.

The costs involved in establishing an adequate infrastructure are usually so high that it can only be supported en a national level.

When setting up a fertilizer supply' system usually a very important cost factor influencing the decision is the infrastructure needed. In this study account was taken of the different factors in calculating the full investment costs from battery limit costs for big and small plants as well as for seaside and remote locations. (See Chapter 1.1 and Appendix 3/1).

Production Facilities

With the data and results mentioned above at hand, the different solutions for the fertilizer supply or a combination of them can be investigated. These are

- import of ready-made fertilizer product
- import of some intermediate product to be processed in the country
	- (this can extend from ammonia or phosphoric acid for fertilizer production to different single fertilizers for compounding or simple bagging)
- fertilizer production in the country.

For this last alternative several cases will be in vestigated: big central plants and local small ones with all the relevant factors: training, maintenance, spare parts, onstream factor, infrastructural needs etc.; accounted for. Different locations for the production plants, regional cooperation or export possibilities present also saveral alternatives.

The viable alternatives can be selected only by careful analysis of the local conditions - no general rule exist.

For every production route, the capital and operation costs can be now computed from the raw material source until the product reaches the farm-gate. Costs and incomes in this case cannot be average values or general factors: transportation, storage, infrastructure, offsites etc., for every item, and with the time factor and the corresponding interest rates will be evaluated.

Modelling

When for all possible alternatives the whole $\texttt{-cost}$ structure is composed, it is easy to construct the supply model. The individual alternatives have to be complemented by the other technical and economic features which have not yet been taken into account. These features are either of limiting nature: availability of given raw materials, infr3 structural services etc., or should have a special (higher or lower) effect on the decision, which could be provided for by application of factors. The whole exercise can be optimized by the linear programming method. (See Annex $3/2)$.

Optimization could aim at different goals: minimum investment, minimum fertilizer supply cost, minimum foreign currency utilisation etc., or a combination of different aims, expressed in mathematical form by the objective function.

The computer-aided linear programming methods deli~er for cash optimization goal a model, which is usually composed from different supply routes in a given proportion (e.g. import, local production in small, resp. big plants). It is very easy to have quite a big number of "runs'' for different "aims" and/or different starting conditions (price structure, etc.). Sensitivity analysis is possible to estimate how raw material or product price-variations will influence any decision.

Decision-making

Models and computer are very helpful tools - but only tools. Every model and optimisation result will have the same validity and accuracy level as its input data. Known the relative ."accuracy" (or better to say inaccuracy) of the forecasts for five - ten - fifteen years ahead, the results of this work should not be taken literally at their face value, but indications for a right decision.

The gathering and detailed analysis of all the background information needed, the evaluation, selection and processing until the final model as well as the intcr· pretation of the results is a very demanding task even for experienced and skilled people. Many developing countries have adequate experience and knowledge in this field; they usually will have already elaborated such a supply system. Beginners in this field would be advised to rely on the help of some knowledgeable other developing country or to use the good services of reliable experts, possib:y through the relevant international organisations such as UNIDD.

The national (or regional) supply system is a prerequisite and cannot be a substitute of a feasibility study for every project proposed in the overall scheme. The individual feasibility study, worked cut, by much more detailed technical and economic analysis will serve as basis for the final decision on the plant size, location, the process to be used, the product to be manufactured etc.

6. IMPLEMENTATION OF MINI FERTILIZER PLANTS

6.1 General approach

Once the feasibility of a mini fertilizer plant has been established, the procedure for its implementation will start.

Mini-plants will be presumably realised in countries having already broad experience in the fertilizer industry like China, India, Mexico etc., but also at the other end of this line in countries with no fertilizer industry at dll.

The realisation of the project will accordingly adopt one of the following forms:

- turr-key plant delivered from a foreign country,
- project realised in cooperation with a foreign <developed or developin9) country,
- process, know-how and basic engineering delivered from a foreign country; procurement, erection realised by a home organisation.

Turn-key approach will be chosen by the less experienced countries~ It can be safely assumed, that serious competition will occur between contractors from different countries and as a result in every case new developments will be found to improve the performance and thus the economics of the plant offered. Already exist many possibilities to introduce improvements in the existing processes and new processes or process steps are constantly emerging.

The same situation will occur if only process, know-how and basic engineering is the scope of the tender.

Standardisation

Efficiency and competitiveness of a proposed process will depend to a great extent closely following the approach of the optimum conditions: but most of them differ from case to case: local raw materials, meteorological and geographical parameters, services will influence not only the dimensioning of the individual items of equipment but to a certain extent the flowsheet, too.

The capacity of the mini-plants to be realised must usually correspond to the raw material resources, or marlet limitations or both. It seems not reasonable to suppose that one or two fixed sizes will satisfy all requirements.

Process development and engineering is in our days very different from the classic way of the fifties. Even before the first commercial realisation a computer model is worked out for the whole process. This model undergoes constant improvement in the light of the industrial experience feej back to the engineering services. For every actual case the relevant starting data are fed in and a "tailor made" variant of the process is computed. In most cases only minar variations in reactor volume, heat exchanger size or capacity (in a given range) are needed but major differences (air cooling versus water cooling, different drives, e.g. different reformer furnace constructions etc.) are also pos sible. The bulk of the engineering cost comes from the First stage: the process development and model construction. The individual modified application do not need appreciatle engineering work and cost, but evidently the first realisation cannot bear all the original development costs, it has to be spread over all the projects realised. By this way, the individual tailor made design for every case presents no financial burden, causes no delay and allows for the optimum solution between the limits set by the model. It is obvious, that even the layout the piping and many of the detailed process engineering package will remain superficially the same and for everybody not going into details, the plants will seem to be "standard" plants, as it is the case with the 1000 tpd ammonia units, where in reality among the very numerous plants delivered by the same contractor it would be hardly possible to find two really identical ones.

The process engineering package is the basis for lhe procurement of the necessary equipment, machines, instrum2nts etc., either by the contractor (turn-key contract) or by the client (basic engineering services). In both cases, to make the project competitive the invited manufacturers will work out the detail engineering, or will offer their proprietary design for machines, instruments etc. Practical experience shows that the different manufacturers offer different designs for the same purpose? Decision, on what to buy will in both cases depend not only on technical considerations, but price, transport, spare part services, credit and other factors. Therefore - as it is the case with all plants $-$ in different places different individual equipment etc., will be found in basically the same kind of plant.

It seems therefore, that every effort to create a

"standard" mini-plant design would reduce competition and technical development and present little economic advantage.

This study recommends to promote and encourage the development work on mini-plant processes going on in different developed and developing countries, in order to enable them to offer competitive, economically sound processes for the interested buyers. This together with the possible help that can be provided by international organisatians like UNIDO in preparing feasibility studies, tender documents and evaluation would assure the best technical and economic solution-for-every-individual-case.

Prefabrication

Local work on site is always a difficult problem in $developing$ countries, particularly in ramote locations. Lac ϵ of 5kil1Ed manpower, high expatriate costs, difficult local conditions lead to serious delays, inadequate quality and other difficulties in the realisation of new projects.

An obvious way to reduce onsite construction and assembly time is in remote locations with engineering infrastructural support to build a plant in the form of prefabricated units or modules in the works of a fabricator and transport them to the site. However, this is not as easy as it seems. Process plants are usually complex and assemblies of piping and precision equipment, such as instruments, pumps and other rotating machines is a difficult task. Attempts to ship subassemblies of this nature (especially as deck cargo on standard ocean-going vessels> and transport them overland frequently result in· considerable damage, with consequent lose in time and in extra cost. Furthermore, transfer from ship to land transport is often hampered by lack of suitable gear. Therefore, adoption of prefabrication under such conditions would be limited to relatively light loads of robust equipment.

Several new methods of prefabricating fertilizer plants or modules have been proposed, and ~ome'have been used to construct most of the plants in industrial facilities where it can be done faster, better, and cheaper than at remote locations. The plant or module is then transported to the site and assembled. Prefabrication of production facilities is currently finding extensive use in many fields, and its application to fertilizer plants appears feasible. There-

fore, it seems appropriate to examine the feasibility of prefabricating fertilizer plants in more detail.

. It should be mentioned however that the principle of shipping prefabricated process modules is not new. Contractors were supplying small "packaged" ammonia plants of 50- to 100-tpd capacity as long as 20 years ago. Packaged urea plants of matching capacity are also available. Such installations, consisting of about 17 skid-mounted assemblies weighing 20-40 tons each, which are then assembled on eite, require less preparation and civil construction work and less space.

Besides ammonia and urea skid-mounted nitrogen plants, contractors constructed a number of have skid-mounted granulation plants in South America for the manufacture of NPK fertilizers. The capacity of these plants ranges from about 5 to 20 tpd and they serve a regional agricultural center or small market logistically separated from larger agricultural producing areas or markets.

This kind of prefabrication is quite different from the barge-mounted, ocean platform-mounted or other similar methods for large size plants and therefore this study will not dwell on these latter methods which are irrelevant for mini-plants.

. The advantages of the skid-mounted method of construction are self-evident.

- 1. Construction can be undertaken under controlled conditions of quality, labour and material cost.
- 2. Skilled shop labour rates and overheads are often lower than skilled field labour rates for identical work.
- 3. Work planning is usually easier under shop conditions, thereby helping to minimize labourcosts.
- 4. Usually, modules can be thoroughly tested before shipment to site.
- 5. Saving in plant construction time is possible.

The disadvantages are non the less cbvious:

- 1. Overall cost is generally higher.
- 2. Transport problems are in remote locations \therefore bigger.
- 3. Skids with 20-30 tons each are generally too small for the size of plant considered in this study (e.g. 250 t/day ammonia).
- 4. Skid-mounting impress a lay-out with the minimum space requirements. Therefore for operation, maintenance and repair usually less space is available and it is therefore more difficult to execute these operations.
- 5. In all locations, but in developing countries in particular less training possibility is offered by the local erection work to the future.

In every case a detailed analysis of all factors involved should decide an the degree of prefabrication to be adapted.

It 5hould be stressed that the alternative to skid mounted erection method is not the original, old way of shipping half-ready individual items to the site. Prefabrication (e.g. towers delivered complete with isolation and connecting pipework) is in all cases necessary for equipment, machines and piping alike. The optimum degree of prefabrication should be defined individually for every case, but at the very beginning, since switch-over during implementation to another form of erection would be very costly.

6.2 Suooly potential of small scale fertilizer plants. Ppssible form of cooperation among developing cpuntries

In order to build small-scale fertilizer plant, the following items must be provided:

- process know-how and engineering
- equipment
- contracting-procurement, erection
- training.

As was indicated in Chapter 6.1 in a'turn-key contract, all four main components can be purchased in one package. In this case, the supplier must have access to all of them. In the other cases different potential suppliers can be invited, having possibilities only for selling one or another part of the above services. Therefore the supply potential available for the two cases will be totally different.

Many contractors from the developed countries are capable of delivering small-scale plants on a turn-key basis. They exist $-$ practically in most developed country - and have impressive reference lists. Many others have the capacities to enter in this field with wide experience in large-scale plants. They need only to he persuaded that sufficient demand will be there to justify the expenses required to develop a mini-plant flowsheet. This is applicable mainly to ammonia, for all the other fertilizer products, practically no difference can be found between big and small plants and all contractors can offer mini- $-\rho$ lants.

The same situation is characteristic for the supply of equipment, machines and instruments necessary for the miniplants. The number of the potential suppliers is even greater here. Therefore, it seems, the procurement will not be hampered by lack of suppliers or of competition, even if the buyer has to limit its procurement basis to a few developed countries.

This situation is, however, different with regard to possible suppliers from the developing countries. Process equipment delivery possibilities for the different and fertilizers should be investigated separately in order to formulate a clear picture.

Ammonia and ammonia-processing is a field where very few developing countries have proprietary processes and know-how. Perhaps the People's Republic of China is the only one. however, have capable engineering and con-Several others, tracting organisations with sufficient experience in this field such as India and Mexico. These organisations can provide the necessary services for erection and start-up, too. Training possibilities exist in quite a number of countries: having similar mini-plants.

. Phosphate fertilizers present a somewhat better picture. Due to the phosphate rock deposits, several, mainly North countries have facilities, experience and even African processes for the mini-plants and can supply engineering and other services

Due to the very broad spectrum of the equipment needed for a fertilizer plant; nearly every kind of capital good is necessary from heat exchangers through pumps, compressors to electric motors, gears and material handling equipment and instruments it would be impossible to give a complex

picture on the delivery possibilities offered by the developing world. The rapid improvement occurring in the manufacturing capability of many a country would make this attempt obsolate in a very short time. Therefore, this study refers to the "Catalogue of Technical Capabilities in Developing Countries" to be compiled, annually updated and circulated by UN:DO. This catalogue described the specific areas in the development of the fertilizer industry in which developing countries have sufficient experience and technical competence to offer cooperation to other countries.

This cooperation can be extended to the following areas:

- (a) Continuation of fertilizer supply and production planning for a given region.
- (b) Common realisation of mini fertilizer projects either:
	- (ba) where one plant could more economically serve to supply an agricultural area extending in the territory of two or more countries
	- (bb) where the project could be advaritageously implemented by technical cooperation among the interested parties. Examples of cooperation possibilities include delivery of know-huw, engineering, procurement, equipment, training and services or even turn-key projects realised together.
- (c) Financial cooperation, where the financing of mini-plants in one country could be compensated by raw material or product export.
- (d) Transfer of knowledge and experiences in planning, erection, operation and maintenance from the countries that have established fertilizer industry to the beginners.
- (e) Training of the future staff of mini--plants in countries having already such facilities.

Cooperation on a regional level would be the best way to start with and could be extended to global dimensions. The different regional organisations: Arab Federation of Chemical Fertilizer Producers, Central American Economic Integration, and other African and Asian organisations, similar to the two above mentioned, have made encouraging steps and registered promising results in other fields. The extension of their activity to the mini-fertilizer plants should be encouraged.

6.3 Estimate of investment needs

6.3.l Estimate of the investment cost for the supply of typical mini-fertilizer plants

The investment and production costs of several process technologies for all fertilizer production steps are calculated and discussed in Chapter 3 and in Appendix 3/1. These costs are considered for some unit-capacities (small and large) and for three locations (developed: We5t-Europa, developing: seaside and remote locations).

From data above mentioned, in Table 6.3-1 the investment costs of typical mini-fertilizer units in developing countries are summarized for the three main fertilizer products (urea, ammoniumnitrate and single superphosphate), according to raw materials and locations, and for storehouse with bulk blending unit according to locations. By all means, these investment costs are the total fixed capital costs including the cost of each technological steps (e.g. in case of ammoniumnitrate: ammonia, nitric acid, ammoniumnitrate) and necessary offsites, but excluding working capital.

Investment costs of typical mini-fertilizer

plants in developing countries (million US Dollar; in 1983)

Nitrogen-fertilizer units

Phosphate-fertilizer units

Storehouse and bulk blending linits

6.3.2 Total investment needs for the 1990's and 2000

Taking the data available froa Tables 4.6-1 to 4.6-4 the total investment needs can be calculated for the minifertilizer production units in the developing countries. It is supposed that about two-thirds of the plants will be built at seaside, the others at remote locations. The tatal investment needs in million US Dollar (1983) are:

Table 6.3-2

Total investment needs

It means that almost about 25 thousand millions US Dollar would be necessary up to 2000 for establishing n itrogen and phosphate fertilizer plants on mini-scale in the developing countries.

To this sum the cost of the developing of the adequate handling and distribution system must be added, which can be estimated about 10 billion US Dollar.

This system must be developed in^t case of supplying the farms with imported fertilizers, too. Thus the developing of distribution and warehouse system is not; connected so much with the fertilizer industry as with the agriculture.

For the guidance of our publications programme in order to assist in our publication activities, we would appreciate your completing the questionnaire below and returning it to UNIDO, Division for Industrial Studies, P.O. Box

OUESTIONNAIRE

Mini-Fertilizer Plant Projects

300, A-1400 Vienna, Austria

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- (8) Do you wish to receive the latest list of documents prepared by the Division for Industrial Studies?
- (9) Any other comments?

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MINI-FERTILIZER PLANT PROJECTS **APPENDICES**

Sectoral Studies Series No.7, Volume II

SECTORAL STUDIES BRANCH DIVISION FOR INDUSTRIAL STUDIES Main results of the study work on industrial sectors &re presented in the Sectoral Studies Series. In addition a series of Sectoral Working Papers is issued.

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Freface

This document constitutes the appendices to the study "Mini Fertilizer Projects, Volume I" and contains apart from details regarding the sources of information, statistical material concerning the development of fertilizer consumption and special sections on the methodology of evaluation, the raw material potential in developing countries, as well as potential users of mini fertilizer plants.

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countries

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Appendix 4/4 Potential users of mini-fertilizer plants

Ξ

Appendix i/l - Sources of information for the study

1. Reply to questionnaires from contractors and process ovners:

Positive answers received from:

C.F. Braun and Co. John Brown Engineers and Construction Ltd Haldor Topsoe Krupp-Koppers GmbH Société Chimique de la Grand Paroisse Sim-Chem Ltd Snamprogetti S.p.A. Uhde GmbH Voest Alpine

Negative answers:

Five companies returned negative answers.

No answer:

1wenty-six companies did not reply.

2. Reply to questionnaires from plant owners in developing countries:

Answers:

Fertilizantes Nitrogenados do Nordeste St. Salvador Azot Sanayii T.A.S. Turkey Chemical Company of Malaysia Berhad. Malaysia National Agricultural Chemicals and Fertilizer Ltd, Kenya

No answer:

Twenty-five companies did not return questionnaires.

Appendix $1/1$

3. Direct contacts

3.1 Contractors and process owners:

Haldor Topsoe A/S, Copenhagen, Denmark Humphreys and Glasgow Ltd, London, England Imperial Chemical Industries (ICI), Billingham, England Krupp-Koppers GmbH, Essen, Germany KTI-Kinetics Technologie, Holland Société Chimique de la Grand Paroisse, Paris, France Uhde GmbH, Dortmund, Germany Voest-Alpine AG, Linz, Austria

3.2 Information material supplied by FAO, Rome:

a. Information issued by FAO: Fertilizer Yearbook 1981 Agriculture toward 2000 Input requirements: Production, consumption, export/import figures from fertilizer year 1970/71 to $81/82$, by nutrients and by type of fertilizers Pata of land use, by countries, 1971-1981 Current world fertilizer situation and outlook 1980/81-1986/87 Commission on fertilizers, eighth session, Rome, 31 January to 3 February, 1983 b. Information issued by Bureau of Mines:

Minerals Yearbook, 1981 (US Dept. of Interior) reprints

potash sulphur phosphate rock

4. UNIDO information material:

Internal working papers:

Opportunities for establishment of mini fertilizer plants in developing countries Potential for setting up mini fertilizer plants World fertiiizer situation 1975-1981 and outlook in the 1980s Market study for mini fertilizer plants for developing countries

Appendix 1/1

5. Lahore Seminar

The seminar on mini fertilizer plants vas organized by UNIDO, 15 - 20 November, 1982. Forty-five papers vere presented. Out of these, 19 came from industrialized, 26 from developing countries. Thirty dealt vith processes (out of these 11 presented nev technological aspects) and 18 dealt with financial problems.

6. Technical conference on ammonia fertilizer technology for promotion of economic co-operation among developing countries, Beijing

The conference vas organized by UNIDO, 13-28 March, 1982. Thirty-seven papers were presented. Seven of these come from industrialized and 30 from developing countries.

7. Others

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World Fertilizer Atlas, Sixth Edition, The British Sulphur Corporation Ltd. , 1979

Phosphoric Acid, Outline of the Industry, The British Sulphur Corporation Ltd., 1980

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 A ; pendix $2/1$

Table 1. World Consumption of Fertilizers, by Regions 1975/76-1980/81

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Sources: FAO Pertilizer Yearbooks 1979, 1980, 1981

FAO /UNIEO/ World Bank Working Group on Pertilizers, June 1982

Appendix 2/1

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Appendix $2/1$

Table 2. World Fertilizer Consumption Growth Rates, by Regions 1975/76-1980/81

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x/ Including Asia from Centrally Planned Economies

 \mathbf{I} \overline{L} $\pmb{\mathfrak{g}}$

Table 2 /cont'd/

Source: FAO Fertilizer Yearbook, 1981.

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FAO /UNIDO/ World Bank Working Group on Fertilizers, June 1982.

x/ Including Asia from Centrally Planned Economies

Appendix $\frac{5}{1}$ - Methods used for economic evaluation in the study

(Comparison of investment and production cost for mini and big plants

> - in a developed site (Vest-Europe) - in developing sites (seaside and remote location)

Introduction

If an economic comparison is made of ammonia production e.g. in a large single train plant $(1000-1500$ tpd) with a smaller plant (say, 200 tpd) and considering only technical factors then the conclusion may well be reached that the specific production cost per ton of product is lower in the larger plant. This will be due to the economies of scale in equipment costs and increased energy efficiencies. However, such comparisons ignore a number of factors and possible external constraints which will affect the plant's construction and operation and thereby alter the true economics of production.

Smaller capacity plants are quicker to build and will generally reach their design output in a much shorter time after initial plant start-up. The time saved may well be 2-3 years in total. Longer construction time means higher costs of pre-operating interest and a deferment of the date when natural resources or locally available feedstocks can be profitably converted into product and markets can begin to be satisfied. Meeting the technical and infrastructure needs of a large plant can 2lso impose undue burdens upon existing infrastructure particularly in developing countries. Most types of :ertilizer plant reQuire a large source of fresh water to operate efficiently and product must be removed quickly from the plant if costs of maintaining inventories are not to become excessive. Specialized technical staff for the operation of complex process facili-ies will normally need to be brought into the area in which the plant is to be built and, depending on the local availability cf skilled and qualified manpower, a high proportion of the staff in the initial years of operation may well be expatriates. The need to accomodate and support a large expatriate staff must be taken into account and may result in undue extra costs and burdens on the social infrastructure in a developing country e.g. housing, schools, hospitals.

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Appendix $3/1$

Amidst all the arguments on the relative economics of small and large plants it must not be forgotten that the ultimate aim of any plant is to satisfy the existing or projected demand for its product. Where a reasonably large local demand already exists for a product then the choice of plant size will usually be based upon satisfying this demand with its projected growth over some reasonable period of time. Substitution of fertilizer imports with local product is usually adequate justification for the plant but the necessity to consider the economics of production then exists in order to determine whether imported products may be cheaper and whether product initially surplus to existing demand can be profitably sold in other markets.

The term "economic size" is usually interpreted in the context of process plants to mean the size beyond which unit cost of production would cease to show any marked decrease. Various factors will affect this "break-point" for any particular project situation and the eventual choice of plant size must be a balanced decision taking into account firstly the market situation and secondly the results of evaluating capacity related economic factors.

The economies achieved by large plants in industrialized countries are rarely achievable in De-

 $-14 -$

veloping Countries. However, smaller plants in developing countries can, if properly conceived and operated, produce economies which will approach those of large plants in Industrialized Countries. Therefore when taking into acccunt savings in foreign exchange and the advantages of security and stability of supply, a plant can be justified at much lower capacity than would be so in the Developed World.

The question whether a minior a big plant should be established in a developing country and where it should be installed is not only a function of the local market, the availability of raw materials, the specific investment and production costs, but quite a numter of other factors must be taken into consiaeration, too.

Such points are, for example:

- The distance between the deposits of the raw material nnd the area *of* utilization;
- Conditions for the infrastructure, utility provisions, erection and operating personal availability etc.;
- Transport and storage facilities;
- Quality and quantity of the local raw materials available;

- Market conditions, transport facilities of the finished product etc.

The investment and operating costs of the plants to be established, on the other hand is a function of the following factors:

- capacity;
- technology;
- characteristics of the site;
- local laws, technical, economic and other prevailing rules and regulations.

In order to compare the economic value of the different possible solutions of the same supply problem the following method is applied.

Summary of the methodology adopted

Based on conceptual deliterations with the methodological description and the detailed calculations, the total investment coats for a plant in an industrially developed country were established from the battery limit investment coats. The investment cost for the same in a developing country were derived by application of factors. The factors used are given in the Appendix 3/1 referred to.

As the projects in every case have teen examined for identical site conditions, it is necessary to indicate the local conditions defined by the denominations /developed site, seaside location, remote location/.

Developed site - West Europe

Means a site with developed infrastructure and high technical background, where a staff of well-trained experts and an established logistic system are available.

Developing site: seaside location

Means a site where the infrastructure has to be partly developed. This and the time necessary for its realization must be taken into account as a cost-increasing factor. Transport facilities are restricted but a sea or river harbour is available. Construction and operation are to be performed partly by less skilled labour.

Developing site: remote location

Means a continental /inner/ site where no infrastructure is existing and in lack of a highway/railway network, transport difficulties should be reckoned with. The realization period is prolonged, partly by the former factors, partly by unskilled and unexperienced labour. All these justify a further increase of costs.

When establishing the factors used for the investment cost estimation on the previously defined sites, factors like: customs prescription, risks, differing transport and financing conditions etc., are not considered, since these may only be estimated in knowledge of the actual conditions; their generalization does not seem reasonable.

Several studies deal with the estimation of factors necessary for establishing the investment cost requirements with plants to be realized in developing countries. The most detailed evaluation method among them is given by the study of the Gulf Organization for Industrial Consulting /1/, it compares, by a weighting-evaluating system for every factor, an investment being realized in three types of developing countries on different development levels, to the investment costs of a similar object in the USA.

The results, as compared to USA investment costs, $are:$

> 1./ For a "relatively developed" developing factor: 1.35 country

> 2./ For a "less developed" developing factor: 2.10 country

> 3./ For a quite underdeveloped country, factor: 3.05

These factors, however, consider not ouly the total investment cost but also the contracting and financial possibilities.

/1/ Anon: Construction, production and distribution cost of petrochemical projects. GOIC Seminar, Dona, Quatar, 20th Sept. 2nd Oct. 1979.

In the study of the UNIDO/OPEC found the following gtatement $/1/$.

In an 1978 UNIDO paper /2/, it can tw found that the local factors are very difficult to estimate. It is mentioned that the TVA calculations generalJ.y consider a factor of 1.25 but many other authors think it to be low.

The factor used in this paper for an ammonia-urea plant is

A factor of practically the same value is considered in a paper elatorated likewise by π .P. Sheldrick /3/ for a 1000 t/d ammonia and 1700 t/d urea plant are estimated

^{/1/} Anon: Opportunities for cooperation among developing countries for the establishment of petrochemical industries
ONIDO/OPEC Fund Seminar, Vienna, 7-9 March, 1933

^{/2/}Anon: W.P. Sheldrick:: Investment and production coat of tart ilizere UNIDO, 2nd Cons.Meeting on Fert.Ind., Innsbruck, iuatria, 6-10 Nov. 1978

^{/3/} Anon: W.F. Scheldrick: Investment and production costs
for fertilizers. FAQ Commission on Fertilizers Bth Session, Rome, 31.Jan. - J.Febr., 1983

Appendix $3/1$

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as follows:

1.0 /231 $\&$ ollar/ developed site developing site 1.4 /323 MDollar/ /some infrastructure/ developing site /remote location/ 1.75 /405 WDollar/

In this study the following factors for the total general investment costs are applied:

Investment costs

The first phase of the economical evaluation is the examination of the capital expenditure necessary for the fulfilment of a given requirement by domestic production. The amount of capital needed influences of course also the production costs. When establishing the total investment costs for the objects examined, the following procedure has been followed:

Appendix $3/1$

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Developed site

A) Total investment cost:

To the cost requirement calculated within the battery limit, we added the off-sites costs to be expected; the amount of it makes, according to literature data and our own experiences, abt. 30 per cent of the full investment cost. Both the battery limit and off-sites costs were broken down into equipment and local costs. This breakdown is based, within the battery limits, on the detailed cost calculation but, generally, the proportion may be estimated to be 70: 30 per cent.

Within the off-site costs, the breakdown has been estimated - on the basis of experience - to be as follows:

> equipment 40 per cent local cost...... 60 per cent

We already established total investment cost has been broken down into the following cost factors (based on calculation and proportions given by experience).

B/ Total investment cost

- licence, know-how /percentage within cattery limits/
- $-$ engineering /percentage within battery limits $+$ + 3 per cent off-sites coat/

- equipment / costs for battery limit plus offsite equipment, from which the extra given licence, know-how and engineering costs have ceen suctracted/

- site oreparation etc. covers preparation,

civil work and other costs

Developing site

the investment costs to be expected may be derived from the costs estimated on the basis of developed country $/i.e.$ West-Europe/, considering different factors. The factor values characterize those condition differences increasing the costs which will $-$ up to our opinion $-$ influence the establishment of a small or big plant, resp. on different sites of developing countries and which cannot be calculated in a concise manner.

For the total investment costs calculated with the different estimated factors, the following average factors were found:

 $\texttt{small plants}$ - seaside lccation 1.27 - 1.29 remote location 1.43 - 1.50 Arpendix 3/1

big plants - seaside location 1.47 - 1.49 remote location 1.91 - 1.93

Detailed indications of the factors used in the calculations are given in the following table. */A* **3/1.1/** The investment costs have been estimated on the price level for the year 1983.

Production costs

The production costs have beer. calculated for 1 ton of product, with consideration of the capacity given in t/d and the on-stream factor.

The on-stream factor is: for a West-Europe realization with all plant sizes 90 per cent for develoring countries with small plants 90 per cent with big plants 75 per cent

The basis for material and energy costs is the specific requirement determined by the technology; labour costs have been calculated on basis of the necessary yearly staff. The costs proportional to the means (fixed costs) are a function of the investment costs. Prices and costs factors utilized have been summarized in an extra table.

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Appendix $3/1$ Table A $3/1.1$

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Costs calculated for l ton of product have been increased by the sum of R.O.I. calculated likewise for 1 t (15 per cent). Costs on the basic materials have not been shown among the materials themselves but in consideration of the price ranges given for the sites, for the value increased by R.O.I.

According to **the** supposition, a plant should only be founded in a developing country if the basic materials occur in the country; thus, the unit prices of the basic materials have not simply been entered into the calculation on international market prices but also at an estimated value representing the costs of local extraction. Only sulphur has been considered to form an exception since it cannot be taken as usual that raw phsophate and sulphur occur simultaneously, on one site.

The value thus found represents the product value at the factory gate, to be still increased by distribution costs up to the end user. The magnitude of distribution costs is determined by the area to be furnished which again depends on the plant capacity.

Appendix $3/1$ - 26 -

The distribution costs have been estimated, with small plants, for a supply region of 100 km in diameter and with big plants, *tor* a supply area of 300 km in diameter. Here, as a matter of fact, we had to rely on data from the literature. These costs may be estimated with a small plant at 15 $\cancel{5}/t$ and with big plants, at 60 S/t.

3oth the importance of the supply region and the distribution costs for 1 to of product depend on the local conditions and on the specific consumption of nutrients used *tor* 1 ha of soil; therefore, considerable scattering of these costs may be imagined.

The costs on 1 t of product so far summarized are characteristic for the costs at the end users /farm-gate price/, without considering the application costs; we have not concentrated on these costs since they are identical whether the product comes from a small or from a big plant or even if it is an imported fertilizer.

The farm-gate price calculated from the complexes on l t of finished fertilizer product may be compared to the costs of 1 t of imported fertilizer of equal quality, also at farm-gate price.

The costs of the latter have been determined

starting from the costs of 1 t of product (nitrogen fertilizer) manufactured in a European big plant, out of natural gas (with a heat price of 5.9 and 11.8%/Gcal), increased by sea transport charges (in average, $70\frac{3}{t}$), and in case of remote location, by the land freight charges (in average, say 25 $\frac{g}{t}$) plus the usual distribution costs for a region of identical dimension than that of the home production.

Further, we ccnsidered as characteristic the total investment costs on 1 t, with the fertilizer plants of different capacities and different basic materials (the specific investment cost) which have been found by dividing the total investment costs by the yearly production figures, while taking into calculation the on-stream factors.

Unit prices, capital-related and labour-related cost

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Utilities:X

^XNo diffefence has been made in the prices of utilities for developed and developing countries, the investment cost of utility objects having been increased by factors characteristical for the site, in the case of developing sitas.

Appendix 3/1

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Product: Nitric acid Ruw material: Location: Developed site, West-Europe

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Product: Nitric acid

Ruw material:

Location: Developing site, Seaside

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Product: Nitric acid Ray material: Location: Developing site, Remote

Location: Developed site, West-Europa

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Anmonium nitrate Product:

Raw material:

Location: Developing site, Seaside

Product: Ammonium nitrate

Raw material:

Location: Developing site, Remote

Froduct: Urea

Raw material:

Location: Developed site, Mast-Europe

Raw material:

Location: Developing site, Remote

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Froduct: Sulphuric acid

Sulphuric acid

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Raw material: phosphate rock

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Specific investment cost $\frac{1}{2}$ /t/y product

Table 2-2

Specific investment cost \$/t/y product

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Total investment costs of amachia- urea complexes

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Total investment cost of ammonia-nitric acid-ammonium nitrate complexes

Total investment costs of phosphate

complexes

Appendix $3/1$ - 61 - Table 4-1.1

Specific investment costs of ammonia -nitric-acidammonium nitrate, ammonia-urea complexes Sp#\$/t/y Armonium-nitrate

Table $4-1.2$

Specific investment costs of 1 t N in amnonia - nitric acid - ammonium nitrate, ammonia-urea complexes

 $Sp.I.J/t N/y$ Raw material: natural gas

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Specific investment costs of phosphate complexes

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With the lowest ammonia cost and the lowest price of phosphate rook

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Table $5-2.8$

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Product value at factory gate

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Table 6-1.1.1

Value of 1 t N at factory gate

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Product value at factory gate

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Product value at factory gate

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 $x = \frac{1}{2}$

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Table 6-1.3

Table $6-2$

Product value at factory gate

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Parm-gate prices

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Appendix $3/1$ Table 7-2

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Farm-gate prices

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Appendix 3/2 - Brief introduction to the use of mathematicl programming

This appendix tries to give a short examination on the use of some computer-aided mathematical methods of decision making. No theoretical knowledge of these methods is expected from the reader. This brief inspection attempts to infroduce the topic especially from a practical approach. As the theoretical results and practical facilities now provide a rather wide scale of sophisticated techniques, the example to be given below should not be considered characteristic to any real problem neither in its content nor in its technique, it should be taken only as an introductory excercise. In spite of this it may give some inspect to the problems of mathematical programming.

Coming to a decision among several possible solutions is always a difficult matter. Among the reasons of this at the first place the troubles of gathering information in its most general sense should be mentioned. Information means not only the necessary technico-economic data to the given problem, it involves the knowledge of the special, local conditions, the expectations or wishes of the various groups and organs.

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Respectively, in an investment decision making it is always inevitable to adjust the various viewpoints and interests. For this purpose the elaborating of realistic, treatable model to the problem may give much help. Along this process the conflicting interests may be more objectively expressed through a model and the results drawn from it can be more easily regarded by the participants as reasonable consequences to be taken into consideration.

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Some very characteristic problems of ecenomic mathematical modelling are shown below. The viewpoint of this listing is the necessary special mathematicalcomputational treatment/:

1. Scheduling of production and sales

Any producing unit may have the problem to find the best structure of production in the best timing and physical settling. The word "best" means either a technical or an economic objective.

2. Transportation problems

Having a table of distances between possible sites special methods are available for the finding of the least total transportation cost.

3. The fix charge problems of productions, sales, etc.

If one can not adnit that the cost of production or saling is proportionate to the size of these activities some different methods should be applied. In the most simple case above the fix charges, like the over-all costs, interests, amortization, etc. the further costs may be regarded linear.

4. Investment problems

With investment problems often several questions similar to $1.-3.$ should be solved simultaneously. From the former parts of this study one can understand the several logical assumptions connected to problems of this kind. In addition, the goalo themselves may be rather comlex. Here only just some possible separate goals are mentioned /there are some methods of taking more of them into consideration at the same time/:

- maximum of profits,

- minimum of costs,
- maximum of employment

- maximum of the balance of hard currency, etc. Namely in connection with the modelling of satisfying fertilizer demands it may be useful to take the

following aspects into consideration. There are several possible ways to meet some demand and, even within this, a number of variants may be realized. To make a thorough calculation for their economical results to be expected, all of them would require on the one side roundabout manual work and on the other side such a calculation would still not necessarily represent the best possible solution /in the economical sense/, it may happen that a relatively small sacrifice /e. g. a little higher investment/ would result a far higher profit.

The problem may be drafted in the following form: what are the possible ways of meeting the demands and their fulfilment most economically, in other words finding the variants that yield supposing nearly equivalent expenditures /such as investment, energies, labour etc./ the highest sum of profit? The question, however, may be given this way,too: which variant would satisfy the objective at the lowest possible expenditure /investment and production/? One characteristic type tends to find the most economical product structure of a given unit /considering market conditions/ and to distribute the end product at the lowest possible cost namely with this

present topic - to satisfy the fertilizer demands of a given country, territory, farm etc. most economically.

In such a case, production and investment variants may come from the following:

- the sort of the fertilizer and its raw material,

- its amount,

- the size,

- the technology,

- the site of the plant /plants/ to be established,

- the level of satisfying the demand etc.

It should be supposed that the demand might be fulfilled via buying /importing/ or by production; the plant to be established may have a size just to meet the local demands, but in pricnciple /if motivated by market and other conditions/ it might also provide other selling /e. g. for export/.

The described system is called a multivariable aupply model; in order to provide data for it, naturally certain local conditions and technological data must be known, such as the available:

- sorts and quantities of raw materials,
- infrastructure,
- financial resources,
- labour, etc.

The above indicated /and other possible/ factors determine, to a certain extent, the variants to be considered; they are called the constraints.

Accordingly, the model may be written as follows:

demand=production - expert + import. Within this, naturally, every factor may note several variants. The computer programme is able to handle all of them simultaneously, and to select, based on the data of the given variants, the solution which is most apt to the objective function. The drawing up of the objective function is always a task of the persons performing the examination and may be, on the basis of the different aspects, rather different.

As for an example which solution gives the lowest costs, the highest sum of profit, or requires the least labour, energy, infrastructure, /depending on the bottle-necks/, etc.? Thus, the examination or series of examinations made as mentioned gives an answer to the question that which of the possible productions, investments and foreign trade activities /as variants/ are to be performed, in a given period, in order to meet a

certain demand or requirement; what should be their size and proportion that they

- not exceed the limited resources(investment costs, raw materials, labour)
- give a minimum of the costs of a supply or a maximum of the profits (optimum programme).

Should, for some reason, the solution found by the computer programme (e.g., for meeting a demand) require further examination, there is no problem in performing this additional calculation. The numerical data and the objective functions of the model may be varied if necessary but introducing new variables or constraints into the system does not cause any technical obstacle either. One of the basic advantages of this analysing method is that new series of calculations may be quickly performed with rather complex problems, too.

The other advantage is that sensibility analyses may be accomplishet, too. These show the effect of the modifying of the most important economic data /costs, prices, etc./ and constraints on the objective function and the optimum programme.

Naturally models are always less or more simplified images of reality and somewhat subjective in

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Appendix 3/2

the sense that both the possibilities and the restraints together with their data basis may be disputed, nevertheless subjectivity is mostly limited to this area only. In connection with the compilation of a model the importance of the knowledge and skill of the local experts of the developing country e annot be emphasized enough. While most of the technical-economic data and the several, more or less plausible conditions may be elaborated even by foreign experts, they can not do without the support of the local experts in forming the special, local conditions.

It may be important to mention that even the moet precise and complicated models can give an answer only to the questions of the model and not to the real problem. For this reason it is necessary to analyse the results with critics knowing that there were several factors that were not considered at all, or if they were limitations of modelmaking perhaps they did not render the theoretically best solutions possible.

At last, the building of the model and the changing of some interdepending elements should be a process parallel with the whole course of decision-

making. It ought to have an active role in it. Only this way a model provide useful replies to the given questions, or may be new aspects for further investigations.

First here is an attempt to give a short information of the most widely spread technique called linear programming through presenting a numerical example. After some extentions of this method like the non-linear, the stochastic programming, etc. are shown with some practical remarks.

Let us assume that a country /a branch of industry, a firm, etc./ has the following problem: which is the relatively best way of satisfying a minimal home supply of a product "A" supposed that this should cause the maximal increase /or if this is not possible the least decrease/ in the balance of hard currency /given e.g. in million US $\frac{1}{2}$? There are the possibilities of either a home production, where the surplus may be exported, or of the importation of "A". Let the home production basically depend on one important raw material, called "B" /also in 1000 tons/, where "B" is available.

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The specific use of "B" to "A" is a known amount. An other restriction is that both the home production of "A" and "B" and the foreign trade need. some given amounts of manpower depending on the size of these activities, and the total of this manpower can not exceed an upper limit /given in persons/. The per unit costs and incomes of the home productions and the foreign trade activities in the given hard currency /million US $\frac{4}{3}$ are known as well.

A mathematical programming model generally has three basic elements. 1. the activities, 2. the objective function, and 3. the constraints. The activities are the unknown variables of the problem. The set of these activities is often called the programme. /The term "mathematical programming" refers to this trying to make distinction from the other everyday meanings of the word "programming" and of the term "computer programming", which is the way of teaching an electronic computer/.

In this example these are only four activities /real great problems may have several thousands of them/:

> X_1 = home production of"A", X_2 = exportation of "A",

 x_7 = importation of "A", x_A = exportation of "B".

The task is to find the best of all the feasible solutions, the optimal one. The optimum criterion is always formed in an objective function in mathematical programming. Supposed that a unit of an activity causes the following changes in the balance of hard currency /in million US $\frac{g}{f}$:

 x_1 -9 /the cost of producting "A"/ x_2 -12 /the income from the exporting of "A"/ x_3 -14 /the cost of importing "A"/ x_4 + 8 /the income from the exporting of "B"/ Now the objective function will have the following form:

$$
y = 9x_1 + 12x_2 - 14x_3 + 8x_4.
$$

The optimum /here this means the maximum/ of y is to be founded.

Having no restrictions in connection with the activities, the value of y might be unlimited. The system of these limitations /given in the mathematical form/ are called the constraints of the problem.

This example is supposed to have three constraints: 1. The total consumption of "B" /the use to "A" de-

pending on x_1 and the exportation x_4' should not exceed a supposed given quantity /here, $e_{e}g$.:20/. 0.4 tons of "B" is needed to produce a unit of "A":

$$
0.4x_1 + x_4 \le 20
$$

2. Let the total available manpower be limited /e.g. 370/. Let the following number of persons be required to run a unit gf an activity:

```
x_1 ........10
x_2 ......... 2
x_3 \ldots x_n 1
x_4 \ldots \ldots \ldots 13
```
Supposed that the required manpower is propertional to the scale of any activity the following constraint may be written:

$$
10x_1 + 2x_2 + 1x_3 + 13x_4 \le 370
$$

3. The minimal home supply of "A" should reach a supposed given value /here: 40/. This. may be statisfied either through home production or foreign trade. Mixed solutions are also allowed:

$$
x_1 - x_2 + x_3 \le 40
$$

The problem now is comlete. There are several methods known which are proper for solving this problem. One of the best known of these is called

the Simplex Method. It would not be worth to show here any of these methods in their details because on the one hand it would be difficult to understand them without their mathematical background and on the other hand any of the problems of this type can bel solved by well elaborated and tested computer programmes generally available at all the computer centres.

/Real problems with much greater sizes technically are not executable in a manual way./

Any method of linear programming results the optimal solution to the given problem:

$$
x_1 = 18.421,
$$

\n
$$
x_2 = 0
$$

\n
$$
x_3 = 21,579,
$$

\n
$$
x_4 = 12.632
$$

This optimal programme with the values of the unknown variables substituted into the equation of the objective function /y/ results the following.

 $y = -9$ x 18.421 + 12 x 0 - 14 x 21.579 + 8 x 12.632

 $y = -366.842$

This programme does not give a positive balance of the hard currency but it is still the best within the given constraints.

It can be seen at this optimal solution, that the importance of the various constraints is not equal.

In other words, if the limits had been a unit less, what an increase would have they caused in the objective function? The computational methods give an answer to this question, too:

- 1. constraint $+ 1.842$,
- 2. constraint 0.474,
- $3. constant$ -14.474

Obviously the bottle-neck the problem is the mimimum home supply of "A" /the 3 rd constraint/

Insisting on a unit increase of this home supply would cause more than 14 million U~ *\$* plus expenditure while on the other hand a unit surplus of the raw material "B" could improve the balance with nearly two million dollars.

Even from this very small example one can feel the problems of model making the execution of the computations and the analysis of the results.

Theoretically, the proportionality of the costs

and incomes to the size of the activity is not a plausible assumption. Some costs, like the fix char- ~ ges of the foreign trade are quite independent of the turnover. The scale of economy of the investments is not linear either.

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These problems may be treated properly through various methods of nonlinear programming. Problems with logical factors (e.g. where more activities are excluding each other/ or problems with given discrete scales /like the possible sizes of investments or the unknown number of machines, etc./ require similar treatment. The difference methods of nonlinear programming try fo find optimal solutions to these problems but these methods are much more troublesome, more expensive regarding their practical utilization.

Different solutions may be needed from an even more complicated approach to these questions if one assumes that neither the inputs nor the outputs of the models are fixed /deterministic/ values. Allowing the constants of a model to be probability variables, that is supposing that they are also unsure values with certain mathematical characteristics a stoachastic model to the problem may be worked out. Though probably the nonlinear and stoachstic models

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Appendix $3/2$

give the most appropriate description of the real circumstances, the modelling and especially the mathe- ~atical-computational problems are far not sufficiently solved yet. In spite of this one may take such factors into consideration in certain cases. Without any special selecting principle some works dealing with these problems in details are mentioned in Reference.

In the framework of an appendix it is impossible touch all the problems connected to the whole topic. The purpose was only to give some methodolcgical introduction. A basic problem was not mentioned yet, that the well organized cooperation of the special technical, economic and computer experts gives the clue to the application of any of these methods. Only assuming this teamwork it $_{\text{max}}$ be guaranteed that the expenses of a computer aided mathematical project return through the more objective, more realistic decisions coming from the variants that one could have not known without these modern facilities.

References

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- (2) Avriel, M. Rijckaert, M. J. Wilde, D. J. (eds.): Optimization and Design. Prentice-Hall, Englewood Cliffs 1973.
- (3) Beveridge, G.S.G. Schechter, R. S.: Optimization: Theory and Practice. McGraw-Hill, 1970.
- (4) Dantzig, $G.B.:$

Linear Programming and Extensions. Princeton Univ. Press, Princeton 1963.

(5) Künzi, H.P. - Krelle, W.: Nichtlineare Programmierung. Springer, Berlin 1962.

Appendix $4/1$ - Fertilizer consumption in developing countries in 1976/77 - 1960/81

N - CONSUMPTION

Table 1/1

1000 t N

Category I /less than 1000 t/

Remarks to all the tables in Appendix 4/1:

1 - Consumption in 1980/81

Source: FAO Fertilizer Yearbook, 19dl.

2 - Data from papers prepared for UNIDO Seminar, Lahore, November 1982.

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 $-135 Table 1/1 /cont./$ </u>

N-CONSUMPTION, 1000 t N
Category I

N-CONSUMPTIUN, 1000 t N Category I

Appendix $4/1$ - 137 - Table 1/2

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N - C 0 N 5 u H P i l 0 N 1000 t N

Category II /1-10/

N-CONSUMPTION, 1000 t N
Category II

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N-CONSUMPTION, 1000 t N Category II

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$-140 Table \qquad 1/3$ N - CONSUMPTION $1000 t N$

Category III /10-40/

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 $Table 1/3 /cont. /$

N-CONSUMPTION, 1000 t N
Category III

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 $Table 1/4$

N - C O N S U M P T I O N $1000 t N$

Category IV /40-70/

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N-CONSUMPTION, 1000 t N Category IV

Appendix $4/1$ -144 - Table 1/5

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N - C 0 N S U M P f I 0 N 1000 t N

Category V /70-100/

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 $Table 1/5/cont.$ </u>

N-CONSUMPTION, 1000 t N
Category V

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N - CONSUMPTION 1000 t N

 $-146 -$

 $\frac{\text{Category VI}}{\text{100-200}}$

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N-CONSUMPTION, 1000 t N Category VI

Table $1/7$

 $Appendix 4/1$

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N - CONSUMPTION $1000 t N$

Category VII /Over 200/

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$Table 1/7$ /cont./

- 149 -

N-CONSUMP~ION, 1000 t N Category Vil

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 $Table 2/1$

P₂₀₅ - CONSUMPTION

1000 t P205

Category I /less than 1000 t/

P₂05-CONSUMPTION, 1000 P₂05
Category I

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P₂0₅ - C 0 N S U M P T I 0 N iooo t P205

 $Categorical_V II / 1-10/$

P205-CONSUMPTION, 1000 t P205 Category II

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 $- 153 -$

Table 2/2 /cont./

P₂0₅-CONSUMPTION, 100C t P₂0₅ Category II

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Appendix $4/1$ - 155 - $Table 2/3$

P20s - C 0 N S U M P T I 0 N 1000 t P205

 $Category$ III /10-40/

rz05-CONSUHrTION, iOOO t P205 Category III

$\frac{1}{2}$ Table 2/4

- 157 -

P20s C 0 N S U M P i I 0 N 1000 t P205

 $Categorical$ IV $/40-70/$

- 153 -

 $Table 2/4$ /cont./

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P205-CONSUMPTION, 1000 t P205 Category IV

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Appendix 4/1

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P₂05 - C 0 N 5 U M P T I U N 1000 t Pz05 Table 2/5

Category V /70-100/

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Appendix $4/1$ - 160 -

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 $Table 2/5$ /cont./

PzG5-CONSUMPTICN, 1000 t P20s Category V

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Table 2/6

P₂₀₅ - CONSUMPTION 1000 t P₂0₅

Category VI /over 100/

PERSONAL AREA

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 \cdot \bullet $- 152 -$ Table 2/6 /cont./

P20s-CONSUMPTION, 1000 t P20s <u>Category VI</u>

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 $-263 Table 3/1$

K₂0 - C 0 N S U M F T I 0 N

1000 t K20

Category I /less than 1000 t/

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KzO-CONSUMPTION, 1000 t KzO Category I

<code>K₂O-CONSUMPTION, 1000 t K $_2$ O</code> Category I

Appendix $4/1$ Table $3/2$

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K₂O - C O N S U M P T I O N 1000 t KzO

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Category II /1-10/

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Category II /1-10/

K20-CONSUMPTION, 1000 t K20 Category II

 $Table 3/3$

~O - C 0 N 5 U M P T I 0 N 1000 t KzO

Category III /10-40/

KzO-CONSUMPTION, 1000 t K20 Category III

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Appendix 4/1

 $Table 3/4.$

KzO - C 0 N S U M P T I 0 N 1000 t KzO

Category IV /40-70/

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Table 3/5

K20 - C 0 N S U M P T I 0 N 1000 t KzO

Category V /70-100/

 $-173-$

 $Appendix 4 1$

Table $3/6$

K_2 0 - CONSUMPTION

1000 t K20

Category VI / over 100/

Table 1

Countries according to their annual consumption of fertilizers

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Appendix 4/2 - Classification of developing countries according to their
fertilizer consumption

Table 2

Consumption Potassium Nitrogenous Phosphate 1980/81 1986/87× 1980/81 1986/87^x 1980/81 1986/87× rates, tonnes of nutrient $\frac{0}{20}$ $\frac{97}{10}$ $\frac{97}{10}$ $\frac{0}{20}$ 2ζ **No** $\%$ **No** No $\frac{0}{20}$ **No** $_{\prime 0}^{0\prime}$ $^{0\prime}_{\rm 0}$ No. No Up to 10.000 47 51 43 59 49 53 74 80 72 78 47 -4 64 11 -2 10.000-30.000 28 30 20 22 -8 30 33 28 30 -3 13 13 13 14 $+1$ 30,000-60,000 10 19 18 20 $+9$ $\mathbf{2}$ $\overline{2}$ 11 12 $+10$ $\overline{4}$ $5₁$ $\overline{\mathbf{z}}$ $\overline{\mathbf{5}}$ $+1$ Over 60.000 $\overline{0}$ $\overline{7}$ $\boldsymbol{8}$ 11 11 $+3$ $\overline{\mathbf{5}}$ $+4$ $\overline{2}$ $\overline{\mathbf{3}}$ $2¹$ $\overline{\mathbf{3}}$ \mathbf{I} \mathbf{I} $\overline{4}$

Countries according to their per hectare consumption of fertilizers

x/ Consumption of nutrient per hectare has been calculated dividing the forecasted demand in 1986/87 by arable and permanent crop area in 1980/81.

Appendix 4/2

Appendix 4/3 - Raw material potential in Table 1 Table 1

Table 1 /cont'd/ 10⁹cu m

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Table 1 /cont'd/ 10^9 cu m

Appendix $4/3$ Table 1 /cont'd/

- a./ Unless indicated otherwise data taken from International Petroleum Encyclopedia 1983, Pennwell publishing co., Box 1260, Tulsa, Oklahoma 74101, 1983. p. 318.
- b./ Statistics Review 1983, Energy Economics Research Ltd. 6. May 1933. PP• 8-9.
- c./ Unless indicated otherwise data taken from International Petroleum Encyclopedia 1983, ep.cit.
- d./ Proven reserves as of 1. January 1981. Petroleum Economist, August 1981.
- e./ Statistics Review 1983, Energy Economics Research Ltd, 6. May 1983. PP• 4-5.

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Crude oil production, reserves and refining capacities in the developing countries

 10^6 t

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Table 2 /cont'd/ 10^6 t

- a Unless indicated otherwise data taken from International Petroleum Encyclopedia 1983, Pennwell Publishing Co; Box 1260, Tulsa, Oklahoma 74101.
- b Petroleum Economist, January 1983.
- c Fertilizers in developing countries, potential for setting up mini-fertilizer plants, Draft III/July 1982/ E.Z. Unido.

Table 3

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Table 3 /cont'd/ 10^6 t

APPENDIX 4/3

Table 3 /cont'd/
 10^6 t

- a./ The fiqures relate to all grades of anthracite, bituminous coal, brown coal and lignite.
- b./ Source: Fertilizers in developing countries; potential for setting up mini-fertilizerplants. Draft III. /July 1982/ E.z. UNIDO
- c./ Monthly Bulletin of Statistics, Vol. XXXVII N^0 8, Aug. 1983. United Nations, New York.
- d./ 1980 Yearbook of World Energy Statistics, United Nations, New York, 1981.

Table 4

\overline{a} arwae in tha \ddot{x} ϵ $\overline{\mathbf{r}}$ $\overline{\mathbf{r}}$ \overline{a} $\overline{}$

- a Phosphate Rock Statistics 1982, International Fertilizer Industry Association Limited, 28, rue Marbeuf, 75008 paris.
- b World Phosphate Rock Statistics 1981. Phosphorus and Potassium No. 120. July/August 1982. /Data calculated from tel-quel weight, assuming 30% P₂O₅/
- c Fertilizer Manual Development and Transfer of Technology Series No.12., UNIDO
- d Fertilizers in developing countries; potential for setting up minifertilizer plants.

Table 4 /cont'd/

- e Tonnage and grade stated in terms of equivalent quantity of marketable phosphate rock of 30% P₂O₅ grade or higher.
- f World Survey of Phosphate Deposits, 1980, The British Sulphur Corporation Limited, Parnell House, 25 Wilton Road, London.

Appendix $4/3$ Table 5

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Production of potash and reserves in the

a - FAO Statistics

 b - "The situation of the potash industry in the developing countries" by Fernand C. Angulo, UNIDO: presented at Lahore, Pakistan 1982

n.a. - not available

Table 6

Production of Sulphur in-all-forms and reserves in the developing countries in 1981

1000 t S/S equivalent

- a Bureau of mines minerals yearbook, 1981. US Department of the Interior
- b Mineralnüe reszurszü promüslenno razvitüh kapitaliszticseszkih i rajzvivajuscsihszja sztran 1978. Moszkva, 1979. Szojuzgeolfond, 444 p.

- c Opportunities for the establishment of mini fertilizer plants in the developing countries. Sectorial Studies Branch, UNIDO 1983.
- d Preliminary Sulphur and Sulphuric Acid Statistics 1982, May 1983, PP• 1-2. The British Sulpur Corporation Limited, London.
- $e 0i1$ and Gas Journal, 8 August 1983, pp. 114-118.
- Brimstone: includes Frasch,native and byproducts based on petroleum and naturalgas.
- Other forms: When data of sulphur recovered are available it includes byproducts based on coal and metallurgy; When data of sulphur recovered are not available it includes byproducts based on coal, metallurgy, petroleum and natural gas.
- Reserves: + - Sulphur 0 - Pyrite

Raw materials potential for fertilizer production in developing countries studied /1983/

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- 198 -

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/?/: no oil reserves identified, refining capacity may be available

Table 1

Appendix 4/4

Potential users of mini N fertilizer plants /demand versus mini-plants capacities in countries identified as potential users of mini fertilizer plants/

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Table $1/$ cont'd/

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 Δ ppendix $4/4$. Table l/cont'd/

a - unit capacity: $40\ 000$ tpy N for 150tpd NH₃ 68 000 tpy N for 250tpd NH₃

Potential users of min. P₂₀₅ fertilizer plants

/demand versus mini plants' capacities in countries identified as potential
users of mini fertilizer plants/ 1000 tpy $P_00₅$

Table 2

 \blacksquare -402

Table $2/$ cont'd/

Table $2/\text{con.} t \cdot d/$

a - unit capacity: 29 000 tpy P_2O_5

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Mini-Fertilizer Plant Projects, Appendices

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Date:

